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INDEX TO VOLUME LV.,

JULY TO DECEMBER, 1892.

The Week.

AT HOME.

Alabama goes Democratic, 77, 95—Arkansas goes Democratic, 271—Amherst College professors for Cleveland, 309—Senator Allison not stirring to take off tin duty, 37—Edward Atkinson on repeal of tax on State banks, 271, 294—American Iron and Steel Association's *Bulletin* on our industrial enemies, 364—Alien cabin passengers quarantined as immigrants, 345—Agricultural exports diminishing under McKinley Bill, 218.

Buffalo switchmen's strike, 118, 135, declared off, 155, good behavior of militia, 156—J. G. Blaine's letter on campaign issues, 193, paired vote, 234, remarks at Ophir Farm, 293, prophecy as to McKinley Bill's non-effect on exports justified, 309—Gov. Buchanan of Tennessee saves H. C. King, murderer, from hanging, 118—B. Butterworth speaks at Cooper Union, 327—Prof. C. A. Briggs's trial reopened, 403, two main charges, 423, his opinions about reason ignored, 443, lively pursuit of his pursuers, 465—Betting on elections, 343.

Colorado, undenominational divinity school at, 61, cost of silver mining at Creede, 213, Republican straddle on the silver question, 233—Connecticut Republican platform against importe1 cheap labor, 194, partisan Supreme Court decision in contested-election case, 250, State election goes for Cleveland, 343—Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* on disfranchisement by Australian ballot, 211—Grover Cleveland, Kansas editor's grounds of opposition to, 20, letter of acceptance, 233, election, 343, warning to office-seekers, 401, effectual, 464—Judge T. M. Cooley for Cleveland, 309—George T. Curtis on the constitutionality of protection, 249—Speaker Crisp, opposition to re-election, 61—Census, faulty railroad statistics, 442—Cholera impending, 157, Treasury 20-day quarantine, 175, 194, atrocious treatment of *Normannia's* passengers, 194, 195, press undoing its scare, 235, wonder at Central American quarantine, 251—Civil-Service Commissioners' warning against assessments, 117, appeal to Wanamaker in vain, 293—Christian Endeavor Convention in N. Y., 20—Copyright expiry in England and America, 20—Cotton-hose importations under the McKinley Bill, 77,—cotton-manufacturers' wages raised at Lowell, 382, effect of Cleveland's election on cotton industry, 421—Congress, 53d, reasons for extra session, 381.

Congress—LII., first session: Stewart Free-coinage Bill passed (Senate), 1—Pension Appropriation Bill debate (Senate), 2—Silver Bill doomed (House), 19, defeated, 37—Washburn on Anti-Option Bill, Quay for closing World's Fair on Sunday, Palmer against (Senate), 37—Inquiry as to Pinkerton men (Senate), 38—Bill to exclude Canadian vessels from St. Mary's Falls Canal passed (both houses), White's cotton objections to Anti-Option Bill (Senate), 59, 77—Carlisle's answer to Aldrich (Senate), 77.

——— second session: Chandler's Bill to restrict immigration (Senate), Dockery's resolution on the state of the Treasury (House), 421—Resolution touching gunboat building on the great lakes (Senate), 442—George's Anti-Option Bill speech, 463—McPherson's resolution to suspend silver purchase (Senate), 485—Sherman's Nicaragua Canal Bill (Senate), 486.

Dwight, Theodore W., deceased, 3—Senator H. L. Dawes catechised as to tariff, 234—Geo. W. Delamater sentenced to penitentiary, 272—Gen. Wm. F. Draper millionaire and U. S. pensioner, 345—John I. Davenport's supervising methods, 310, question of his accounts with Treasury, 402—Chauncey Depew's vulgar speeches in Indiana, 327—Gen. Dyrenforth fails to make rain again, 422—Deficiency for the current fiscal year, 95.

Ewart, ex-Congressman, turns Democrat against the Force Bill, 117—William Everett contests Lodge's seat, 249—Patrick Egan lands, his Chilian banquet, 273, remarks at Ophir Farm, 293—Eight-hour law and Government work, 118—Elections carried by Democrats, 343, twenty-year period of revolution, 363, failure of Republican reliances, 381, official vote of N. Y. and Indiana, 402, diminished Republican vote in five States, 441, grand totals, 485—Exports diminished, 463.

Florida goes Democratic, 271—John W. Foster succeeds Blaine as Secretary of State, 1, Ohio objections, 2, correspondence over Canadian tolls, 165, 486—Secretary Chas. Foster appoints a Welshman Immigrant Inspector, 77, correspondence with Congressman Fitch as to J. I. Davenport's accounts, 402, recommends repeal of part of McKinley Administrative Act, 441—Henry C. Frick, attempted assassination of, 60—Webster Flannagan charged with admitting Chinamen, 311—Senator Frye opposes American registers to foreign-built ships, 486—*Financial Chronicle* urges repeal of Silver Law, 233.

Georgia goes Democratic in State election, 271—Senator Gorman not conspiring to steer Cleveland, 401—Jay Gould deceased, 423, leaves no public bequests, 443—Gold exports and imports for year, 61, Mr. Funston on, 78, resumed, 401, disturb the money market, 463, gold production of U. S. for 1890, 176—Grain harvest and European prosperity, 38.

Harrison, President, letter on Democratic tariff plank, 2, conducts his own campaign, 19, pays a debt with the Charleston postmastership, 38, son Russell's connection with Yellowstone Park scandal, 59, threat against Argentine hides, 61, vetoes McGarrahan Claim Bill, 77, proclaims a canal toll on Canadian freight, 135, speech on commerce revival at Malone, 155, asked to prohibit immigration during the cholera, 157, sanctions Treasury quarantine circular, 175, 194, letter of acceptance, 175, as to tax on State bank notes, 193, loses his wife, 311, gains nothing by use of office-holders as electioneering agents, 364, last message, 421, proffered law professorship, refuses to extend classified civil service to Louisville and Portland Canal, 486—Michael D. Harter merits reëlection, 60, service to pensioners, 194, fails to draw McKinley into debate, 271, reëlected, 363—C. J. Harrah for free raw materials, 272—Geo. F. Hoar on Government's power to help manufacturers, 136, on the ruin of New England manufactures, 422—Hackett's plan to buy Democratic votes, 234—Homestead strike, militia called out, 19, attempted assassination of H. C. Frick, and declaration of Advisory Board, 60, their prosecution for treason, 251, strike declared off, 382—Harvard and Yale Professors for Cleveland, 294.

Indiana "idee" superseding the Ohio, 2, attempt to nullify Australian ballot law, 250, official vote, 402—Illinois Republicans for compulsory education, 212—Idaho mine rioting, 38—Iowa Democratic Convention, 136, prospects under the Australian ballot, 328—Iron industry, strike at Carnegie works, 2, English and American production, 195—Immigration for six months, 39, checked by President's proclamation, 311, steamship agents before the Washington Committee, 463—*Independent* gives Christian character to President Harrison, 364—*Iron Trade Review* on steel-rail extortion, 212.

Kansas, talk of dividing the State, 383—Keeley's bichloride of gold cure denounced in England, 61.

Lodge, Henry C., avoids Force-Bill issue, 135, strives for Senatorship, 211, unscholarly confusion of the Woolseys, 294.

Maine Republicans glory in increased imports, 78, Republican ballot trickery, 157, Republican loss in election, 193, Prohibitionist gain, 250—Michigan gerrymandering act declared unconstitutional, 78, fair law passed, 95, law as to nomination of [illegible] Morse, C. J., 136, Presidential electoral law by U. S. Supreme Court, 293—Massachusetts rupt Practices Act, 79, Republican State Convent 211, Bureau of Statistics of Labor's dependents' address, 271, publicat Practices Act, 442, torchlight ex 464, Governor need no longer be Minnesota Republican Gov ern Montana, Republicans tryi 441—Judge Maynard's reap N. Y. Bar Association, Gov. Flower, 486—Edwa for Senator, 383, 423, ler counsel in suit to in electoral law, 293, confesse is abortive, 441—McGarra President, 77—Gov. McKi payment in balance of trade tery, 327, 344, suppresse report, 344, the butt of Europe and cotton hose, 77, does not increase expo nor wages, 310, hurts N. Y. grape-growers in favo of Californian, 344, McKinley Administrative Ac assailed by N. Y. Chamber of Commerce, 464—Rev A. D. Mayo on the Virginia school system, 117—Wayne MacVeagh's letter and speech for Cleveland, 293—Dwight L. Moody's prayers save the *Spree*, 443.

New York, State: Supreme Court on inter-State extradition, 39, Judge Rumsey declares Reapportionment Act unconstitutional, 95, act sustained by Court of Appeals, 296, State Board of Women Managers desire Chicago Fair open Sundays, 195, Democratic sentiment of the State gaining, 294, official vote, 402; City: Hot-weather mortality diminished, 79, appreciation of real estate, 136, Mayor Grant asks the President to stop immigration, 213, naturalization checked by judges, 235, third party in city election disastrous, 250, Reform Club's record of city senators and assemblymen, 295, Tammany nominates Gilroy for Mayor and Fitzgerald for additional Surrogate, 311, Gilroy's letter of acceptance, 328, a sermon on bribery, 329, Grant will appoint no more officers, 402—N. Y. *Tribune* quotes Kansas editor against Cleveland, 20, list of American millionaires and tariff moral, 95, 96, settlement with Typographical Union, 96, confusion of mind as to McKinley tariff affecting food prices, 118, delight in foreign misery caused by McKinley Bill, 249, warning against Australian ballot, 250, lays of Squire Smalley during the campaign, 310—New Jersey Democrats nominate Judge Werts, 212, official vote at Presidential election, 422, Werts-McPherson conspiracy to make Abbett U. S. Senator, 464, Jersey City ballot-box stuffers pardoned, 486—New Hampshire Republicans divided, 212—Nevada silver Republicans bolt, 175, the State for Weaver, 328—North Dakota not sure Republican, 250—New England Tariff Reform League's offer to Home Market Club, 309—Negroes abandoning the Republican party, 329—Naturalization checked by judges, 235.

Ohio "idee" gives way to Indiana, 2, Wool-Growers' Association grumble over protection, 233, exposed by J. Q. Smith, 422, November election nearly Democratic, 363—Omaha scarcity of domestic help, 213—Hugh O'Donnell does not draw, 156—Options and the cotton market, 403.

Pennsylvania ballot law making trouble, 272—C. F. Peck's report on tariff's effect on wages, 156, ridiculed by workingmen, 176, attacked in court, 212—T. V. Powderly on the fruits of protection lost to labor, 156—President Patton eschews politics, 345—R. P. Porter becomes Burton Sec, 97, talks on the growth of religious denominations, 117, wants the Census Bureau permanent, 421—Bishop Potter on gates

Pattison orders militia to Homestead, 1—...cary's successful expedition to ...m Platt to be placated with ...s-Party Convention and platform, ...Convention sound on silver and ...ermont and Maine, 211—Pinkerton ...gality of, 38, Devlin-Oakes collision ...ning, 60, Pinkerton's reply, 60—Pullman Car ...has not raised wages, 310—Pearl-button profits ...der the tariff, 310—Pension deficit acknowledged by Senator Stewart, 2, Pension Office Investigating Committee's report, 19, 20, disabilities incurred since the war sufficient, 272—Presidential campaign unexciting, 211.

...y, Matthew, trust in Democratic discord, 233—Quarantine of *Weimar*, 382.

...sell, William E., drawback dilemma for Republicans, 194, fifth nomination for Governor, 251, election, 343—Whitelaw Reid's trouble with Typographical Union, 96, approves his own letter of acceptance, 310—Secretary Rusk's report, 381—Green Raum in pension investigation, 19, 20, reports, ...Thomas B. Reed avoids Force Bill and anticipates higher prices, 135, says parties make principles, 343—Republicans troubled by iron strike, 2, ...d a Chairman for National Committee, 38, throw ...prohibition overboard at the West, 117, divided as ...o Force Bill, 117, 135, favor reciprocity after Ver... election, 193, League Convention at Buffalo a ...acties in present campaign, 327, aban... protection to American shipping, 422—...reat issue after Vermont election, ...

...ppointed to Supreme bench, 59—...man's lukewarm praise of Mc...peech against State banks at ...low opinion of Committee of ...)-1861, 345, to move repeal of ...n the difficulties of so doing, ...t bolts the Republican party, ...enson's letter of acceptance, ...ith not defeated enough, 364 ...h's trial for heresy, 365, con... Department has not investigated ...ery, 403—Silver situation alarms ...ll continues, 118, 119, production of ...tates for 1890, 176, silver-mining at Creede, ... cost of, 213, silver issue not in the campaign, 329—Single-tax applied at Hyattsville, 95—*South Portland* released, 234.

Texas R. R. Commissioners enjoined by Judge McCormick, 135—Prof. R. E. Thompson on wages and protection, and advantage of war to industry, 234—Treasury declared bankrupt by *Ledger* correspondent, 155, circular as to quarantining immigrants, 175, 194, 382, Treasurer's annual report contradicts the Secretary, 401, statement of exports and imports, 463—Tin-plate production in Wales, cost, and American production, 136, closing of Temescal mines, 344, tin chapter in Census Office Report, 403—Tariff tinkering by Republicans tabulated, 343, tariff on art works ought to be abolished, 382.

Virginia's school system praised by A. D. Mayo, 117—Vermont ... ernor ap... law, 27... Vest ...

Wisco... ...nundering act unconstitutional, 78, ...titute also, 249, third attempt, 328, Re... ... abandon compulsory education, 212—... ...g. Republicans trying to steal Senatorships, ...ohn Wanamaker and the Princess Anne (Md.), ...96, on Republican reforms, 97, upholds partisan use of Michigan post-offices, 293, annual report, 421, on improving N. Y. P. O., 441—William Whitman and the Arlington Mills, 156—J. DeWitt Warner tests Peck's statistics, 176—Wages in the U. S. and abroad, 382—Wild-cat currency scare not effective in election, 364—Wool, Senate likely to make it free, 364, 381, Ohio Wool Growers' Association exposed by J. Q. Smith, 422, Wool-growing States voted for Cleveland, 485—Writing-Paper Manufacturers' Association raise price of paper, 234—World's Fair Sunday opening favored by directors, 365—War vessels on the great lakes, 486.

ABROAD.

GREAT BRITAIN:—Chambers of Commerce Imperial Congress, protection resolution defeated, 3—Progress of elections, 21, Opposition majority, 30, Gladstone's taunting by the Opposition and skilful defence of his position, 119, Cabinet attacked by Radicals, Earl Rosebery Foreign Secretary, 137, J. Morley reelected, 157, Commission to inquire about evicted tenants, 251, contested elections, 383—Salisbury on the threat ... ... and ... 35— ... in ... ion, ... one- ... 's

statement, 463—Society for the Study of Inebriety denounces Keeley cure, 61—Cobden Club stops its annual dinner, 310—Publishers' woes described by Mr. Heinemann, 443—Authors' rights in mutilated reproductions, Sidney Lee's case, 137—Philip Vandam's "Englishman in Paris," 345—State insurance discussed by British Association, 137—*Illustrated Church News* projected, 295—Tennyson's death and possible successor, 273—Prof. Davison acquitted of heresy, 487.

FRANCE:—Socialists carry several cities at elections, 21—Typographical unions opposing schools for girls, 96—Trouble with Spain over minimum tariffs, 137—Leroy-Beaulieu against resuming work on Panama Canal, 157—Legal boycotting defined, 176—Effect of Pope's letter on monarchical party, 177—Lower revenue from high tariff, 235—Death of E. Renan, 251—International animosity between French and Belgian Socialists, 273—Result of shipping-bounty laws, 295—The *Autorité* and M. de Mackau go over to the republic, 311—M. de Varigny's account of Burchardism, 365—Government investigation of Panama Canal scandal, 383, 487, causes fall of Loubet Ministry, 403, and menaces Floquet's resignation, 487, Déroulède-Clémenceau duel, 487.

BELGIUM:—Brussels Silver Conference, A. de Rothschild's proposal, 401, cheerfulness of American delegates, 423, restrictions on British as stated by Sir C. R. Wilson, 463.

SPAIN:—Pope to be asked to intervene against Carlists, 235—Señor Salmerón cheers for the Republic, 487.

GERMANY:—Imperial Socialism producing malingerers, 21—The Nemesis of Bismarck, 79—Prof. Soetbeer on the ratio of subsidiary silver, 97, 157—Bad working of compulsory insurance, 177, and of Sunday law, 251—Caprivi on the folly of a war with France, 465.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY:—Reichsrath adjourns, German Liberals losing ground, 119.

NORWAY:—Ministerial crisis over the consular question, 79, 97.

RUSSIA:—Cholera and famine in alliance, 79.

BRAZIL:—Ruy Barbosa on S. de Mendonça, 3—Bill to prevent using military against less than 10,000 rioters, 61—Bishop will not bless a dictator's flag, 97—Bill to aid industry by grants, 177—A sample election of Congressman, 195—Gunshot quarantine, 295.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC:—Reciprocity correspondence with U. S., 61.

CHILI:—Egan and McCreery still at their posts, Egan's refusal to leave copy of official despatch, 2—Tension with Peru over Tacna and Arica, 213—False rumor of attack by Peru and Argentina, 365—New Chilian loan eagerly taken, 329—Rejoicing of Americans over Cleveland's election, 365.

VENEZUELA:—Forcible seizures from an American ship at Puerto Cabello, 155.

CANADA:—Foreign population, census of, 39—Question of war vessels on the lakes, 486.

NEWFOUNDLAND:—St. John's swept by fire, 21.

Notes.

Announcements, 7, 30, 48, 69, 87, 106, 126, 145, 165, 186, 203, 223, 241, 260, 282, 301, 319, 335, 352, 375, 391, 412, 431, 449, 473, 493—W. E. Addis's Hexateuch Documents, 495—American Economic Association's change of officers, 188, American maps, early, in the Paris Exhibition, 285, American economists appreciated by Prof. Cossa, 321, "American" an early name for United States inhabitants, 433—Astronomy, American activity in, 107, 108.

Bettoni, Nicolò, Barbèra's, 50—H. Beyle's monument and epitaph, 147—James Bryce on the migrations of men, 167—E. E. Barnard discovers fifth satellite of Jupiter, 303—Victor Bernstrom's wood-engraving, "Pirates' Haven," 413—W. T. Blythe on sea-water temperature and the wind, 495—Michael Beer, G. Manz on, 498—Boston Public Library cuts off non-resident authors from loans, 127, Notes on Special Collections in American Libraries, 302—British Medical Association admits women, 127—Bengali language and ethnology, 205—Binding exhibition of Burlington Fine Arts House, catalogue of, 321.

Cladel, Léon, deceased, 128—Columbus Album of *Natura ed Arte*, 413, Columbus, C. R. Markham on, 243, P. L. Ford's Writings of, 261, various prizes and memorials, 393—Prof. Luigi Cossa on American economists, 321—T. Cassini assailed by Scartazzini, 321—Chambers's Encyclopædia, Vol. xi., 31—Carlyle and Emerson, 50, 88—Capt. Lewis Clark's MSS. in Wisconsin Historical Society's archives, 476—Chinese report on anti-foreign literature, 362—Celtic oath, D'Arbois de Jubainville on, 205—Criminal Anthropology Congress, 188.

D'Arbois de Jubainville on the Celtic oath, 205—Dante not the author of Questio de aqua et terra, 377, as viewed by Canon Liddon, 433—C. F. Dunbar on State bank question, 393—W. F. Draper on the profits of Massachusetts corporations, 414—Dictionary of National Biography, Vol. xxxii, 303—Devils driven out in Wemding, 71.

Emerson and Carlyle, 50, 88—O. L. Elliott on tariff controversy in U. S., 337—Egypt, Justice Scott on the English administration of, 303—Edinburgh University admits women to Arts class-rooms, 377—English Civil List pensions, 107.

Franklin portraits, list of, 167—E. B. Frost on thermal absorption in solar atmosphere, 243, 244—P. L. Ford's Writings of Columbus, 261—France, growth of clerical schools, 393, appreciation of Tennyson, 393, Academy loses four members, 393, 495—Flower perfumes, cause of, 496.

Gould, Jay, history of Delaware Co., N. Y., 451—Geikie, Sir A., address before British Association, 188—Prof. J. Geikie on sea-level variations, 243—R. Giffen on international statistical comparisons, 414—Goethe-Schiller Archives at Weimar, 224—George A. Gordon on Massachusetts land-grants, 434—Girton and Newnham honor students surpassing men, 9—Glasgow University adopts Queen Margaret's College, 261, bazaar for its benefit, 496—Geologic time, Sir A. Geikie on, 188—*Goethe-Jahrbuch*, 188.

Hauser, Kaspar, Schütte's, 261—J. B. Halvorsen's Norsk Forfatter-Lexikon, 9—Adolf Harnach's Medicine in Early Church History, 71—M. Halévy on the Semitic relations of the Hittites, 205—Homer, Pictorial Atlas, 50, 51—William Huggins on Nova Aurigæ, 262—Thomas Hazard's Account-books, 302—Homer's plagiarisms from Bible, 495—Hittites a Semitic people, 205—History teaching, J. Wells on, 434—Harvard Annex prospering, good-will of President Eliot, 451, *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, 284.

Ibsen in Halvorsen's Lexikon, 9—Jacques Inaudi, mathématical prodigy, 31—Independent Theatre Society, London, second season, 285, second play, 495.

Joan of Arc's statue set up at Rouen, 89—Charles Johnston on Bengali philology and ethnography, 205—Jews, Parsees, and Greeks' three thanksgivings, 70—Jane Eyre, authorship of *Quarterly* criticism of, 205—Jupiter's fifth satellite discovered by E. E. Barnard, 303.

Kruell's portrait of Mrs. Stowe, 244.

Lecouvreur, Adrienne, death, 244—John A. Lewis Library catalogue, 167—Lincoln's Life by Herndon, new edition, 376—Canon Liddon on Dante, 433—Legal-tender notes in California, B. Moses on, 392.

Mouchez, Admiral, deceased, 205—Xavier Marmier deceased, 337, 393—Marshal MacMahon's forthcoming Memoirs, 70—Ménard on the cause of flower odors, 495—C. R. Markham on Columbus, 243—Cotton Mather author of the Boston Declaration of 1689, 477—B. Moses on legal-tender notes in California, 392—Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon Supplement, 31—Mexican shields, Zelia Nuttall on, 51—Maya MSS., Ed. Seler on, 355—Munich art sales to Americans and others, 89—Marseilles and the liquor traffic, 128—Merrimac wilderness land-grants, 434—Mob violence, M. Tarde on, 188—Magazines for July, 8, 9, August, 88, 89, September, 166, 167, October, 284, 392, 393, November, 354, December, 475, 476.

Nuttall, Zelia, on ancient Mexican shields, 51—S. Newcomb on the variation of terrestrial latitudes, 147—Nile, Rawnsley's Notes for the, 107.

Orange, N. J., S. Wickes's History of, 31.

Parker's, Archbishop, consecration, 224—A. C. Pratt's "To the Snows of Tibet," 128—Emily Penrose as scholar and lecturer, 168—Pennsylvania Tax Conference on value and taxation, 451—Poles, frisky movement of the earth's, 147—*Pagan Review*, 243.

Quain's Human Anatomy, 147—Quilter's Preferences in Art, 476.

Renan's funeral compared with Tennyson's, 337—Camille Rousset deceased, 393—Rousseau's correspondence with Mme. Boy de La Tour, 50.

Scartazzini, Dr., accuses T. Cassini, 321—Fra Paolo Sarpi's monument, 337—Stendhal's fame reviving, monument, 147—Prof. E. Suess medallist of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, 476—Arthur Schuster on certain physical problems, 224—Mrs. H. B. Stowe's portrait by Kruell, 244—Surgeon-General's Office, Catalogue of Library, vol. xiii., 354, 355—Slavery in Wisconsin, 476—Spiritualism, A. R. Wallace on, 31—Studies in Secondary Education, 146—Sun-spots, E. B. Frost on thermal condition of, 243, 244—Sea-water temperature and the wind, 495.

Tennyson's funeral compared with Renan's, 337, estimation in France, 393—N. H. Thompson on the control of national expenditures, 224—Turgeneff's relations with Herzen, 377—Talleyrand Memoirs assailed anew through M. de Bacourt, 451, 452—Tibet, Pratt's To the Snows of, 128—Tariff controversy in U. S., O. L. Elliott on, 337.

Vierge's illustrations to Pablo de Segovia, 476.

Wallace, Alfred Russel, on Spiritualism, 31—Washington's Writings, vol. xiii., 70, Washington-Madison papers for sale, 376—R. Wagner's part in the Revolution of '49, 206, 303, spiritual development described by Hugo Dinger, 303—Weimar Goethe-Schiller Archives, 224—Wisconsin, slavery in, 476—Women in English colleges outrivalling men, 9, in Scotch universities, 261, 377, 496, L. Frank on the Political Condition of Women, 377.

Zola, E., on Napoleon at Sedan, 337.

Editorial and Miscellaneous Articles.

Aldrich's, Senator, Speech..... 80
American Academy of Political and Social Science..... 6
Anti-Boodle Leagues Wanted..... 312
Athletics, Glorification of..... 406
Bos Locutus Est..... 298
Boston Bankers on State Banknotes.. 346
British Elections.....25, 64
Brussels Conference..... 424
Brussels Conference, End of the..... 466
Business on Sentimental Principles... 489
Canada, Protection in..... 215
Capital, Glut of..... 81
Chicago University.....Jr. 216, 255
Chilian After-thoughts..... 120
Cholera and Quarantine..... 178
Cleveland and Tammany..... 384
Cleveland in New York..... 62
Cleveland's Reélection..... 346
Cleveland's Reform Club Speech..... 444
Coeducation in German Universities. 42
Colbert's Protectionism..... 313
Compulsory Voting..... 5
Congress, Work of..... 98
Connecticut's Ballot Lesson..... 80
Currency Expansion, Object-Lesson in 41
Curtis, Geo. William..... 180
Custom-house Statistics..... 62
Eau Claire Lumber Case..... 179
Eight-Hour Movement in England.... 198
English at Harvard, and Elsewhere... 299
English Election Contests..... 446
English Electioneering Dodges..... 82
English Legal Procedure, Reform in.. 160
English Mysteries, Two..... 254
English, Spoken..... 352
Extra Session, Objections to..... 384
Farm Vote, The Doubtful..... 63
Farming in Maine..... 159
Forcing the Fighting in the Senate... 4
Foreign Affairs, Changed Conduct of. 236
Foreign Joy at Republican Defeat.... 467
Four Thousand Immortals..... 6
French Corruption, The (Panama).... 468
French Trouble (Loubet Cabinet)..... 426
French View of Brussels Conference. 424
Gigantic Bunco Game..... 312
Gospel of Hatred..... 297
Great Example..... 346
Greatest Political Necessity..... 252
Harrisonian Foreign Policy..... 140
Harter, Congressman, on State Banks 253
Hill-Murphy Conspiracy..... 425
Home Rule Has Cost the Liberals, What..... 64
Homestead Riots, Pulpit on the..... 40
Homestead Trouble, Merits of the..... 22
Homestead, Warring Protectionists at..... 40
Industrial Enfranchisement, Third Stage of Our..... 366
Instructive Comparison — Birmingham and Boston..... 369
Jenkins and the Other Doctors..... 214
Labor Problem, Light on the..... 138
"Labor," Tyranny of..... 98
Legislative Discouragement of Business..... 347
Maine, Farming in..... 159
Making Politics of Science..... 330
Martin, Hon. David, Concerning..... 274
Maynard Case..... 488
Mississippi, Ballot in..... 139
Money in Elections, More About..... 274
Moral Issue, The..... 330
Morley's Trouble..... 237
Municipal Government, New Departure in..... 197
Need of Prompt Action..... 366
New York, A Fair Election in..... 296
New York and the Electoral College.. 120
Novelists and Dramatists..... 238
Oates's Report on the Homestead Affair..... 99
Old Bubble Pricked..... 313
Our Variegated Currency..... 23
Palmer, Senator, on the Rights of Labor..... 22
Panama Corruption Fund..... 490
Paxson, Chief Justice, Homestead Charge..... 275
Peck's Report..... 158
Pension Bonds, U. S..... 466
"Personalities"..... 488
Platforms and Principles..... 404
Potter, Bishop, on Sunday Opening of World's Fair..... 236
Presidential Chances..... 296
President's Burdens..... 24
Presidents, Ways of Choosing..... 314
Politics and Currency..... 405
Protected Industry, A Typical..... 100
Protection in Canada..... 215
Railway Finance, New Features in.. 407
Railway Pooling..... 445
Reading Railroad Combination..... 158
Republican Financiering, Three Years of..... 25
Riot and Protection..... 138
Salvation Army and the Churches..... 4
Secret Ballot, Party Value of..... 214
Secret Voting..... 368
Sectarian Schools, Problem of..... 386
Short-Haul Decision..... 331
Silver, Future of..... 196
Silver Legislation..... 367
Silver-Purchase Act, Repeal the..... 404
Stable Protective Tariff Impossible... 252
State and Federal Taxation..... 444
State Banknotes, Boston Bankers on.. 346
Sunday at Chicago in 1893..... 425
Tariff for Wages Only..... 121
Tariff Issue, The Practical..... 178
Tennyson..... 276
U. S. Currency, Variegated..... 23
Unworkable Theory, An..... 122
Venality in American Politics..... 252
Vermont Election..... 196
Voting upon Compulsion..... 5
Whittier, John G..... 199
Who Are "Good Americans"?..... 385
Working-Classes, Progress of the..... 467
Workingmen and the Tariff..... 299

Special Correspondence.

Domestic—Prohibition in Maine..... 65
Coal Waste in Pennsylvania..... 101
Outlets to the Great Lakes..... 217
England—The "Agamemnon" at Bradfield College..... 26
Tercentenary of Dublin University..... 43
The General Elections in Ireland. 83
The Decorations at Chicago..... 84
Robert Lowe, Lord Sherbrooke.. 141
Gladstone's Return to Power..... 142
International Congress of Experimental Psychology..... 182
In Thomas Hardy's Country..184, 200
Irish Affairs..... 219
Plea for the Discouragement of Art..... 239
The "Duchess of Malfi" at the Independent Theatre..... 348
Gladstone's Oxford Lecture..... 370
Continental Travelling—and Ireland..... 428
The Autumn's Art in London..... 447
U. S. Charts in the Public Record Office..... 471
Washington Relics in London..... 491
France—A German Jacobin..... 27
Janet's Fénelon..... 45
The Question of Alsace and the Russian Alliance..... 66
Among the Psychologists of Paris. 68
Hugo's Journeys in France and Belgium..... 85
With Bernheim at Nancy..... 101
Bardoux's Lafayette.....123, 164
The Question of the Colonies..... 161
Bossuet as an Historian..... 219
Fêtes and Centenaries..... 238
Marceau..... 258
Lamartine and Madame Charles.. 279
Paris Exhibition of Early American Maps..... 278
The Colliery Strike at Carmaux... 315
The Funeral of Renan..... 316
On the Morrow of St. Bartholomew..... 371
Henri de Virieu.....387, 429
The Religious Question in France. 408
Memoirs of Count Cheverny..... 491
Holland—Leyden and its Archives... 143
Germany—At Bodenstedt's Birthplace..... 123
Italy—Letters of Ippolito Pindemonte. 108
An Extra-Territorial Italian City. 162
Restorations in Venice..... 256
Assisi and St. Francis..... 317
Crime and Politics in Italy..... 350
Italian Elections..... 427
Poetry in Italy..... 469
Spain—A Caribbean among the Americanists..... 333
The United States at the Hispano-American Exposition..... 349

Occasional Correspondence

Abandoned Farm..... 390
Adams's, C. F., Quincy Address..... 221
America, The Naming of..... 259
American Academy of Political and Social Science..... 46
Art Fallen among Customs Appraisers 186
Ballad History..... 410
Being, Built..... 165
Berlin's Municipal Government..... 221
Boston Public Library's Liberality to Authors.....220, 241, 260
Chicago, Men and Women Teachers in.....125, 186
Chicago University..... 280
Choosing of Electors by Ballot..... 388
City Government..... 259
Clark, William (not Clarke)..... 431
College English.....334, 374
Colleges and the President-elect..... 409
Colorado's Share of Protection..... 186
Copyright Act, Our Muddling..... 125
Cost of Living..... 241
Cousin Denoting Nephew and Niece, 390, 449
Curtis, G. W., and Shaw, F. G..... 203
Dante Sonnet ("Tanto gentile")..... 431
Declaration, Signing of the.....301, 319
Democratic Candidate for Vice-President..... 28
Egypt, Race of the Languages in..... 48
Egyptian Tombs, Mural Decoration of 48
Election, The..... 409
English at College..... 334
English in the Preparatory Schools... 388
Ethics of Publishing..... 410
Fame in the *University Magazine*, 334, 352
Fraudulence and False Profession.... 411
Glasse, Mrs..... 473
Heat and the Declaration of Independence.....301, 319
Homestead Rioters and Public Opinion..... 68
House-to-House Primary..... 300
Indiana State Bank..... 241
La Cosa Map, and Others..... 410
Like, The Conjunction..... 86
Literarian..... 145
Linton's Vindication of Paine..... 105
Loftus's Diplomatic Reminiscences... 493
Lowell, Frances Dunlap..... 30
Maine Ballot, The Misleading..... 202
Maryland, Secret Ballot in..... 259
Massachusetts Amendment..... 492
Modern Odyssey..... 334
National Banknote Guarantees, New. 372
National Finances, The..... 430
Nile Corvée..... 373
Non-Voters..... 47
Ohio Ballot..... 409
One Thing Needful..... 472
Paine, Thomas, Linton's Vindication of..... 105
Pennsylvania's Form of Ballot, 222, 388, 448
Pension Abuse..... 185
Pervert, A..... 335
Photography vs. Wood-Engraving.... 448
Pope and the French Government.... 47
Post-Office in Politics..... 448
Preparatory Schools, English in..... 389
Misdirected Energy in. 389
Process of an Error..... 165
Progressive Machine Index..... 125
Ramsay's Lancaster and York..... 145
Raphael's Hours and Galatea.....6, 165
Rolling-Mill Protectionism..... 28
Russian Professorship..... 29
Sexes as Pupils and Teachers.....125, 186
Shelley Memorial Subscription..... 203
Silver, The Price of..... 472
Spelling, Teaching of..... 374
Stained-Glass Windows.....431, 448
State Bank Currency..... 318
State Banks, The Guarantees for..... 352
Steel-Wire Binding Nuisance.....374, 390
Stewardson, Edmund L..... 105
Tariff Accounting..... 202
Tariff and the Workingman's Mind... 409
Tariff Principles of the G. O. P..... 334
Tintoretto's St. Mark..... 301
Tobacco, Tariff on..... 319
Trees, Cultivation of..... 352
Turkey, American Diplomacy in..... 29
University Instruction in Journalism..... 319
Unsectarian Theology..... 105
Very Pleased..... 281
Washington Genealogy..... 373
Washington, Political Purity in the State of..... 105
Washington's Pedigree Assured..... 473
Whitmore's Ancestral Tablets..... 185
Who Elect Congressmen?..... 409

Titles of Books Reviewed.

Across the Plains (Stevenson's)..... 145
Addison, (Thurber's) Select Essays of 106
Afloat and Ashore on the Mediterranean (Meriwether's)..... 460
Alaskana (James's)..... 453
Allen, Ethan (Hall's)..... 173
American Government (Hinsdale's).. 17
American Missionary in Japan (Gordon's)..... 340
American Yachting, (McClelland's) Official Register of..... 203
Anabasis, (White and Morgan's) Dictionary of..... 172
Anatomy, Comparative, (Lang's) Textbook of..... 325
Andes of the Equator, Great, (Whymper's) Travels Among..... 72
Anglo-Saxon Towns (Fellows's)..... 57
Apodidæ (Bernard's)..... 173
Apologetics (Bruce's)..... 495
Armies of To-Day..... 438
Arnold, Matthew, (Smart's) Bibliography of..... 449
Art of Poetry (Cook's)..... 404
Atlantic Ferry (Magiansi's)..... 56
At Sundown (Whittier's)..... 433
Average Woman (Balestier's)..... 262
Ballads and Barrack-Room Ballads (Kipling's)..... 11
Barbara Fritchie (Dall's)..... 399
Barren Ground of Northern Canada (Pike's)..... 207
Beatrice Portinari, (Randi's) Marito e i Figliuoli di..... 87
Beauties of Nature (Lubbock's)..... 353
Beauty of Form (Steele and Adams's). 502
Beggars All (Dougall's)..... 262
Bestie Delinquenti (D'Addosio's)..... 203
Bettoni, Nicolò (Barbèra's)..... 50
Bible and English Prose Style (Cook's) 416
Bible, (Adams's) Creation of..... 495
Bible Dictionary (Hepburn's)..... 354
Bibles of America, Early (Wright's).. 341
Blind in China, (Cumming's) Work for the..... 449
Boiled Beef, Ninety-nine Methods of Utilizing..... 432
Book of Day Dreams (Moore's)..... 454
Book of Famous Verse (Repplier's)... 453
Books and Printing, (Jacobi's) Notes on..... 432
Bosphore Cimmérien, (Reinach's) Antiquités du..... 225
Bossuet (Rébelliau's)..... 219
Botanical Terms, (Crozier's) Dictionary of..... 360
Boxley Parish, (Cave-Browne's) History of..... 187
Brahmanism and Hinduism (Monier-Williams's)..... 17
Breech-Loader (Greener's)..... 461
Brethren of the Cross (Lewis's Werner's)..... 452
Browning Year-Book..... 494
Browning's Criticism of Life (Revell's)..... 126
Burne-Jones, Edward (Bell's)..... 395
Burns's Select Poems (Dole's)..... 494
Burr, Aaron, (Tompkins's) List of Books relating to..... 166
By the Sea (Henderson's)..... 452
Calidore (Peacock's)..... 494
Canada, Northern, (Pike's) Barren Ground of..... 207
Canada's Frontier, On (Ralph's)..... 207
Capital, Le (Jannet's)..... 129
Cap'n Davy's Honeymoon (Cain's)..... 262
Carlyle, (Nichol's) Life of..... 145
Characteristics (Mitchell's)..... 436
Charing Cross to St. Paul's (McCarthy's)..... 479
Chatelaine of la Trinité (Fuller's).... 435
Cheap Money Experiments (Bishop's) 283
Chesterfield's Letters (Bradshaw's).. 493
Chetwynds of Ingestre (Chetwynd-Stapleton's)..... 187
Children (Aldrich's)..... 360
CHILDREN'S BOOKS.....356, 415, 455, 474
Children's Rights (Wiggin's)..... 360
China Collecting in America (Earle's) 190
China, (Cumming's) Work for the Blind in..... 449
Chinese-Japanese Dictionary (Gubbins's)..... 354

Choléra (Daremberg's)..... 228
Cholera, Asiatic..... 261
Cholera Epidemic (Palmer's)..... 261
Chopin, Frederic (Willehy's)..... 450
Christian Church, (Moeller's) History of..... 283
Christian History, (James's) Curiosities of..... 283
Classisches und Romantisches aus der Tonwelt (Lipsius's)..... 12
Clouet, Les (Bouchot's)..... 69
Colombo, Albo di Onoranze Internazionali a..... 413
Colon, Cristóbal, Autógrafos de..... 306
Colonel Starbottle's Client (Harte's)..... 93
Columbus (Jefferson's)..... 453
Columbus, (Markham's) Life of..... 355
Columbus, (Ilsowitz's) Quest of..... 454
Columbus, (Eggleston's) Story of..... 336
Columbus, (Ford's) Writings of..... 261
Comédienne au XIXe Siècle (Lecomte's)..... 322
Commerce, (Cantillon's) Essai sur le.. 242
Condition Politique de la Femme (Frank's)..... 377
Connecticut River Reeds..... 12
Construction Details (Chandler's)..... 57
Countess Kathleen (Yeats's)..... 452
Crestomazia Provenzale (Crescini's).. 433
Crime et la Peine (Proal's)..... 203
Criticism on Gen. Booth's Social Scheme..... 7
Crow's Nest and Belhaven Tales (Harrison's)..... 435
Cup of Life (Kimball's)..... 454
Dante MSS. des Bibliothèques de France (Auvray's)..... 339
Dante, (Norton's) Early Life of..... 339
Dante, Traité de l'Eloquence Vulgaire (Maignien and Prompt's)..... 339
Danube (Millet's)..... 240
D'Arblay's Diary (Ward's)..... 493
Darwin and After Darwin (Romanes's)..... 266
Daughter of the South (Harrison's).. 33
Days Afield in Staten Island (Davis's) 145
Dead Nymph (Luders's)..... 12
Death of Oenone (Tennyson's)..... 93
Débâcle (Zola's)..... 93
Decorative Art, (Crane's) Claims of... 17
Desire of Beauty (Crane's)..... 93
Deutsche Volksdieder (White's)..... 432
Disease in Great Britain, (Haviland's) Geographical Distribution of..... 353
Diplomatic Reminiscences (Loftus's). 358
Distinction and the Criticism of Belief (Sidgwick's)..... 324
Divine Comedy (Norton's Dante's)..... 310
Dog in Health and Disease (Mills's).... 35
Dollinger, (Kobell's) Conversations of 480
Don Fhilmondone (Cavazza's)..... 93
Downfall (Zola's)..... 93
Dreams and Days (Lathrop's)..... 12
Dreams of the Dead (Hardy's)..... 190
Dynamics of Rotation (Worthington's)..... 114
Early Days of My Episcopate (Kip's).. 56
Earthly Paragon (McGlasson's)..... 396
Edelweiss of the Sierras (Harrison's).. 33
Edinburgh (Masson's)..... 494
Edinburch, (Wilson's) Memorials of... 132
Egypt (Baedeker's)..... 17
Egypt, (Petrie's) Ten Years Digging in 353
Egyptian History, Ancient (Brodrick's)..... 449
Eighteenth Century Vignettes (Dobson's)..... 494
Electrical Words, &c. (Houston's) Dictionary of..... 7
Elizabethan and Jacobean Pamphlets (Saintsbury's)..... 493
England, (Trumbull's) Free - Trade Struggle in..... 242
England, (Rogers's) Industrial and Commercial History of..... 226
English Cathedrals (Van Rensselaer's) 479
English-French Conversation Dictionary (Jischke's)..... 7
English Landed Interest, (Garnier's) History of..... 325
English Language and English Grammar (Rausey's)..... 13
English Manor, Old (Andrews's)..... 413
English Poems (Le Gallienne's)..... 452
English Poetry, (Baldwin's) Six Centuries of..... 494
English Social Reformers (Gibbins's). 260
English Topography (Gomme's)..... 260
Englishman in Paris..... 171
Enoch Arden (Beljame's)..... 196
En Voyage (Hugo's)..... 85
Epistolæ Ho-Elianæ (Jacobs's Howells's)..... 493
Equitable Taxation..... 260
Erziehung, (Schmid's) Geschichte der. 106
Essays on the U. S. Constitution, (Ford's) Contemporary..... 127
Essex (Barrett's)..... 242
Etelka's Vow (Gerard's)..... 436
Ethical Teaching in Old English Literature (Hunt's)..... 127
Ethnology in Folklore (Gomme's)..... 15
Evidence at the Common Law, (Thayer's) Select Cases on..... 373
Faith (Valdés's)..... 7
Fallow Field (Dorr's)..... 375
Famous Pets of Famous People (Lewis's)..... 412
Farmers Tariff Manual (Strange's)... 242
Farragut, Admiral (Mahan's)..... 417
Faust (Thomas's Goethe's)..... 417
Fellowe and his Wife (Howard and Sharp's)..... 33
Femmes Écrivains (Lhomme's)..... 87
Fence, (Castle's) Schools and Masters of..... 151
Fénelon (Janet's)..... 45
Fifty Pounds for a Wife (Glyn's)..... 33
Five Hundred Books for the Young (Hardy's)..... 145
Flies, Favorite (Marbury's)..... 380
Flower o' the Vine (Sharp's)..... 196
Footnote to History (Stevenson's)... 289
Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary (Lea's)..... 306
Fort Pitt and Letters from the Frontier..... 439
France, (Griswold's) List of Novels and Tales about..... 146
France of To-day (Betham-Edwards's) 30
France un 'er the Regency (Perkins's) 307
Franciscaner in der Vereinigten Staaten Nordamerika's (Hammer's).. 242
Frederick the Great, (Ransome's) Battles of..... 399
French Trade Struggle in England (Trumbull's)..... 242
French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II. (Jusserand's)..... 398
French Art (Brownell's)..... 454
French Revolution, (Stephens's) Speeches of Statesmen and Orators of..... 377
From Palm to Glacier (Rollins's)..... 35
Fuller, Thomas, Selected Sermons (Bailey's)..... 223
Games, Ancient and Oriental (Falkener's)..... 133
Geldwesen, (Seven's) Studien über die Zukunft des..... 242
Genesis, (Ryle's) Early Narratives of. 495
Genesis Printed in Colors (Russell's).. 166
German Empire, (Sybel's) Foundation of..... 108, 130
German Lyrics (Phillips's)..... 12
Germine, J. D., (Hering's) Life and Works of..... 301
Giddings, (Julian's) Life of..... 206
Gift of Fire (Porter's)..... 453
Gild Life, (Lambert's) 2,000 Years of. 14
Giovlo and Giulia (Scollard's)..... 12
Gladstone's Speeches..... 49
Glasgow Stage (Baynham's)..... 322
Gleams and Echoes..... 453
Golf, (Simpson's) Art of..... 87
Grammar, (Prance (Pearson's)..... 15
Great Britain, (Haviland's) Geographical Distribution of Disease in..... 353
Great Seal..... 478
Great World's Farm (Gage's)..... 482
Grèce d'aujourdhui (Deschamps's).... 149
Greek Anthology (Mackail's) Epigrams from..... 304
Greek Archæology, (Murray's) Handbook of..... 225
Greek Comic Poets, (Paley's) Fragments of the..... 438
Greek History, (Mahaffy's) Problems in..... 89
Greek Philosophy, (Burnet's) Early.. 113
Greek World under Roman Sway (Mahaffy's)..... 89
Greuze, J. B., (Normand's)..... 392
Grey, Sir George, (Rees's) Life of..... 189
Grimm, (Sime's) Life of..... 260
Gryll Grange (Peacock's)..... 106
Half-Century of Conflict (Parkman's) 9
Hanoverian-English Officer (Comptdale's)..... 416
Hastings and the Rohilla War (Strachey's)..... 168
Hauptbuch, (Schütte's)..... 261
Heine, H., (Dunbar's) Wit, Wisdom, and Poetry of..... 432
Hexateuch (Addis's) Documents of... 385
Historical Reference Book (Heilprin's) 106
Homer, (Clerke's) Familiar Studies in 266
Homer, (Ingelman and Anderson's) Pictorial Atlas to..... 50, 51
Homœopathic Bibliography (Bradford's)..... 166
Horse (Flower's)..... 16
How to Write a Good Play (Archer's) 322
Huguenot Family of Minet (Minet's).. 449
Human Anatomy (Quain's)..... 147
Human Document (Mallock's)..... 33
Human Mind (Sully's)..... 285
Hutton, Laurence, From the Books of 145
Ibsen, H., et le Théâtre Contemporain (Ehrhard's)..... 223
Iliad for English Readers, (Leaf's) Companion to..... 488
Illegitimacy (Lecky's)..... 152
Illuminated MSS., (Middleton's)..... 190
Imperial Federation (Parkin's)..... 287
In Arctic Seas (Keely and Davis's)..... 502
In Old St. Stephen (Drake's)..... 436
Index Locorum (Schilling's)..... 106
Indo-Chine, (Chailly-Bert's) Colonisation de l'..... 106
Industrial Freedom (Wise's)..... 208
Industrial Remuneration, (Schloss's) Methods of..... 148
Inns of Court and Chancery (Lofties's)..... 479
Instruction Publique en France et en Italie (Dejob's)..... 57
International Date Line (Collins's)... 376
Irish Love-Songs (Tynan's)..... 452
Iron Manufacture in All Ages (Scott's)..... 242
Italian Child Life (Ambrose's)..... 247
Italian Composition (Grandgent's)..... 7
Italian Masters, Old (Cole and Stillman's)..... 379
Ivory Gate (Besant's)..... 435
Japan, (Goodrich's) American Missionary in..... 340
Japans Volkwirthschaft (Rathgen's).. 286
Jew at Home (Pennell's)..... 93
Jewsbury, Geraldine E., (Ireland's) Letters of..... 460
Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon (Dobson Scudding's)..... 126
Jump to Glory Jane (Meredith's)..... 452
Keene, Charles Samuel, (Layard's) Life and Letters of..... 92
Kolokotronis..... 229
Lachrymæ Rerum (Watson's)..... 453
Lafayette, (Bardoux's) Jeunesse de 35, 124, 164
Lamb, Charles, (Johnson's) Best Letters of..... 106
Lamb, Charles, (North's) Wit and Wisdom of..... 432
Lancaster and York (Ramsay's)..... 71
La Plata, (Hudson's) Naturalist in.... 501
Land Nationalization (Wallace's)..... 353
Lays of Country, Home and Friends (Leary's)..... 11
Lebenslauf, Ein (Fröbel's)..... 305
Lectures on the English Poets (Hazlitt's)..... 126
Legends of the Netherlands (Tucker's) 453
Léman, Le (Forel's)..... 474
Leone X. e la sua Politica (Nitti's).... 133
Leos IX., (Bröcking's) Französische Politik..... 283
Letters to a Young Housekeeper (Taylor's)..... 432
Life in Motion (McKendrick's)..... 460
Little Folks' Lyrics (Sherman's)..... 454
Little Norsk (Garland's)..... 262
Livery Companies of the City of London (Hazlitt's)..... 390
Logarithmic Tables (Hussey's)..... 359
London (Besant's)..... 388
Lover's Year-book of Poetry (Chandler's)..... 12
Lucian, (Smith's) Selections from.... 133
Lyric Love (Watson's)..... 452
Magic Ink (Black's)..... 435
Man and the Glacial Period (Wright's) 496
Man in Art (Hamerton's)..... 481
Marceau (Parfait's)..... 258
Marianela (Galdós's)..... 435
Marriage and Disease (Strahan's)..... 54
Marse Chan (Page's)..... 494
Marvell's Poems and Satires (Aitken's)..... 126
Massachusetts Bay, (Goodell's) Acts and Resolves of..... 502
Massachusetts Bay, (Adams's) Three Episodes of..... 394
Mather, Cotton, (Wendell's and Marvin's)..... 414
Mazzini, (Canestrelli's) Bibliography of..... 450
Medical Dictionary (Hobbyn's)..... 260
Medicinisches aus der ältesten Kirchengeschichte (Harnack's)..... 71
Melanesians (Codrington's)..... 91
Men, Mines, and Animals in South Africa (Churchill's)..... 54
Men's Thoughts for Men (Porter's)..... 433
Mission of the Church (Moore's)..... 495
Modern Love (Meredith's)..... 11
Modern Odyssey..... 92
Modification of Organisms (Syme's).. 493
Moltke (Herms's)..... 458
Moltke's Gesammelte Schriften..... 242
Monkeys, (Garner's) Speech of..... 267
Montalembert, (Lecanuet's)..... 477
Moods and Memories (Cawein's)..... 12
Morris, Robert, (Sumner's)..... 393
Michelangelo, (Symonds's) Life of..... 434
Mineralogy, (Dana's) System of..... 336
Minet, (Minet's) Huguenot Family of. 449
Mr. Bruner's Marital Claims (Johnston's)..... 436
Musee de la Conversation (Alexandre's)..... 450
Music, Modern, (Hadow's) Studies in. 437
Musical History, (Matthew's) Manual of..... 12
Musiques d'aujourd'hui (Jullien's).. 12
Naulahka (Kipling and Balestier's).. 262
Nemrod & Cie (Ohnet's)..... 396
Nero (Boissier's)..... 459
New England Country (Johnson's)..... 392
New World Called America, (Payne's) History of..... 321
New York City, (Wilson's) History of 289
New York, (Mines's) Tour around..... 419
Night Etchings..... 452
Nile, (Somers's) Notes for the..... 107
Noble Art, A (Smith's)..... 450
Norsk Forfatter-Lexikon (Halvorsen's)..... 9
North America, (Harrisse's) Discovery of..... 244, 264
Novels, Recent..... 33, 262, 396, 435
Nutrition, (Atkinson's) Science of..... 56
Odyssey of Homer (Platt's)..... 208
Ohio, (Moorehead's) Prehistoric Man in 341
Old French, (Paget Toynbee's) Specimens of..... 152
Old Shrines and Ivy (Winter's)..... 145
Old Testament, (Ryle's) Canon of..... 495
Opera-Comique, (Soubies and Malherbe's) Histoire de l'..... 146
Oranges, (Swingle's) History of the.. 31
Pablo de Segovia (Quevedo's)..... 476
Paddles and Politics (Bigelow's)..... 246
Paine, Thomas, (Conway's)..... 51
Paraguay (Bourgade La Dardye's)..... 439
Paris, (Child's) Praise of..... 392
Paupersim (Booth's)..... 7
Pendulum and Pantheism (Wilkinson's)..... 7
Peru, (Markham's) History of..... 267
Phases of Thought (Baldwin's)..... 132
Philadelphia Magazines (Smyth's)..... 145
Phthisie Pulmonaire (Daremberg's).. 433
Physics, (Hall and Bergen's) Textbook of..... 153
Plato, Dialogues of (Jowett's)..... 15
Poems (Allen's)..... 376
Poems (Kelly's)..... 12
Poems (Crump's Landor's)..... 493
Poems (Marston's)..... 452
Poems (Penkett's)..... 454
Poems (Watson's)..... 10
Poems by the Way (Morris's)..... 11
Poems of Wit and Humor (Mahaffey's). 453
Poems, Selected (Whitman's)..... 11
POETRY, RECENT..... 10, 452
Poets Sarah C., (Nelson's) Memorials of..... 325
Popular Studies of Nineteenth Century Poets (Mather's)..... 127
Portraits d'Écrivains (Doumic's)..... 261
Potiphar's Wife (Arnold's)..... 11
Preferences in Art (Quilter's)..... 476
Prehistoric Peoples (Nadaillac's) Manners of..... 500
Primitive Man in Ohio (Moorehead's) 341
Prince Serebryni (Tolstoi's)..... 396
Professor, and Other Poems..... 452
Property (Letourneau's)..... 260
Provence, Play in (Bennett's)..... 353
Province of Expression (Curry's)..... 35
Prussien en France en 1792 (Laquiante's)..... 27
Public Finance (Bastable's)..... 357
Puritan in Holland, England, and America (Campbell's)..... 147
Quality of Mercy (Howells's)..... 33
Rabelais (Millet's)..... 203
Raffet (Lhomme's)..... 354
Rambler, Sir Walter (Stebbing's)..... 151
Recent Rambles (Abbott's)..... 439
Revere, Paul, (Gosse's) Life of..... 16
Rhymes and Ballads for Girls and Boys (Woolsey's)..... 454
Robin Hood of Vermont (Hall's)..... 173
Roon, Grafen von, Denkwürdigkeiten aus den Leben des..... 497
Rotation, (Worthington's) Dynamics of..... 114
Rural Exodus (Graham's)..... 260
Russia, (Griswold's) Descriptive List of Novels about..... 375
Russia, (Laurie's) Schoolboy Days in. 461
Sanskrit, Nouns and Verbs, (Johnston's) Useful..... 302
Sardon, Victorien (Roosevelt's)..... 322
Saxon Chronicles Parallel (Plummer's)..... 330
Schlesische Zeitung, 150 Jahre..... 69
Sculpture, Grecque, (Collignon's) Histoire de la..... 225
Secondary Education, Studies in..... 146
Secret Service, (under Pitt (Fitzpatrick's)..... 230
Septuagint, (Hatch and Redpath's) Concordance to the..... 482
Sermons on the Old Testament (Driver's)..... 495
Shadow of the Stage (Winter's)..... 322
Sicily, (Freeman's) History of..... 169, 392
Shelley's Best Letters (Hughson's)..... 494
Sidney, Sir Philip (Fox Bourne's)..... 247
Signorelli, Luca, Illustrationen zu Dante's Divina Commedia..... 187
Silhouettes of American Life (Davis's)..... 262
Silva of North America (Sargent's)..... 114
Singing, (Dunn's) Art of..... 450
Smith, Henry Boynton (Stearns's)..... 113
Sohm's Institutes of Roman Law..... 230
Some Rhymes of Ironquill of Kansas. 453
Some Strange Corners of Our Country (Lummis's)..... 460
Song of America and Columbus (Cornwallis's)..... 453
Song of the Sword (Henley's)..... 11
Songs about Love and Death (Aldrich's)..... 453
Songs from Vagant (Johnson's)..... 453
Songs of Sunrise Lands (Scollard's).. 453
Sound and Music (Zahm's)..... 450
South Sea Idyl (Stoddard's)..... 260
Spain (O'Shea's)..... 354
Spain and Tangier, (Thomas's) Scamper through..... 87
Spanish Cities (Scoddard's)..... 354
Spinoza, (Fullerton's) Philosophy of. 152
Spirit of Modern Philosophy (Royce's) 53
Spoil of Office (Howells's)..... 262
STAGE, BOOKS ABOUT THE..... 322
Statics and Dynamics, (Loney's) Elements of..... 288
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives..... 115, 323, 457
Story in Early Education, (Wiltse's) Place of The..... 439
Story-Teller, The..... 435
Student and Singer (Santley's)..... 450
Studies in Mediæval Science (Haskins's) 437
Suggestion und die Dichtung (Franzos's)..... 227
Summer Fallow (Going's)..... 13
Swallow-Flights (Moulton's)..... 12, 453
Swift (Craik's)..... 106
Sybil Knox (Hall's)..... 33
Table Talk (Reynolds's Selden's)..... 493
Tales of a Time and Place (King's)..... 33
Tariff, (Taussig's) State Papers and Speeches on the..... 339
Taxation and Work (Atkinson's)..... 283
Tempest (Furness's Shaksper's)..... 112
Terre Promise (Bourget's)..... 396
Teufelsaustreibung in Wemding (Treufel's)..... 71
Théâtre Français, (Brunetière's) Epoques du..... 87
Theory of the Modern State (Bluntschli's)..... 392
Three Plays (Henley and Stevenson's) 375
Tibet, (Pratt's) To the Snows of..... 128
Told in the Gate (Bates's)..... 453
Tramp across the Continent (Lummis's)..... 16
Transvaal, (Distant's) Naturalist in the..... 30
Travelling Companions (Anstey's)..... 145
Uganda, (Stock's) Story of..... 498
United States, (Wilson's) Constitutional and Political History of..... 32
United States, (Rhodes's) History of.. 498
Valerie (Monnier's)..... 453
Van de Velde, Les (Michel's)..... 434
Verbena Camellia Stephanotis (Besant's)..... 435
Vesty of the Basins (Greene's)..... 33
Villainage in England (Vinogradoff's). 55
Voces Populi (Anstey's)..... 413
Wages, High, (Schoenhof's) Economy of..... 187
Wagner's, R., Geistige Entwickelung (Dinger's)..... 303
Water-Color Painting in England, (Redgrave's) History of..... 73
West from a Car Window (Davis's)..... 359
White, Bishop, (Ward's) Life of..... 481
Whitman, Walt (Clarke's)..... 126
Whittier, J. G., (Kennedy's) Life of... 87
Who Pays Your Rent? (Hall's)..... 260
Williams, Isaac, (Prevost's) Autobiography of..... 171
Women Should Ride, How..... 453
Woodman (Glouvet's)..... 436
Wordsworth's Prefaces and Essays on Poetry (Nowell's)..... 494
World of Music (Fremont's)..... 450
World's Metal Monetary Systems (Norman's)..... 498
Wrecker (Stevenson and Osbourne's). 396
Year Books of Edward III. (Pike's)... 171
Yorkshire, (Stewart's) Literary Shrines of..... 494
Young Lucretia (Wilkins's)..... 166
Zacharay Phips (Eynner's)..... 436

Books of the Week.

18, 36, 58, 93, 115, 134, 153, 173, 191, 260, 231, 248, 269, 290, 308, 326, 341, 360, 380, 399, 419, 439, 461, 483, 502.

ERRATA.

Page 59, col. ii, line 40. Omit sentence beginning "A notable illustration."

Page 140, col. i, line 27. For "Article" read "Amendment."

Page 285, col. ii, line 8. For "to-morrow" read "October 21." Line 30. For "Poll" read "Poel."

Page 334, col. i, line 28 from bottom. For "Cuilin" read "Culin."

Page 371, col. iii, lines 15, 32. For "Marguerite" read "Catherine."

Page 431, col. ii, line 17. For "Illou" read "Illon."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 7, 1892.

The Week.

THE passage of a bill for the free coinage of silver by the Senate near the close of the session and at the beginning of a Presidential campaign is one of the strangest things that it is possible to imagine. The details of the measure are likewise of the most whimsical description. The Bland Bill, which was stopped in the House by a tie vote, provided that for all silver brought to the mint legal-tender certificates should be issued at once. The bill which has passed the Senate makes no provision for certificates, legal-tender or other, but it does provide that all the silver bullion now in the Treasury shall be coined into standard dollars. The amount to be so coined is about one hundred million ounces. To coin all this metal into standard dollars would tax the capacity of the mint for two years, even if no other work were done there. But the coinage of gold and of small change cannot be suspended. Making allowance for this necessary work, the time required for coining all the bullion on hand would be at least three years. No silver dollars could be turned out for private depositors of bullion during that time. They would lose three years' interest on their capital. Meanwhile, the purchase of bullion under the act of 1890 would cease. If the mine-owners are benefited by the present law, of which there is room for doubt, they would lose that benefit and would get in exchange for it the promise of free coinage at the end of three years, taking the chance, of course, that the law might be repealed in the interval. Mr. Bland apprehends also that the bill, in repealing the act of 1890, will take away the legal-tender character of the Treasury notes issued under that act.

What will be the complexion of things if the bill passes the House and is vetoed by the President? That he would veto it is well known. The Colorado and Nevada Senators have so declared with extreme bitterness. Mr. Harrison virtually advertised his intentions on this head in his speech at Albany last year. Since that time an additional, and to the President an overwhelming, reason for a veto now exists in the international monetary conference which he has called, and which has been already agreed to by all the important nations of Europe. To pass a free-coinage bill in the face of a conference which assembles solely at our instance, would be little less than an insult to all who have been invited to participate in it, since it would forestall everything, including the ratio to be fixed upon. The President, if he had not given any other sign of his intention, would surely treat this bill as an impertinence both to himself and to the Powers whom he has invited to confer with us. When we look at the Senate bill in this aspect, we have to blush for shame. What must other nations, who have been asked by us to come together in a world's council to discuss this very question—what must they think of us when we take the word out of their mouths and decide it for ourselves? A veto of this bill by President Harrison would restore his waning popularity in the East, and would strengthen the Republican party immensely in business circles everywhere. The issues of the campaign would be changed in a twinkling. The tariff and pension profligacy would be swept out of view, and the standard of value, in which all property and savings and income are reckoned, would become the overshadowing question before the people. For the Democrats to exchange their fair prospects for such a risk as this at such a moment would be the maddest adventure in politics since the civil war.

The People's party Convention, which has just completed its sessions at Omaha, was the most largely attended and most thoroughly representative national gathering which any third party has ever got together. All sections of the country sent delegates, and the delegates were full of enthusiasm. The dominant tone of the assembly was discontent with existing conditions. A large part of this discontent was the vague dissatisfaction which is always felt by the incompetent and lazy and "shiftless" when they contemplate those who have got on better in the world. But there was also manifested that spirit of doubt as to the tendencies of our social development of late years which is shared by many thoughtful and philosophic observers, and which causes such observers to question whether something should not be done to check these tendencies. Practically the platform declares that everybody could be made happy if the Government would print a vast quantity of paper currency, allow free coinage and foist light-weight silver dollars upon the country, establish an immense loaning agency, and take control of the railroads. In other words, the fundamental theory of the party is that the Federal Government is an institution of such omniscience and omnipotence, such a repository of wealth and wisdom, that it can be trusted with limitless power. In short, the theory holds that a paternal government can make all its children "healthy, wealthy, and wise." General Weaver is the proper candidate for President of such a party. He is a demagogue who came to the surface in the Greenback period, and was nominated for President by that element in 1880. He is the sort of man who is always ready to take up with any new organization which can give him either office or prominence, and no platform could be constructed so ridiculous that he would not gladly stand upon it. He is the fit product of a convention in which Ignatius Donnelly was one of the most popular orators.

The national platform of the Prohibitionists, outside of the prohibition planks, is a great surprise. In fact, it is one of the most striking marks of the progress of political intelligence that have recently been presented. As reported, the platform contained a declaration in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold, but this was struck out by a vote of 335 to 596. A plank to the effect that the general Government ought to issue all money, the amount to be fixed at a definite sum per capita, was adopted, but with a good deal of opposition. But, what is most significant, the Convention voted down a declaration in favor of protection, and adopted a plank that is substantially hostile to all indirect taxation. "Tariff," it says, "should be levied only as a defence against foreign governments which levy tariff upon, or bar out, our products from their markets, revenue being incidental." This means free trade, at least with free-trade governments. There are a number of declarations of minor importance, and the platform concludes with a very hearty denunciation of both the Republican and Democratic parties for their many iniquities, much of which denunciation is deserved. Upon the whole, the Prohibitionists have done well, and the indications are that they will poll their full vote this autumn.

Mr. John W. Foster of Indiana, the new Secretary of State, is probably better fitted than any one who could be named to fill out the term of this Administration; and if President Harrison is reëlected, the continuance of Gen. Foster in the State Department would help to retrieve the blunder made in the choice of his predecessor. It has been alleged against him that he is disqualified for the office by the "entangling alliances" he has formed with the governments of other countries in the shape of legal retainers accepted from them. This seems to mean that acquaintance with diplomatic usage and with the most important questions to come before the State Department is really a bad thing in a Secretary, who, on this theory, would be much better fitted for his office if he knew nothing of its duties. It is further and more seriously alleged that he has made himself obnoxious to the following section of the Statutes of the United States:

"Sec. 5,498. Every officer of the United States, or person holding any place of trust or profit or discharging any official function un-

der, or in connection with, any executive department of the Government of the United States, or under the Senate or House of Representatives of the United States, who acts as an agent or attorney for prosecuting any claim against the United States, or in any manner or by any means otherwise than in the discharge of his proper official duties, aids, or assists in the prosecution or support of any such claim, or receives any gratuity or any share of or interest in any claim from any claimant against the United States with intent to aid or assist, or in consideration of having aided or assisted, in the prosecution of such claim, shall pay a fine of not more than five thousand dollars, or suffer imprisonment not more than one year, or both."

It is said that Mr. Foster has been discharging official functions "in connection with" the Department of State during a large part of Mr. Harrison's Administration, and has been serving foreign governments at Washington city and prosecuting their claims against our Government and receiving their pay at the same time. If this is true, and we fear it is, he is now liable to fine, or imprisonment, or both, under the statute above quoted.

We observe that Ohio Republicans are greatly dissatisfied with his appointment, but this doubtless springs from their failure to see how the "Ohio idee" has gone out of politics. The last census, we believe, showed that the centre of gravity of the population of the country had shifted from Ohio into Indiana. Certainly the political sceptre has passed from the hands of Ohio in a remarkable degree. The Ohio delegation at the Minneapolis Convention behaved with such conspicuous folly that they hardly dared go home; and ex-Senator Thurman gave fit expression to the disgust of the decent Democrats of the State at the way Senator Brice and his tools showed their imbecility at Chicago. In Republican politics, at any rate, the Hoosier idea is now to the front, and those fastidious Republican Senators who are reported as disgusted at seeing the White House made the glass of Indiana fashion and the mould of Indianapolis form, will support their ticket with many qualms over what the future may have in store for them in the way of unconventional manners in high places.

The President's letter to the New York League of Republican Clubs conveys a rebuke to all those Republican organs which have been a little slow in pumping up hysterics over the tariff issue. It will no doubt take them some time yet to lash themselves into a suitable degree of fury, but Mr. Harrison is already in a state of great excitement and alarm. His letter is somewhat incoherent, as is but natural coming from a man filled with such consuming and unselfish anxiety for imperilled American workingmen; but in so far as it is possible to get at his statements of fact, they appear open to serious question. He says of the tariff plank originally proposed in the Democratic Convention by the Committee on Resolutions, that it "seemed to recognize that some regard might be had in tariff legislation for the interests of our American workingmen." That word "seemed" is important. The plank here commended by Mr. Harrison is almost precisely the same as the planks of 1884 and 1888, which, in both those years, "seemed" to the same gentleman to show no regard whatever for his beloved workingmen. The Democratic tariff plank of 1884 spoke of the determination not to deprive "American labor of the ability to compete successfully with foreign labor," and of the need of having regard to the "increased cost of production which may exist in consequence of the higher rate of wages prevailing in this country." But Gen. Harrison joined in the shrieks of Mr. Blaine that this meant starvation or starvation wages to American labor. The platform of 1888 contained similar phrases, but the Republican candidate of that year was black in the face with shouting that they meant destruction to American industry. Now he says that his patriotic rage of that campaign was uncalled for, and that it is *this* year that the real and only assault on the workingmen has come. To an impartial mind it "seems" as if Mr. Harrison were so uncommonly anxious to have a "save-the country" campaign that he had made himself a little ridiculous.

He has worked himself into such a state of mind that he has forgotten the history of his own times. He says that the Democratic tariff plank of this year, as finally adopted, constitutes "a declaration more extreme and more destructive than has ever before been promulgated by the Democratic party." A Republican "from way back" ought to know what the Democratic tariff policy was in 1856. The National Democratic Convention of that year resolved that "the time has come for the people of the United States to declare themselves in favor of free seas and progressive free trade throughout the world." The same party's platform of 1852 declared that "justice and sound policy forbid the Federal Government to foster one branch of industry to the detriment of any other." The President's memory must go back to those years, and he must recall the fact that he heard no crack of doom then, in spite of the fact that the party advocating such baleful principles was successful in both campaigns. He will remember also that the people of the United States were then living, and had been for ten years, under what he would now call a free-trade tariff. It was certainly a tariff which made a nearer approach to free trade than any that has been framed since, or that will be framed for many years to come. The President must also remember, or if he does not he can read it in the veracious chronicles of his late Secretary of State, that it was a tariff under which the country had an unexampled degree of prosperity. It emphatically did not sink American wages to the level of those of "the pauper labor of Europe," did not close factories and throw thousands of workingmen out of employment, or check our industrial expansion. So unmistakable was the commercial and industrial well-being of the country at that time that the Republican platform of 1856 did not question it or the economic policy under which it had been brought about. But for the civil war and the enormous taxation which it made necessary, our latter-day protection would never have been heard of.

There seems to be no doubt that Republican politicians are much concerned over the prospect of a great strike in the iron industry, nor that the Washington managers have intimated to the manufacturers that a proper sense of loyalty to the Republican party ought to prompt an adjournment of the reduction in wages until after the election. The manufacturers are reported as saying that it is business and not politics with them. This being so, the alarmed Washington Republicans should try to make a peaceful settlement of the difficulty in a "business" way, and we suggest to them a method which is simple and would surely be effective. Let them excuse the manufacturers from their usual heavy contributions to the Republican campaign fund, on condition that they apply the sums thus saved to paying the former rate of wages to their employees. Or, better yet, let Treasurer Bliss take the checks of the iron-men and endorse them over to the Amalgamated Association. This would be a supreme proof of Republican sincerity, as it would show that the party is willing to turn over its money to American workingmen direct, instead of wasting a good part of it on maintaining headquarters and hiring bands and buying blocks of five. And as the only reason which leads the iron-manufacturers to submit to political assessments is their desire to pay high wages, they would certainly agree to this disposition of their contributions.

The facts brought out in the Senate last week in the debate on the Pension Appropriation Bill ought to startle the country into a realization of the perilous length to which the pension abuse has been carried As it came from the House Committee the bill appropriated over $133,000,000. The Senate Committee has amended this by increasing the amount to $144,956,000. In explaining this increase, Senator Stewart said that when the bill passed the House early in the session, it was supposed that there would be a surplus for the current year of from ten to fifteen millions, unexpended from last year's appropriation, but it had since been discovered that instead of a surplus there would be a deficit of $7,600,000. The Senator went on to say:

"The Committee on Appropriations had be-

fore it the Commissioner of Pensions and other officers of the Bureau, and learned from them that at the present rate of pension payments—$13,000,000 a month—it will require $156,000,000 to pay pensions in the next fiscal year. So that it is very probable that, even with the amount recommended in the amendment, there will be a deficiency in the next fiscal year of from $10,000,000 to $15,000,000. But the Committee did not desire to ask so much, because it was thought better to leave it to a deficiency."

Mr. Stewart admitted that if the work in the Bureau were pushed, the expenditure for pensions during the next fiscal year might run up to $155,000,000 or $160,000,000. This would nearly absorb all the customs revenue of the country. In his article in defence of the Harrison Administration in the June number of the *Forum*, Senator Hawley placed the pension expenditure at about $140,000,000, adding that it "is supposed that the number of pensions will reach their maximum within the next year." At present no man knows what that maximum will be, but the prospect is that, by the time it is reached, the total of annual expenditure will amount to $200,000,000. That is the price which the Republican party is making the country pay in order that the party may get the benefit of the "soldier vote."

In spite of the distinguished position occupied by Prof. Dwight, whose unexpected death startled the community last week, it is doubtful if the public is at all aware of the extent of its loss. He was the creator of a famous school of law, and it was as a teacher and professor that he was most widely known. It is unnecessary to remind our readers of his services and his success in this direction, for the number of his pupils is so large as to insure them due public recognition and commemoration. But it was as a kind of guardian of the fundamental institutions of our jurisprudence that Prof. Dwight rendered a service that was almost unique. He knew the law perhaps more thoroughly than almost any practitioner or almost any judge, and, being relieved from the excessive pressure of business that now comes upon both bench and bar, he was able to utilize his knowledge with reference to its applications to the general interests of society. If a constitutional convention were proposed, his name was naturally the first thought of for membership, and it is doubtful, now that he is gone, if any other name could be mentioned by the bar which would carry so great influence with the public at large. When we reflect upon the character of our recent legislatures, and consider the influences that dictate our laws, it is impossible not to be affected for the time with apprehension at the results of the removal of this great conservative force. We have lawyers of unsurpassed ability, we have reformers of abundant zeal, we have an undiminished fund of public spirit, but we have now few public men generally recognized as animated by unselfish devotion to the public welfare, ardent in the cause of social and legal reform, and at the same time fully qualified by their prolonged studies and extensive experience to prepare and apply measures of genuine wisdom. Such a combination of qualities is always rare, and tends to become increasingly so with the greater hurry of modern life and the extreme diversification of modern interests. Yet we may feel that Prof. Dwight's influence upon his pupils must have been sufficient to arouse in many of them a desire to emulate his career, and it is not unreasonable to hope that in his case the good that he has done will live after him and not be interred with his bones.

It turns out that Egan and McCreery, although they applied for and obtained two months' leave of absence, to begin March 1, have not yet made use of it, and are still in Chili. The latter is probably finding it more difficult to wind up his speculations in the market than he had anticipated, and perhaps both he and Egan think it would be as well not to return to this country until after the adjournment of Congress and the passing of all danger of a Congressional investigation. Perhaps, too, one thing that troubles our Minister to Chili is a recent publication in that country of the entire diplomatic correspondence between the Chilian Government and ours touching the recent disputes. Aside from the charge, which appears to be proved in this volume, that he wantonly exaggerated his reports and his instructions in order to inflame already excited feeling, he will find it very difficult to explain his conduct in refusing to leave a copy of a certain despatch with the Chilian Minister for Foreign Affairs, although he had specific directions from Acting-Secretary Wharton to do so. Meanwhile, he is every day finding fresh proof of the high regard in which he is held by Americans on the spot. But a short time ago he applied to the Chilian Government to protect him against assaults on his character made in the public press by Americans among others, and on July 4 neither he nor McCreery received an invitation to be present at the patriotic meeting of the American colony in Santiago. The President ought to recall these misrepresentatives of the United States without delay. To retain them, in spite of Chili's desire that they be replaced, while immediately bringing home an attaché of our legation in France at the request of the French Government, is to make it appear as if he were anxious to deserve what was said of him by Mr. Depew in his nominating speech, that "no country is too small" to feel the weight of his valorous resentment.

Ruy Barbosa has seen the letter which Minister Mendonça wrote to the *Evening Post*, asserting that Mr. Blaine's "promise" in the matter of the Brazilian treaty was made impossible of fulfilment by the McKinley Bill. The Brazilian ex-Secretary says of this assertion, in a letter which was published in the *Jornal do Commercio* of May 17, that it is "simply a piece of inconceivable effrontery." He puts some suggestive dates together. The McKinley Bill became law October 1, 1890. Twenty days later, Barbosa telegraphed Mendonça: "You may go on with the negotiation in accordance with the terms of your letter just received." The "terms" of that letter, which Barbosa quotes, set forth that "a *general exemption* from the duty on sugar is of no avail to us; we need an *exclusive favor* for our product." Moreover, when in Brazil in the latter part of 1890, Minister Mendonça contended that he had secured for Brazil this "exclusive favor," saying in an autograph letter, dated December 17, two months and a half after the McKinley Bill became law: "As to sugar, we are to enjoy the advantages of free admission, to the exclusion of European colonies in America." With this statement of the case, Barbosa says he is willing to "leave the chief actor in the affair to the judgment of the public of the two countries," though he urges the Brazilian Government to publish *in full* the correspondence relating to the treaty.

The British colonists have met their usual fate in attempting to persuade the English that the interests of the Empire require a return to the protective system. They were more sanguine than usual this year on account of the supposed intimations in Lord Salisbury's speech at Hastings, and the natural exasperation of the English at the multiplication of tariff obstacles to trade. But at the Congress of the Chambers of Commerce of the Empire lately in session at London, they were unable to carry Sir Charles Tupper's resolution declaring that a small differential duty should be adopted by Great Britain and her colonies, being defeated by 79 votes against 34. His resolution was offered as an amendment to one which declared that a fiscal union between Great Britain and her colonies by preferential duties, being based upon protection, would be politically dangerous and commercially disastrous, and that the arrangement that would best conduce to an intimate commercial union would be for the self-governing colonies to adopt, as closely as circumstances will permit, the non-protective policy of Great Britain. We cannot fully estimate the significance of this vote until the detailed report of the proceedings of the Congress reaches us, but it at least signifies that all hope of imperial federation based upon protective tariffs may as well be abandoned. While the resolution adopted may not lead the Colonial Governments to change their policy, it will encourage the supporters of free trade and weaken the protectionist feeling.

"FORCING THE FIGHTING" IN THE SENATE.

THE tariff debate in the Senate on June 29 between Senators Hale and Vest was a delightful contribution to the literature of the subject, and a sample of what the Republicans have to expect in their avowed determination to "force the fighting" on the tariff issue. Mr. Hale started out in the jauntiest spirit. He had introduced some resolutions to hang his speech upon, which recited that at "no time has so large a proportion of the American people been employed at so high wages, and purchasing the necessities and comforts of life at so low prices, as in the year 1892." His speech was absolutely limited to a review of the tariff plank of the Democratic platform and the manner of its adoption, the showing of a large "balance of trade" during the past year, and the familiar denunciation of the Democrats as upholders of "British doctrine." He made no semblance of an attempt to prove his assertion about "high wages" or "low prices," and, having delivered himself of the remarks which we have fairly summarized, he triumphantly announced that "the Republicans of the United States gladly accept the issue presented," and sat down.

A boy out hunting sparrows with a popgun could be no more horrified at seeing a grizzly bear rise in his path than the Maine Senator must have been at the speech of Senator Vest which followed. It was no extemporaneous effort on the latter's part. He had evidently been preparing himself to meet just such a Philistine, and proceeded to rend him in the most approved fashion. Through thirty pages of the *Record* he poured out facts and arguments on the gentleman from Maine, and all that that astonished Senator could say was, that, "before this debate closes, the demonstration will be given to the Senate showing his inaccuracy." Senator Vest cruelly inquired: "Why not give it now?" But Mr. Hale replied: "That was not my original purpose." In other words, he was not loaded for bear. No more was Senator Aldrich, to whom Mr. Vest appealed as the "tariff expert" on the Republican side, nor any other Republican Senator, so that the Missourian's overwhelming broadside is allowed to go into the *Record* and to the country to give the impression that, for the time being at least, it blew the Republicans clean out of the water.

Senator Hale's easy assertion about "high wages," without one fact adduced in support of it, "largely due to the Republican policy of protection," looked particularly silly after Mr. Vest had put in his list of "250 strikes and reductions of wages" occurring between December 4, 1890, and June 18, 1892, and all in industries "protected" by the McKinley Bill. The largest number was in manufactories of iron and steel, although Mr. Oliver has declared that McKinley gave the iron-men "everything they asked for," and, of course, they asked for no tariff except to be enabled to pay the high rate of American wages. Many instances of reduced wages are also given in woollen and silk manufactures, and in the glass and pottery industries, in all of which the McKinley Bill made great advances in duties for the express purpose, as its author alleged, of keeping up and increasing wages.

The Maine Senator's unsupported statement in regard to the unprecedentedly "low prices" now prevailing was in equal need of repairs before Mr. Vest got through with it. He first produced a lot of actual samples of various kinds of cloth and dress goods, mostly such as are used by the poor, and showed how, with but one trifling exception, a comparison of the cost of these goods in the New York market prior to October, 1890, and at present, showed marked advances, in some cases amounting to as much as 20 per cent. This was in face of the fact that foreign prices on the same goods had in the same period considerably declined. This table of Senator Vest's, which he particularly, but in vain, asked Mr. Aldrich to impeach if he could, is additionally instructive in its revelation of the fact that the rates of duty on the low grades used by workingmen are considerably higher than on better qualities, and also that American consumers are not permitted by McKinley to enjoy the general decline in prices which foreigners benefit by, owing to reduced cost of raw materials and better methods of production.

Perhaps the most heavily shotted gun of the Missouri Senator was his list of 100 tariff Trusts, with specifications as to the details of each. He wanted the people to have this before them as "the Senator from Maine makes this gladiatorial raid throughout the country on the tariff question." It is a compilation which is peculiarly timely now that the vaunted anti-Trust legislation of the Republican party is falling to pieces in the courts. The tariff on the articles monopolized by these various combinations is the great bulwark behind which the monopolists can shelter themselves. In each instance Senator Vest shows just how high that bulwark is and how it works, and gives many instructive details about the progress of the Trusts, several of which are in the hands of English capitalists, who are enabled by our intensely "American" tariff laws to take the people of this country by the throat. The whole array is a most impressive one, and is destined to shut the mouths of a great many Republican orators in the campaign, just as it left the Republicans of the Senate dumb on Wednesday week.

The debate in question is of great value, as showing the difference in the situation of the two parties on the tariff issue now and four years ago. Then the Republicans declined to commit themselves to any particular "schedules," but fell back upon their general worship of protection. But now they have got their "schedules," and must defend them. "Republican protection" has now a definite embodiment in the McKinley Bill. It is that definite protection which the Democratic platform declares to be a "fraud" and "robbery." Senator Vest shows how easy it is to prove that proposition. His encounter with Senator Hale may be taken as an indication of the spirit and results with which the tariff discussion will be carried on. The boy with a popgun is scarcely in a position to "force the fighting" with a grizzly.

THE SALVATION ARMY AND THE CHURCHES.

WHEN the Salvation Army first made its appearance in this city, it was so easy to make fun of that it immediately gained a good deal of notoriety and no end of "handsome notices in the press." But as soon as it had been squeezed dry of all the humor that it contained, it lost its attractions as a topic of newspaper remark and private conversation, and has been pretty much lost sight of for a considerable period. There are unmistakable signs, however, that it has made substantial headway. The well-known uniform is oftener seen in the streets. At the grand "encampment," or whatever they call it, of the Army a few weeks ago, large audiences, not only of adherents but of sympathizers, were gathered together in successive meetings. The great majority of the spectators went not as to a curious spectacle, but as to a serious assemblage convened for rational purposes.

At that time, residents in some of the fashionable parts of the city were surprised to see persons in Salvation Army uniforms, who were really out-of-town delegates, entertained in well-to-do homes just as if they had been members of any religious or charitable convention. This seemed to bear witness to sympathy with the aims of the Army in social quarters where such a thing had scarcely been suspected by the generality. Little by little, evidence has come out that what is known as the Auxiliary League of the Salvation Army has been winning many members among church people whose social position is as high as is their reputation for philanthropy. This League is designed to secure the support of people of wealth and standing who approve the general aims of the Army, but would not "enlist" as active members. Those who join it are simply required to endorse its general object "to extend the kingdom of God," to pay their membership fees and annual dues, and to accept a pin or badge which they are at liberty to wear or not as they choose. Particular attention has been directed of late to this branch of the Army's work, through the public announcement that the League had been joined by eminent religious leaders, such as Prof. Briggs, Dr. Lyman Abbott, and others, with their wives.

The main significance of their action, as of that of many others who have identified

themselves with the Auxiliary League, lies undoubtedly in their deep humanitarian feeling and their desire to lend their influence to any movement which does good. So far from wishing it to be understood that they approve of all of the methods of the Salvation Army, they distinctly say that they dislike exceedingly some of those methods, and are dubious about the wisdom of more. Yet it is apparent that one of the strongest motives by which they are actuated is their clear conviction that the Army is succeeding where the churches have failed. Thus, Dr. Abbott is reported as saying: "The Salvation Army is doing a glorious work in going among the lowly and rescuing them from vice and shame and misery. No church could do the work, no minister of the Gospel could do the work." Another clergyman, who has also joined the League, gave it as his testimony: "The Army's workers have had wonderful success with the lowly whom the churches cannot reach."

The movement in question, therefore, is but one of many signs and confessions that the churches are not succeeding in their appointed work of "preaching the Gospel to the poor" in great cities. The Auxiliary League, in fact, makes its strongest appeal to people who have had the disappointing nature of the recognized church methods forced home upon them in their own experience and labors. Teachers in mission schools, for example, keep a dubious hold for a few years upon the children of the poor, only to see them go away into vice as soon as they get old enough to defy the parental use of the Sunday-school as a supplementary police force, and are not unnaturally disheartened and made to question the wisdom of their own methods. Then they see the Salvation Army getting a grip on the vicious and hardened, even of adult age, and apparently reclaiming many, and it is not strange that they accept the results as sufficient justification of the methods.

Now, as to the general organization of the Salvation Army, it seems to us that the analysis of it made by Prof. Huxley a few years ago was unanswerable and destructive. It is an embodiment of arbitrary and irresponsible power such as no lover of human freedom or believer in individual initiative can wish to see acquire an extended sway. Its actual methods of work are undoubtedly wise—for the accomplishment of its immediate end. It makes a business of religion. It takes the underlying idea of the "class" system of the Methodists, the guilds of the Episcopalians, and the sodalities and other associations of the Catholics, and extends it after its own fashion, watching over its "converts" day and night, setting them to preaching to others as soon as reclaimed themselves, and striving to maintain their first enthusiasm and zeal from year's end to year's end. It is not strange that such a system, working in the way it does and upon the material it does, should make far better headway than the churches in the same field. And if the great end of work among the lower classes of society is to get an early crop of "converts," we do not wonder that church people are admitting the superiority of the Salvation Army methods over their own intermittent and unfruitful activities, and are joining the Auxiliary League with enthusiasm.

It seems to many students of social problems, however, as if a great mistake of religious and charitable laborers among the poor had been just this feverish haste to get immediate and tangible results. It is at least a fair question if more meagre returns in the beginning may not be consistent with really wiser measures and more substantial results in the long run. Such scientific methods as Mr. Charles Booth advocates and exemplifies in the treatment of the poor and vicious population of great cities promise small immediate, but finally large and enduring, success. A good analogy may be drawn from missionary labors among the heathen: the first efforts have to be directed towards civilizing rather than converting. The heathen who inhabit Christian cities are in equal need of being approached from the physical side, and built up into the raw material of civilization by patient and prolonged teaching.

VOTING UPON COMPULSION.

THE plan for compelling the exercise of the right of suffrage by those qualified to exercise it seems to have had some attractions for political theorists, in spite of the fact that it owes its recent prominence to the recommendation of a very practical politician, Senator Hill of New York. But these attractions are completely dispelled by Prof. Albert B. Hart, in an essay upon the subject which appears in the last number of the *Political Science Quarterly*. He begins with an analysis of the assertion that, owing to abstentions from voting, government in the United States is in the hands of the minority, and that therefore legal pressure must be brought to bear upon the stay-at-home voters in order that we may have a government of the whole people. This suggestion, Prof. Hart declares,

"will be found to rest on three premises: that abstention from voting is a political danger, and a danger which increases; that a government may properly require an expression of opinion from its people; and that compulsion will correct the evils of neglect of voting. Not one of these premises is beyond dispute; they are all matters not so much of theory as of experience and of probability based on experience. A careful examination of the available facts will show that the evil is much less than has been assumed; that suffrage is a thing which ought not to be imposed under any government; and that the effect of compulsion would be small, and rather against than favorable to good government."

As to the amount of abstention, it appears from Prof. Hart's investigations to be much exaggerated. We recently made some computation of the number of persons in the New England States qualified to vote or capable of such qualification, which, although based upon other tables, is in substantial agreement with Prof. Hart's estimate. In this computation we included in the "dumb vote" foreigners who had not sought to be naturalized—an element which the purposes of Prof. Hart's article require to be eliminated as not subject to compulsion. His computation differs from ours in applying to the country at large. Taking the year 1880 as a basis, that being a year in which a census was taken and a Presidential election also occurred, he finds that there were in the country some 12,500,000 adult males, of whom 3,000,000 were foreign-born. An elaborate count made in Massachusetts in 1885 indicated that about one-half the adult foreigners in that State were naturalized, and, taking this proportion as correct, the number in the country would be some 1,500,000. Some minor additions being made, there were in 1880 about 11,400,000 persons *prima facie* qualified to vote. But under the laws of the various States there are many disqualifications. Illiterate persons, paupers, and convicts are in some cases denied the right of suffrage by statute; insane and bedridden persons are denied it by nature. A great many votes are lost from change of residence, the number being incomputable, but guessed by Prof. Hart to be 110,000—in our judgment a low estimate. With these deductions Prof. Hart finds the number of legal voters in 1880 to have been 11,000,000. There voted that year for President all of these but about 1,800,000, or one-sixth of the total number, and Prof. Hart observes:

"A very brief consideration will show that when five-sixths of the voters come to the polls, no compulsory system could much increase the number. There are few churches, clubs, societies, or lodges in the country which have an attendance of five-sixths, even once a year; there is not an army in the field which can put five-sixths of its men in the ranks for a battle. There is not another country in the world which has ever exhibited so large a proportion of actual voters as the United States. Germany is a very intelligent country—a country where the roads are good, changes of residence are infrequent, and political interest is high. In the German election of 1887 the number of votes cast was but 77.5 per cent. of the number of voters—a little more than three-fourths."

But out of this one-sixth are still to be taken the aged, the sick, the travellers, the sailors, many students, many railroad men, and those accidentally prevented from carrying out their intention, to say nothing of negroes prevented by intimidation. The latter class alone is estimated by Prof. Hart to number 560,000, and the total number of those who do not vote from these causes he puts at 1,500,000, leaving but 300,000 qualified voters who abstained from voting for President in 1880 from all other causes, including lack of interest.

It is true that in State and municipal elections the number of abstentions is far greater, but the proportion is steadily de-

creasing. This part of the subject is not dealt with statistically by Prof. Hart, but he produces some general considerations that are sufficiently cogent. The law forbids many things, but there are few acts the performance of which it undertakes to compel, and if compulsion were desirable it would be practically impossible to enforce it. Prof. Hart makes a collection of early colonial statutes providing penalties for failure to vote, but they were of no effect. He criticises effectively the various penalties suggested in modern times, but his most weighty objection to them all is that abstention is often the best way of expressing political preference. Prof. Hart might have gone deeper into his subject; we should have been glad to see an examination of Mill's doctrine that the suffrage is a trust. But he has done enough to show that it is doubtful if the supposed evils of indifference and neglect on the part of voters exist to so alarming an extent as has been supposed, and has made it evident that compulsory voting would at all events be no cure for them. His essay should lead to the relegation of the subject to the limbo of impracticable schemes.

FOUR THOUSAND IMMORTALS.

It has often been asserted that Americans are peculiarly fond of titles. It may be doubted whether we really care more for such decorations than Englishmen or Germans, but it is probable that we care at least as much. Collectively committed as we are to the theory that all men are created equal, it is grateful to us as individuals to achieve some differentiation, and to have it outwardly and visibly signified in a title. Titles of nobility are barred; but military, ecclesiastical, and scientific prefixes and suffixes are open to us and are worn with decent pride. Unfortunately, however, the democratic instinct reacts against these aristocratic distinctions. It asserts that one man has as good a right as another to brevet himself colonel or reverend or professor; and, the right being largely exercised, a practical equality is reëstablished. The titles become so common as to be worthless, except as material for the American humorist.

Quite in line with these tendencies is the evolution, or rather the degeneration, of scientific associations in this country. Composed at first of scholars of recognized position, these bodies tend to include all who busy themselves, successfully or unsuccessfully, with the special science which each particular society aims to advance. Membership is conferred upon mere dilettanti, and is at last sown broadcast among the intelligent public wherever the interest felt, however vague, is sufficient to produce an annual payment. The American Association for the Promotion of Social Science passed through this evolution a generation ago; and the American Historical Association, to take a single recent example, is moving in the same direction. Other societies, especially those devoted to philology, economics, and the natural sciences, remain somewhat more exclusive; but in very few are the qualifications of candidates for membership scrutinized with much severity.

The most popular—not to say populous—of all these associations is one of the youngest. That extension of membership which has generally resulted from the gradual abandonment of stricter standards has, in this case, apparently, been contemplated from the outset. The American Academy of Political and Social Science, founded at Philadelphia in December, 1889, has all the outward semblance of a scientific society. It has a governing council of a more or less scientific complexion, a number of the councillors being connected with the University of Pennsylvania, and no person is eligible to membership unless approved by the council. It has also an "advisory committee," which includes some of the most distinguished publicists and economists of the country. But it does not appear that any person who is willing to pay the annual fee of five dollars is likely to be disapproved by the Council. It does appear that a great many respectable persons who were quite unconscious of having achieved eminence in political science, have had it thrust upon them by the unexpected notice that they had been elected members of the Academy—the notice being coupled in each instance with a request to remit five dollars to the Treasurer. Early in the second year of its existence the membership of the Academy was brought to the surprising total of 2,000, and we understand that it has since doubled.

Encouraged by its American triumphs, the Academy has extended its operations to the other side of the water, and has begun to confer the unsolicited honor of membership upon many Englishmen. In a recent number of the London *Truth*, Mr. Labouchere, surprised by the methods of the Academy, asks for information regarding its character. International courtesy and the interests of science impel us to furnish the information which Mr. Labouchere desires.

The American Academy of Political and Social Science is a subscription list. Membership in the Academy is a decoration which is conferred upon each annual subscriber. The periodical which is thus supported is known as the *Annals* of the Academy. Its editor-in-chief is Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania. Prof. James founded the Academy, and has been its President from its foundation. The *Annals* is primarily an organ of Prof. James and his associates in the University of Pennsylvania. It is not exclusively devoted to the publication of their writings: it solicits and receives contributions from other scientific authorities. It is an organ of the University of Pennsylvania in the same sense in which the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* is a Harvard organ, and the *Political Science Quarterly* a Columbia organ. In each of these cases the control of the periodical is in the hands of the professors of a single university. The Pennsylvania organ differs from the other two in its pretence to represent a national organization. They differ from it in that they offer no chromos to their subscribers.

When the American Academy of Political and Social Science was established, there were already in existence, as we have stated, the American Social Science Association and the American Historical Association. There were also in existence the American Economic Association and the American Statistical Society. But there was no American "academy" of the political sciences, and "academy" has a better ring than "association" or "society." It suggests something more exclusive. In other words, "Member of the American Academy" is a well-sounding title; nothing quite like it had previously been sold, and it was therefore eminently salable. The rapid growth of the Philadelphia Academy shows the justice of these calculations. Of course such an exploitation of a title has its limits. The more it is sold the less becomes its market value. But the limits do not seem to have been reached yet. The token has been debased, but it still circulates.

We have no means of knowing whether the "advisory committee" of distinguished scholars, many of whom are professors in other universities, ever give advice to the Academy, or whether their advice, if given, is heeded. It is not to be presumed, however, that they have recommended the touting methods which the Academy is pursuing. It is not probable that they have done, or have ever expected to do, anything but lend their names, with American good nature, to what seemed to be a worthy object. But if they are aware of the manner in which the Academy is being run, they are stretching tolerance too far in allowing their endorsement to stand on Prof. James's prospectuses.

Correspondence.

RAPHAEL'S HOURS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the renewed interest in the so-called "Hours of Raphael" awakened by Miss Williams's attractive book, will you kindly grant me the space in your columns for a few words upon this vexed question?

A writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, whose paper was reprinted in *Littell's Living Age* for March 14, 1891, declared that two of them are identical with frescoes at Herculaneum. Now I have in my possession a photograph taken from a Pompeiian fresco in the Naples Museum, numbered 5377, as a Bacchante in Sommer's catalogue, and called "Vanità," which is absolutely the same as the "Hour" named the "Sixth Hour of the Day." We know that Raphael and his pupils drew from the mural painting in the Baths of Titus, and as those were built just before the destruction of Pom-

peii, it seems highly probable that the same artist worked in both places, and that the airy form of Vanità danced alike upon the walls of the Pompeiian dwelling and upon the Baths of the Emperor, whence she was transferred, without the alteration of a flower, to the ceiling of the Vatican. Would that careful search might once more reveal her, floating amid the heap of confused remains which are grouped under the general name of "Baths," to bear witness once again to the truth of the oft-repeated saying, that all, indeed, is Vanity!

Miss Williams seems, like every one else, unable to explain when or how the "Hours" vanished from the ceiling. If the papal generosity which has opened these long-closed Borgia rooms to the public, would permit some scholar to inspect the "house-keeping books" of the Vatican, he would probably learn to whom the money was paid by Leo X. for the decoration, and the time and cause of the present condition of the ceiling, on which they no longer seem to be found.

Respectfully yours,

ANNIE RUSSELL WALL.

NEW BEDFORD, June 28, 1892.

Notes.

A MODERN German novel, Gottfried Keller's 'Dietegen,' has been annotated for school use by Gustav Gruener of Yale, and will be published by Ginn & Co.

A 'Graded and Annotated List of Five Hundred Available Books for the Young,' prepared by George E. Hardy, a New York grammar-school principal, is soon to be issued by Charles Scribner's Sons.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce that the *Dial*, which has hitherto been published by them, to their credit and to the advantage of the readers of that excellent literary journal, has passed from their hands to become the property of Mr. Francis F. Browne, its editor and part owner from the commencement.

The publishing house of Nicola Zanichelli of Bologna has just initiated a "Library of Italian Political Writers" with the writings of Cavour. It has in the press, independently of the above, a collection of the minor writings of R. Bonghi, under the title, 'Da trent' anni'; 'Parini,' by Giosuè Carducci; and the fifth volume of Giuseppe de Leva's History of Charles V.

As may be inferred from its title ('La Fe'), religious complications form the staple of Valdés's latest novel (Madrid: M. G. Hernández). As would also be inferred by any one familiar with the previous writings of the author, of whom it has been justly said by a Spanish critic that he "always writes a trifle *à la diable*," the religious struggles of the priestly mystic who attempts the conversion of an atheist, only to find himself infected by the very doubts he is combating, are not given a profound and convincing representation. However, the scene is laid on Valdés's native heath, and his book adds many more to his vivid pictures of Asturian life. A translation of the story, 'Faith,' by Miss Hapgood, comes to us from the Cassell Publishing Co., but it is marked by haste in preparation throughout, and the translator's slips have been aggravated by printer's errors. In the very first chapter we note the following: "saw herself obliged to feel upon her the feet of Osuña the humpback" (p. 1), should read, "saw herself obliged to sit upon the feet," etc.; on p. 29, in place of "robbed the earthen jar, in the corridor of the rectory, of eggs," should stand, "stole grapes from the trellis along the corridor"; and for "he smelled his powerful breath, and, ducking suddenly, at the moment when the latter was on the point of clutching him, he succeeded in dodging the blow, and pitching headlong on the altar," read, "he perceived his labored breathing, and . . . succeeded in making the blow miss its aim and his assailant fall headlong against the altar."

In addition to a mistimed, blank-cartridge campaign biography of the ex-Secretary of State, 'An American Statesman: the Works and Words of James G. Blaine, Editor . . . and True Patriot,' by Willis Fletcher Johnson (Philadelphia: A. R. Keller Co.), we have two volumes in illustration of the Democratic nominee, viz.: 'Principles and Purposes of Our Form of Government, as set forth in Public Papers of Grover Cleveland,' compiled by Francis Gottsberger (New York: George G. Peck), and the fuller 'Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland,' selected and edited with an introduction by George F. Parker (Cassell Publishing Co.). The latter work is provided with a very inadequate portrait.

Mr. Joseph Pennell, in 'The Jew at Home: Impressions of a summer and autumn spent with him' (Appletons), makes, no doubt, a sincere effort to continue his well-known rôle of simple delineator of the picturesque; but his letters of last December to the *Illustrated London News*, here reprinted with the original pen-drawings and with a controversial preface, are obviously a tract against Jewish emigration, to the author's native America particularly. There is a medley of what he has seen, which we may trust implicitly; what he has heard, which we may trust in the main; and what he has not seen or heard, but generalizes fearlessly about, with the confidence of a car-window observer, philosopher, and statistician. In short, Mr. Pennell could not content himself with mere description. His little book is worth reading, for the reflections to which it gives rise are not wholly those intended by the author.

We may notice together Mr. Charles Booth's 'Pauperism, a Picture; and the Endowment of Old Age, an Argument,' published by Macmillan, and the Rev. J. Frome Wilkinson's 'Pensions and Pauperism,' published by Methuen & Co. Mr. Booth's book is an expansion of the paper read by him last December before the Statistical Society, which excited such general interest both in this country and in England that it is unnecessary to comment upon it. Those who are acquainted with Mr. Booth's methods as shown in his other books, know that he is thoroughly conscientious and not carried away by Socialistic illusions, and will listen, if not with interest, at least with patience to his detailed argument. We consider that this argument fails at a vital point, but Mr. Wilkinson is converted by it. He has distinguished himself by his sturdy opposition to State pensioning schemes, and by his brilliant presentation of the case of the Friendly Societies in England. He is convinced, however, that Mr. Booth's plan can be worked without discouraging the spirit of self-help. We trust that it may be true, for it looks as if some arrangement for State pensions would be adopted in England, and, if the experiment must be tried, Mr. Booth's device is the best yet presented.

Under the title, 'Criticisms on "General" Booth's Social Scheme,' the Salvation Army plan of regenerating the degraded is attacked from several quarters. These criticisms are sufficiently destructive, but as General Booth has just announced that he must have £30,000 this year unless his plan is to prove a failure, while he has only £6,000 in hand, further criticism may be superfluous. The book is published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co. and imported by the Scribners.

The first edition of Prof. Edwin J. Houston's 'Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms, and Phrases' (New York: W. J. Johnston Co.) has already been noticed in these columns with a certain amount of commendation. It appeared as a duodecimo volume, and was well received by the electrical world. The large octavo before us contains, as stated in the preface, more than double the matter and about twice the number of definitions which appeared in the earlier work. The book holds an intermediate position between a dictionary in the limited sense and an encyclopædia, and the author has endeavored by cross references to make it also serve the purpose of a text-book. The definitions are necessarily concise, but are usually clear and sufficient, the defects of the first edition having been corrected. There is, however, still room for improvement, and it sometimes happens that clearness is sacrificed to conciseness. In reading the work, one cannot fail to be impressed by the wealth of the electric vocabulary and the great number of terms, names, and words which the science of electricity in its various branches now requires in order to be intelligible. The intrinsic vastness of the science also appears in such a work more plainly than in any text-book. In his preface the author asks for friendly criticism. His work, if not perfect, is still a most valuable addition to our resources for reference and even for study. It cannot fail to receive a cordial and appreciative welcome.

Teachers of German will be glad to have their attention called to Book III. of Schiller's 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' abridged and edited with notes by Karl Breul, lecturer in German at the Cambridge (Eng.) University; and a new edition of Hamann's Lessing's 'Laokoon,' revised by L. E. Upcott —both on the list of Macmillan & Co., and the former in Gothic, the latter in Roman characters. For advanced pupils two little pocket volumes from the "Sammlung" of G. J. Göschen, Stuttgart, are also recommendable, being annotated in German. These are a selection from the *Minnesang* and *Spruchdichtung* of Walther von der Vogelweide, edited by Prof. Otto Güntter; and corresponding selections from Hartmann von Aue ("Der arme Heinrich"), Wolfram von Eschenbacu ("Parzival"), and Gottfried von Strassburg ("Tristan und Isolde"). The Roman character is here, too, employed, and each volume is provided with a glossary.

Much ingenuity is displayed in the 'English-French Conversation Dictionary,' by Richard Jäschke (Boston: Carl Schoenhof). Under *bill of fare* we have a list of edibles filling four pages; under *billiards*, the technical terms, followed by conversation on the subject; under *cards*, the same for piquet and whist. Other fruitful headings are *time* and *times*, *numbers*, *note* (in music), *post-office*, *shoemaker*, *train* (very well imagined), *theatre*, *thermometer*, *weights*, etc. There is also a showing of verbs, regular and irregular, and a vocabulary of such French words as are likely (to quote the compiler's slip in idiom) "to occur to the traveller"—*i. e.*, to meet his eye. Finally, a page is devoted to the pronunciation of some more or less difficult proper names.

Broglie is there set down as "Bro-ih," though for the French eye the pronunciation is Breuil.

Any sign of the growth of the study of Italian in this country is welcome. Mr. C. H. Grandgent's Grammar of that language has called for a Composition, which he now supplies (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). Some of his English selections for exercises are taken from Howells, Beecher, Henry James, and the newspapers. There are formulas for letter-writing, lists of verbs, notes on pronunciation, and a brief account, from the author's early observation, of inflections of the voice. The exercises are accompanied by vocabularies.

Mr. Paul E. Laur writes, in the Johns Hopkins Historical Series, an essay on "Church and State in New England," which is a study of the development of religious liberty apart from general history. In this way room is obtained for many details of more or less interest, but we do not observe that anything material is added to our knowledge of the causes or effects of the establishment of religion by the State.

Much the same may be said of Mr. C. H. J. Douglas's study of the financial history of Massachusetts, published in the Political Science Series of Columbia College. Even the professional economist cannot find the particulars that Mr. Douglas has gathered especially profitable, while the student of general history is sufficiently informed of the course of our forefathers in dealing with finance by existing authorities. While there may be some advantage in bringing together the facts bearing upon the treatment of the problem in the past, such collections are generally useful only as materials for history, and must be presented with exceptional skill in order to command attention.

Mr. F. M. Crunden's annual report of the St. Louis Public Library (for 1890-91) is, as usual, effectively put together. The library has, he says, the enviable distinction of being "the only large library in the country that has received no gifts of any importance, either in money or books, from private sources." Some very curious examples are given on pp. 22-26 of reference lists furnished to applicants, of books or articles wanted of the librarian, and of questions asked him. Instructive, too, is the account of the reading-club formed, in connection with the library, in a colored school of the city, with samples of "the formal written reports that have been presented on books read."

Commissioner Swan's fourth report on the custody and condition of the Public Records of parishes, towns, and counties in Massachusetts has, like its predecessors, a universal application. Mr. Swan urges that "the office of [town] clerk must be removed from politics and put on a business basis," independent of fees, with a salary from both the town and from the State, which imposes a vast deal of labor upon this officer. The recklessness of these attributions, and the general disregard of the statutes relating to the public records, are a lesson in the art of legislation. The copying of perishing early records enjoined by law should, as Mr. Swan shows, be intrusted only to experts. It is, by the way, a good illustration of the working of Massachusetts ideas that the Commissioner has a volunteer assistant in the person of the editor of *Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine* (Salem), who, in his June number, states that he too is collecting statistics from the town clerks regarding the records of churches, parishes, etc., their condition and present custodian; and offers "to print any hitherto unpublished early records free of cost," from a good copy or from the original. The Salem Press Publishing and Printing Company bespeaks the printing of town records, and has been employed for that purpose by the town of Manchester.

The opening paper of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June is by Dr. H. Schlichter, on the "Pygmy Tribes of Africa." He divides these into four groups—viz., those inhabiting West Africa, the Central regions, East Africa, and the territory south of the Congo. Of the existence of the third group there is no definite knowledge, but he produces strong testimony of many travellers to show that a race similar to that seen by Stanley in the Congo Forest inhabits a still unexplored portion of the Galla country, to the east of the Upper Nile. The Rev. James H. Lawrie gives an interesting account of the customs and folklore of the New Hebrideans; in the latter there is some resemblance to the Biblical stories of the Deluge and of Jonah. The Russian Kurds are treated in a similar manner, the material being taken from an official report upon their condition.

The last Bulletin of the Société de Géographie contains the conclusion of M. Ch. Maunoir's elaborate review of the progress of geographical research during the year 1890. Referring to the fact that the work of the original explorer is nearly finished, and that the time is approaching when the words *terra incognita* will disappear from the maps, he briefly indicates the task of the future geographer. This will be the filling in the outlines, getting an exact knowledge of what is still imperfectly known, and investigating the structure and life of the ocean beds. Historical geography, especially, will receive a new impulse, as in the bringing into full light the vast ruins still almost hidden under the sands of Asia and in the forests of Africa, and causing them to reveal the names and history of their builders. A good illustration of this latter work is to be found in the *Bulletin* in the attempt of M. G. Marmier to give new solutions of certain obscure questions of ancient Syrian geography in connection with facts in Old Testament and Egyptian history. There is also a sketch of ten years' geographical and ethnographical work in French Guiana, accompanied by a series of maps, by Henri Coudreau, and a report upon the Geological Congress at Washington by M. Emm. de Margerie, one of the three foreign secretaries. Baron Nordenskiöld contributes a short account of an expedition to Spitzbergen commanded by his son, Gustav, in which he speaks of snow on the mountain sides colored so intensely red by some minute algæ as to be discernible at a distance of more than twelve miles.

We have before us the first number of a new monthly, the *American Journal of Politics*, defined as "a magazine for intelligent men and women who read and think on vital questions of the times." The editor is Andrew J. Palm, and the place of publication at 938 Temple Court, in this city.

The conductors of *Babyhood* have found it expedient to exchange this title for its definition, and it will henceforth be known as the *Mother's Nursery Guide*. This useful and genuine publication has reached its ninety-second number in vol. viii.

The fifth annual meeting of the American Economic Association will be held at Chautauqua, N. Y., on August 23-26. The farmer, his discontent and his "movement," will have a session to themselves (evening of Aug. 24), as well as some consideration in the morning of the same day.

—The July *Atlantic* contains a short and bracing paper, by Theodore Roosevelt, in regard to the levying of political assessments in the coming campaign. He describes succinctly the state of the law, forecasts the action of political managers and Government employees, and assures both that the Civil-Service Commission will be vigilant and will investigate, either on open or confidential information, all suspected offices, and will do its utmost to secure observance of the law and punishment of offenders. The article is of the nature of an unofficial circular letter, and will be read with satisfaction by civil-service reformers. The general contents of the number are of varied and equal interest, no one contribution being especially conspicuous. The idealists have it all their own way in two articles. The first is one of generalities on "The American Idealist," by Gamaliel Bradford, jr., in which he endeavors to show that our countrymen are more given to the idealistic temper than are the English. He cites Emerson, of course, as the type, but he was hardly national; on the whole, too, the paper is somewhat over-full of Arnoldisms. The second is a first paper on Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound," by Vida Scudder, and undertakes to show that Shelley was a true myth-maker and represents that primitive stage of thought-creation. This is certainly a fanciful view, but it serves to bring out certain aspects of Shelley's work, and to free it from the religious prejudice which has not ceased to operate against the appreciation of his poetry. Both writers seem to agree in denying that Shakspere was an idealist—one of the effects, we take it, of the attempt to set up Browning as a latter-day Shakspere; but it would be well if writers of this order would begin by definitions, so that readers may know what they mean by such classification. Other papers of interest are on McClellan, Chicago, and the Greeks in the Persian War.

—*Harper's* celebrates the anniversary of our independence by an account of how the Declaration was received in the old thirteen States, illustrated by cuts in consonance with Revolutionary days. Lowell's Elizabethan criticism goes on with Marlowe, and sets forth his genius by selections, with an effect as great as Lamb's similar work, and fortified by a judgment which far exceeds the power of the leader of the literary revival which ends, in all probability, with the present series, as its recreative energy was spent long ago. The growth of the Federal Power is described after the well-worn style by Mr. Nelson, and the usual lessons are drawn from the history; but the conclusion that the use of this power should now be determined by economic instead of constitutional reasons, deserves notice, perhaps, as an opinion. Mr. Brander Matthews rides a course against the "Britishers" in defence of American spelling, if so aggressive a paper can be properly spoken of as a "defence." We are not quite sure from his words whether he does not regard all spelling as equally bad, in accordance with a recent opinion of Prof. Child; and in such a case the omission or alteration of a letter or two is a small matter, since it tends to uniformity by such infinitesimal progress; but he makes it plain that "colonialism" in spelling is at an end, and if, as he quotes from Sainte-Beuve, "orthography is the beginning of literature," there is a mite, at least, of hope for that "literary indepen-

dence" which is so much desiderated in some quarters. An unusual travel sketch is contributed by R. Caton-Woodville, who describes the capturing of wild elephants in Mysore on the occasion of the late Prince Albert Victor's visit to India.

—The writer in *Scribner's* who undertakes to give an account of the poor of Chicago seems to have had great difficulty in finding any of the sort wanted. There are no tenement-house districts, no real ghettos, no aggregations of hopeless poverty in special quarters such as are to be met with in older cities; and his report goes further than this, to show that the want and suffering in the lower classes of Chicago are brought about not by social or economic disadvantages, but by drink. The city, nevertheless, has its poor, who are cared for individually, it appears, but the percentage is small. Charitable effort is directed rather toward moral than physical aid, and the institutions which help the young to make right choices and to raise their standard of life and conduct, are well supported and thriving. An artistic paper upon Ravenna, a scientific one on the depths of the sea, and one of very practical use on city squares are the other leading pieces.

—The contribution of the highest interest in the *Century* is the continuation of the description of the plans for the World's Fair at Chicago, with abundant illustration of the architectural features, which supports the common expectation that the success of the enterprise in artistic effect is assured. A second art contribution is the sketch of Daubigny and his work, also illustrated with great richness. Dr. Waldstein writes a full narrative of the discovery of the tomb of Aristotle, certainly one of the most interesting results of the work of Americans in Greece; and though he does not assert that the ascription of the tomb to the great philosopher is beyond doubt, he regards the proof as sufficiently conclusive to establish a case against which something negative must be brought in order to destroy probability. The stock articles continue, and the number winds up with a statement of what the Government is doing for the farmer, which shows that he is certainly not a neglected individual in the paternalism which belongs to our system of the public good.

—History is repeating itself with significant regularity at the English women's colleges. In the Moral Science Tripos at Cambridge, a Girton student, Miss Read, has just taken higher honors than any male student, while Newnham, in her turn, bears her honors no less thickly than her sister college. One of her students, Miss Block, has defeated all men in the Mediæval and Modern Languages Tripos. Both colleges have again won the distinction of having students in the first division of the first class of the Classical Tripos. One of these fortunate winners of the highest obtainable classical honors is from Australia, another is the daughter of the late headmaster of the City of London School, Dr. Abbott, who is best known to the world at large by his 'Shakespearian Grammar.' It is needless to moralize on the fact that none of the five women students who have just proved their classical prowess has had the discipline of the ancient nurseries of honor students, Eton and Rugby; but it is worth while to call to mind that when the women's colleges were first started at Cambridge, not even their warmest advocates dared to dream of first-class honors in classics until a comparatively distant future, when their students should have had a training equal in duration and severity to that of the great public schools.

—The thirty-first part, printed May 14, completes volume three of J. B. Halvorsen's 'Norsk Forfatter-Lexikon,' bringing the work through the letters I to L. This volume shows no diminution of the author's remarkable thoroughness and accuracy; and his critical judgment and sense of proportion seem at fault in a single instance only—in allotting six pages to Hans Henrik Jæger, who obtained a considerable, but unenviable, notoriety in Norway by printing a book entitled 'Fra Kristiania-Bohêmen,' which was suppressed because of its obscenity the day after publication. The author was imprisoned for sixty days, and made to pay a fine of 80 crowns, and, upon a second time printing a portion of the book, was again sentenced to 150 days' imprisonment and a fine of 1,600 crowns. Mr. Jæger's appearance can hardly be considered of special importance in the history of Norwegian literature, and while the account of his book and the various judicial and other proceedings which followed its publication is interesting, the space allowed to it is excessive; the more so, as Mr. Halvorsen does not even mention the name of another realistic author whose work—of greater literary merit than Mr. Jæger's—was confiscated the following year. Of writers whose fame has extended beyond Norway, this volume includes the critic, Henrik Bernhard Jæger (not to be confounded with the Jæger mentioned above); the geologists, B. M. Keilhau and Theodor Kjerulf, and the latter's brother, the composer, Halfdan Kjerulf; the Orientalist, Christian Lassen; and the Egyptologist, Jens Daniel Carolus Lieblein; and the popular novelists, Alexander Kielland, Jonas Lie (who occupies twenty-two pages), and Kristofer Janson, who has a special claim upon the interest of Americans because of his coming to the United States in 1881 and settling in Minnesota as an American citizen, after having attained sufficient prominence in his native country to be awarded a poet's pension by the Norwegian Government.

—But the place of honor is allotted to Ibsen, an admirable biographical and bibliographical record of the poet, up to November, 1889, filling the first eighty-nine pages of the volume. The biographical notice, extending to more than thirty pages, is rendered especially valuable by the good judgment shown in omitting details commonly known, and including a great deal of important information not otherwise readily accessible, so that it will doubtless always remain a convenient source of reference. The bibliographical record shows that Ibsen had published, between 1850 and 1888, eighteen books, of which all but four had reached a second edition, while nine had attained to a third, seven to a fifth, four to a sixth, and three to a seventh; and of one ('Brand') the eleventh edition was issued in 1889. Since Mr. Halvorsen's record was printed, it is probable that some of the volumes have reached still higher editions, while another book, 'Hedda Gabler,' is to be added to the list. All of these works have been translated into German, several of them more than once; and in the case of 'Brand' no less than four distinct German translations were published in six editions. Next to the German, the English translations have been most numerous, fourteen of the above nineteen books having been published in the English language, several having appeared in more than one translation, and all but two of them within two or three years. Besides the lyrical poems, the following four works, only, remain to appear in English dress: 'Catalina' (Ibsen's first book, published in 1850), 'Gildet paa Solhaug' (1856), 'Kjærlighedens Komedie' (1862), and 'Peer Gynt' (1867). Four plays have appeared in Finnish translations, three in Swedish, two each in French, Polish, and Dutch, and one each in Russian, Bohemian, and Italian. In Ibseniana the record is noticeably voluminous when it is remembered that the subject is still living and hardly at the zenith of his fame. More than a dozen biographical and critical works on Ibsen are recorded, and the magazine contributions in this class number several hundreds. Of special interest is the information given concerning the stage representations of Ibsen's plays in the chief cities of the world.

PARKMAN'S HALF-CENTURY OF CONFLICT.

A Half-Century of Conflict. By Francis Parkman. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1892. 2 vols., pp. viii., 333; viii., 395.

THESE two volumes are the completion of a memorable undertaking. The task to which Mr. Parkman set himself forty-five years ago, with results that began to appear in this series in 1865, was one of the most important to which an American historian could devote his pen. Its successful accomplishment is a fact sufficiently significant in itself, and is rendered doubly remarkable by the condition of health against which the author has had constantly to battle. Mr. Parkman's painstaking research has earned for him a permanent place in the front rank of American writers of history, while the brilliancy of the style in which his thought is clothed imparts a charm to his narrative unsurpassed by that of Prescott or Motley. He may well look back with satisfaction on the stately series of volumes in which he has narrated the great attempt to plant on American soil the civilization and institutions of royal France—a drama heroic and tragic enough to claim the admiration of those who most sincerely rejoice that it ended in essential failure. The struggle which he records is one of types of civilization, both foreign to American soil, of European origin, yet developing in full fruitage here and meeting in necessary conflict. It is this contest of ideas which were the slow growth of centuries in Europe, that gives to the pre-Revolutionary epoch in American history its chief fascination, and in a large degree renders its study valuable. Doubtless the tendency of American writers of history to dwell on the colonial period has been excessive, but it has much justification in the fundamental nature of the problems which the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries worked out. That the character of many of those problems is so clear to us, and the reasons of their solution so apparent, is due, in no small measure, to the life-work of Mr. Parkman.

The two volumes before us fill a gap in the series, constituting the sixth part of the seven divisions into which Mr. Parkman has separated his history of "France and England in North America." That their preparation was delayed till the final struggle had been told shows that the period of which they treat was less important, in the author's estimation, than the years which precede and follow. It is an epoch, also, which has been more fully handled by other historians than the times with which some of Mr. Parkman's other volumes have to do. It was not conspicuously marked by

events of lasting consequence, nor was it possible to give to this period the unity of interest which marks the story of the 'Jesuits in North America,' or the 'Discovery of the Great West.' La Mothe-Cadillac, the founder of Detroit, is far from the peer in interest of Champlain or La Salle; the missionary Rale is but a poor substitute for Brébeuf or Jogues; nor is Vaudreuil a governor to attract the fancy like Frontenac. This comparatively intermediary character of the period is frankly recognized by the author, who declares that "the nature of the subject does not permit an unbroken thread of narrative, and the unity of the book lies in its being throughout, in one form or another, an illustration of the singularly contrasted characters and methods of the rival claimants to North America" (Preface, iii.).

The modest claim of the writer is fully justified, and in spite of the relatively minor importance of the events narrated, the story is one of great interest. Whether it could have been so picturesquely told by any pen but that of Mr. Parkman may be doubted. Under his touch, thanks to his vivid use of episode and detail, the characters stand out as portraits of living men. A good illustration of this graphic method, by which a few strokes indicate the whole picture, is seen in his treatment of the much harassed border settlements of Maine during the war of Queen Anne. The Indian raids were incessant and monotonous, but no enumeration gives half so vivid a conception of what the border life was in those hours of trial as the story of Plaisted's wedding (i., 48–51). In a similar way, the familiar narrative of the sack of Deerfield in 1704 serves as an illustration of the larger expeditions of the French and Indians, and under Mr. Parkman's facile pen the whole heroic, tragic border tale seems as of yesterday (i., 52–89). But Mr. Parkman is more than a skilful narrator of past events. He points out most clearly the object of the French authorities in these border raids, which seem so purposeless: "The aim of the enterprise was not military, but political. . . . The object was fully to commit these savages [the Abenaki] to hostility against New England" (i., 52). The French, with their smaller population, were constantly fearful lest the Indians of northern New England and even the converts settled in Canada, drawn by the superior quality and cheapness of English goods, should be induced to become neutral or side with the English; and hence they incited their Indian allies to onslaughts which made New England border life precarious in the extreme without seriously crippling the English colonies (i., 45, 52, 96, etc.).

The contrast between French and English methods of colony building is everywhere markedly brought out, but perhaps its most interesting illustration is in Mr. Parkman's account of Acadia before and after the conquest by the English in 1710. The direct dependence of the officers on the home Government, the lack of all initiative and responsibility in the colony itself, led to constant bickerings among its rulers, and to endeavors to supplant one another by appeals to the Ministry in France. Even so petty a question as precedence in lighting a bonfire became a subject of grave appeal to the Government of Versailles (i., 111). On the other hand, the English, after the conquest of the province, seem almost to have forgotten its existence. An insignificant garrison at Annapolis was all that maintained the English authority in the face of a constantly increasing French population, unceasingly plied by French agents whom the weak English representatives were unable to prevent. In the end the Acadians themselves bore the brunt of this mistaken policy. As Mr. Parkman points out, this non-interference on the part of the English home Government, which worked so much to the advantage of the New England colonies, simply allowed French emissaries to sow disaffection among the Acadians till they became a danger great enough to rouse English apathy. But a little firmness after the conquest, or a little conception of the prize which the English had won, would have saved the melancholy deportation of 1755. Not the least interesting of the documents which the author has gathered in his appendix are the letters of Gov. Shirley of Massachusetts to Newcastle at a later period (1745–7), showing that Shirley's eyes were fully open to the peril of the Acadian situation, but that his complaint and suggestions were addressed to deaf ears (ii., 321–360).

Mr. Parkman retells the siege of Louisburg in graphic fashion. The foolhardy character of the enterprise, the enthusiasm with which New England embarked on it, the bravery of the raw New England troops, their nearly fatal want of discipline, and the remarkable good fortune which secured them the victory, stand out conspicuously in his narrative; and it is lighted up, as is all of Mr. Parkman's writing, by personal incident and familiar description of the scenes in which the action took place. The story from its English side is already familiar, but Mr. Parkman has brought to its illumination, as usual, the French accounts, extracts from two of which, the curious *Lettre d'un Habitant de Louisbourg*, and the report of the governor of the fortress, Duchambon, are given in the appendix. Without very materially altering the English story of the siege, they add many touches of value to the picture. But, as Mr. Parkman shows, the Louisburg success was, from a military point of view, an undeserved victory due to a remarkable combination of favoring circumstances. The two rival civilizations were unlike in nothing more than in military efficiency. In general the military superiority was on the side of the French:

"If the English colonies were comparatively strong in numbers, their numbers could not be brought into action; while if the French forces were small, they were vigorously commanded and always ready at a word. It was union confronting division, energy confronting apathy, military centralization opposed to industrial democracy; and, for a time, the advantage was all on one side" (ii., 65).

The rulers of Canada were usually men trained to military service in Europe, and they found valuable material for soldiery in the hardy Canadians, accustomed largely to forest life. Their form of government brought with it no inconvenient debatings and divisions of authority. The English colonists, on the other hand, though usually excellent fighters in small numbers (as Mr. Parkman abundantly shows in his account of Lovewell's expedition against the Pequawkets, and the defence of Charlestown and of Fort Massachusetts), seldom accomplished much in large bodies. They were too democratic to be readily disciplined, their officers were largely chosen for personal popularity and had no experience in war, and the whole colonial system of local independence and discussion by legislative bodies was almost fatal to efficient action. Nor were the English forces which were occasionally sent to the aid of the colonists during the period included in these volumes as well led as they might have been. If Warren supported the New England soldiery efficiently at Louisburg, the story of the attempted capture of Quebec in 1711 by an expedition under Admiral Walker, relatively stronger than that which effected the conquest under Wolfe, is one of failure due to miserable incompetency.

This difference between the two civilizations in America, shown in their military efficiency, is also illustrated in the degree of appreciation of the possibilities of expansion which the continent held out before them. Doubtless the natural route to the interior of the continent which the St. Lawrence and the great lakes opened to Canada had something to do with the superior clear-sightedness of the French officials; but, as Mr. Parkman says, the

"English communities took little thought of the region beyond the Alleghanies. Each lived a life of its own, shut within its own limits. . . . If the English-speaking populations flowed westward, it was in obedience to natural laws, for the King did not aid the movement, the royal governors had no authority to do so, and the colonial assemblies were too much engrossed with immediate local interests. The power of these colonies was that of a rising flood, slowly invading and conquering, by the unconscious force of its own growing volume, unless means be found to hold it back by dams and embankments within appointed limits.

"In the French colonies all was different. Here the representatives of the Crown were men bred in an atmosphere of broad ambition and masterful and far-reaching enterprise. Achievement was demanded of them. They recognized the greatness of the prize, studied the strong and weak points of their rivals, and, with a cautious forecast and a daring energy, set themselves to the task of defeating them" (ii., 64, 65).

This out-reaching inclination of the French Canadian genius had its chief exemplification, of course, in the great explorers whom Mr. Parkman has commemorated in his 'Discovery of the Great West'; but they were worthily succeeded in the period covered by these volumes by Varennes de la Vérendrye and his two sons. Their efforts to reach the Pacific, and the expedition which took the sons in 1742-3 to the Bighorn Mountains in Wyoming, are told by Mr. Parkman with a degree of local coloring which comes from his own familiarity with Rocky Mountain life before those solitudes had become the abodes of white men.

In a work of such sterling merit, it is almost ungracious to point out one or two trifling slips of the pen or of the proof-reader. But the next edition may correct the following: The name of the Massachusetts Governor should be given as Phips, not "Phipps" (i., 149)—it is correctly spelled elsewhere; the name of the same place is printed "Dunquerque" (i., 181) and "Dunkirk" (ii., 83).

RECENT POETRY.

It is a curious coincidence that the reprinting of Mr. William Watson's simple and thoughtful poem "Wordsworth's Grave"—forming a part of his volume called 'Poems' (Macmillan)—should have coincided with the appearance of a whole group of poems by English authors, each of whom has utterly turned his back on both Wordsworth and Watson and is resolutely seeking something quite opposite. The younger poet here says of the elder (p. 136):

"Not Milton's keen translunar music thine;
Not Shakespeare's cloudless, boundless human view;
Not Shelley's flush of rose on peaks divine;
Nor yet the wizard twilight Coleridge knew.

"What hadst thou that could make so large amends
For all thou hadst not and thy peers possessed,
Motion and fire, swift means to radiant ends?—
Thou hadst, for weary feet, the gift of rest."

But when we look over the pile of contemporary volumes by English poets—turning

from Morris to Meredith, from Kipling to Henley, from Edwin Arnold to Lord Lytton—the one thing conspicuously wanting through the whole series is that rest which can only be born of simplicity. William Morris, in 'Poems by the Way' (Roberts Bros.), is supposed to speak for the age, to represent the thoughts and hopes of the people, for the coming time, and this is the way he does it (p. 26):

"Grey grows the dawn while men-folk sleep,
Unseen spreads on the light,
Till the thrush sings to the colored things
And earth forgets the night.

"No otherwise wends on our Hope:
E'en as a tale that's told
Are fair lives lost, and all the cost
Of wise and true and bold."

There is not even what Mr. Watson calls "motion and fire" in this: it is dull, and drags itself along; and it is in a key as false as that struck by Morris in prose fiction, where he describes a future society in which all the railways in England shall have been removed, and the wise and good shall go out with timbrels and dances from London, every year, to make hay upon the Thames and rejoice in the downfall of matrimony. Mr. Obadiah Oldbuck, when he decided to become a farmer "under the provisional name of Thyrsis," was not more remote from all simple and genuine emotion than that reflected in this book from beginning to end; and when we compare it even with the terse vigor of some of Mr. Morris's earlier work—"The Death of Paris," for instance—it is impossible not to feel that he now represents a downward and not an upward grade in thought and art.

In George Meredith's 'Modern Love,' there is of course no want of occasional terseness and vigor, though there is always the false note in the background, varied and distributed by individual whim. It is a curious result of the new Copyright Law that there appear two different reprints of this work, one published, with a few additional poems, by Roberts Brothers, Boston, and the other, with an expository prelude, by Mrs. Cavazza, from the house of Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, Maine. The preface, though tinged with that peculiarly rhetorical style which suggested to some one in England the word "Meredithyrambics," is yet a positive help towards the understanding of an exceedingly unpleasant poem—so careless of form that it is couched in sixteen-line verses called by Mr. Swinburne "sonnets," and so heedless of rhyme that it couples "foot" and "mute"—but more unattractive in subject than in form. It has, of course, plenty of those vigorous phrases in which its author is so strong, as (iv.):

"Cold as a mountain in its star-pitch'd tent
Stood high Philosophy, less friend than foe."

On the other hand, we may come at any moment on such a crude ecstasy as this (xiii.):

"When the renewed forever of a kiss
Sounds through the listless hurricane of hair."

Or this, which is worse (ii.):

"A star with lurid beams, she seemed to crown
The pit of infamy; and then again
He fainted on his vengefulness, and strove
To ape the magnanimity of love,
And smote himself, a shuddering heap of pain."

This recalls Lewis Carroll's lady on the beach, with the large bonnet, who was left a monument of woe.

It may or may not be the direct influence of George Meredith, but some of the younger English writers show marked traces of his sway. This is especially true of W. E. Henley, whose 'Song of the Sword, and Other Verses' (Scribners) affords a distinct disappointment. His earlier poems, especially those written in hospital, showed a fine and acute perception, which seems now to be passing into that mere crude vigor which suggests weakness rather than strength. There is nothing in his poem of the Sword to suggest that he has ever personally handled that weapon; and through the whole volume there is a tendency to revert from steel to iron, and to treat as babyishness all finer thought and feeling. This is strikingly manifest in what must be regarded as the most repulsive of the poems, that beginning "As like the Woman as you can" (p. 60), in which he heaps contempt upon all effort at refining personal passion, and invokes Deity itself to laugh at such attempts. The slightest disposition to introduce feminine attributes into manly character seems to drive him frantic; and yet there is a widespread belief in Christendom that this combination has at least once been seen on the earth, and with results that promise a slow transformation of the race. Mr. Henley's whole philosophy on this point seems rather like that of a discontented monk than of a thoroughly manly person, and we gladly appeal from him to a much more gifted Scotchman—the author of 'The Little Minister'—who says that "strength, instead of being the lusty child of passions, grows by grappling with and throwing them."

'Ballads and Barrack-Room Ballads,' by Rudyard Kipling (Macmillan), contains but few poems not previously known, and none so fine as "The Galley-Slave," which is unaccountably omitted. The author's stock in trade is now familiar, and his verses rarely have that effect as a whole which was sometimes exerted by fragments of them, when prefixed to his stories. The "garlic flavor," as it has been called, remains the same. It is a pleasant touch of manly feeling that the volume is dedicated to Wolcott Balestier.

Sir Edwin Arnold has formerly shown himself, in "The Rajah's Ride," a much more effective master of what may be called the Oriental ballad than Mr. Kipling; but his new volume, 'Potiphar's Wife,' will not greatly add to his reputation. It will doubtless, however, have a wide American circulation at least; for the author has always been popular here, and during his lecturing tour made many friends and few enemies. The staunchest of Englishmen in his political opinions, and holding more faithfully than any one to what were reproached as "jingo" doctrines under Beaconsfield, he shares with that great leader something quite un-English in temperament, and from the moment he stepped upon the platform trod it with the ease of a Frenchman and the suavity of an Oriental. As time has gone on, he never again has struck notes so deep as in "He and She," and "He who died at Azan"; but deep notes are not always the way to popularity, and though his later verse may be called meretricious, he still holds his following of readers.

In Mr. William Sharp's 'Flower o' the Vine' (Webster & Co.) we have the conditions reversed: a promising English poet and a too friendly American editor. The distinctly youthful quality of the poems is a propitiation, if it had not been practically disavowed by a prelude which claims Mr. Sharp as a mature artist. This provokes the discovery that 'Flower o' the Vine,' whether we suppose the phrase borrowed from Browning or from nature, is a very inappropriate designation for a volume consisting largely of Scottish poems; and that these poems themselves are not to be compared for ballad-strength and vigor to the remarkable compositions of Graham R. Tomson. Then, when we turn to the Italian half of the book, it is impossible to deny that, though the unrhymed strains have a certain vague and pleasing melody, they are yet at peculiar variance with the spirit of Italy, which—perhaps following the low lines and definite outlines of the Mediterranean shores—has always been the home of definite and highly perfected strains. From Horace and Catullus to Petrarch and his successors, there has not been one who has not been, above all things, accurate and measured in form. In vindicating his poet's name to a double-first-class, as it were, in art, Mr. Janvier, his kindly sponsor, justifies his "irregular unrhymed measure" by the Gaelic minstrel and "the gentle savages of the South Sea." But what have Northern bards or Southern savages to do by the Mediterranean? It seems to us, therefore, that while there is much in the book to attract, there is yet a want of distinct appropriateness both on the Scottish and the Italian side. It is worth remembering, however, that Mr. Sharp is one of the few Englishmen—fewer, alas! than in the last generation—who have taken a positive interest in American thought or literature; and this gives him a personal claim on our kindly regard.

It is worth while to turn from the works of what may be called, without offence, professional poets, to the volume 'Lays of Country, Home, and Friends' (Dublin: Sealy), which represents the life-work of a woman, Miriam O'Leary—the only woman admitted to the secrets of the Fenian uprising in 1865, and the sister of John O'Leary, sentenced at that time to twenty years of penal servitude. The poems, the portrait, and the memoir by Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, all show a genuine Celtic nature, impulsive, ardent, imaginative, and reinforced by a woman's capability of suffering for a brother or for a cause. The little volume is full of glowing passion and lyric spontaneousness, and belongs to that characteristic literature of Irish revolution which, as Sir Charles Gavan Duffy has said, "for more than a generation has neither been winnowed nor garnered," but has been thrown, as it were, into a huge waste-paper basket, from which very little of it will ever emerge.

Turning now to American poets, it is one of the curious phases in the varying fame of Walt Whitman that his death almost precisely coincided with the publication of that which he had persistently deprecated during life, an expurgated edition of his poems. It is perhaps a compliment to Massachusetts that the experiment should be even tried, for Mr. Arthur Stedman, the editor of 'Selected Poems by Walt Whitman' (Webster & Co.), says in his preface that "the volume is partly a concession to the spirit which banished 'Leaves of Grass' from Massachusetts." The concession is no greater than that which was made from the outset in England, and there proved the basis of his fame. As a result, it was difficult to make any one believe, in England, a dozen years ago, that there was anything of Whitman's not well suited to be read aloud in the family circle after morning prayers. It is altogether probable that the same impression will be produced in many families after the distribution of Mr. Stedman's selections; and that there may ultimately come to be two traditional Whitmans, as distinct from each other as the two Shelleys—the Shelley of the Shelley societies, and that other commemorated in 'The Real Life of Shelley.' Mr. Stedman's choice is skilfully made, and it is certainly a comfort to have an edition which may be left openly about the house. Yet it is certain that Whitman understood himself better than any of his more cautious disciples understand him, and that something

of vigor is lost by any partial representation. The most fiery and ardent part of his verse is thus excluded, the profuseness and wordiness remain; he still, as the Greek poetess Corinna said of Pindar's ode, "sows from the sack and not from the hand"; and there is the same curious deficiency shown in him, almost alone among poets, of anything like personal and romantic love. Whenever we come upon anything that suggests a glimpse of it, the object always turns out to be a man and not a woman (pp. 34, 146). In the direction of friendship, Whitman can be impassioned and even sentimental, and this does him credit; he sometimes also speaks with reverence of mothers; but of any elevated emotion toward an ndividual woman of his own age or generation, his pages are bare.

The same fault cannot be found with Mr. Horace Parker Chandler's 'The Lover's Yearbook of Poetry,' a collection of love poems for every day in the year (Roberts Bros.). It strikes us, however, as a rather commonplace collection with a rather inflated preface. It is also to be observed that though the editor freely admits translations, his rosary of poems does not borrow a single bead from "our master in love, the divine Petrarch," as Alfieri called him. On the whole, we prefer Mr. George Parsons Lathrop's love-poems, 'Dreams and Days' (Scribner), which have a fine and tender quality, rarely lapsing into commonplace. He is also the master of a peculiarly fine and imaginative strain, best seen in "The Star to its Light," which is undoubtedly his high-water mark. His patriotic and occasional poems, and his few dialect poems, are a shade less successful. Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton, in 'Swallow-Flights' (Roberts Bros.), has the high merit which belongs to a peculiarly faithful study of the technique of her art. Her themes are somewhat monotonous; her perpetual minor key may even fatigue the reader; but it would be difficult to name a woman whose continuous and average literary execution is so good. In this respect neither Elizabeth Barrett Browning nor Helen Jackson is at all her equal; and though the book is weakened by some of the silly "English opinions" mistakenly inserted by the publisher at the end, yet these cannot cancel its value. In the opening notice, for instance, Prof. Minto points out rejoicingly that this lady has "no trace of the provinciality of tone which has hitherto prevented any American poet from attaining the first rank." What poet does this critic, then, admit to the first rank? Shakspere? If so, it is possible that even Mrs. Moulton has missed the achievement he seems to think so easy.

Mr. Henry Phillips, jr., who has already printed several volumes of translations from the Spanish and the German, now issues, for private circulation, a collection of 'German Lyrics' (Philadelphia) which has the same qualities of carefulness and felicity that he has always shown. He takes in a wide range of authors—including even the German-American Karl Knortz—but he rarely achieves that quality of positive and even haunting fascination which Longfellow and Mrs. Austin sometimes attained, and without which a long series of German lyrics becomes monotonous. Heine he here omits altogether, and this is a little like Mr. Chandler's omission of Petrarch; but Heine has been, on the whole, over-translated, inasmuch as he is, of all German lyrists, the most difficult to render. Mr. Phillips himself has also touched Heine, if we remember rightly, in an earlier collection, published in 1878.

There are, as usual, many new volumes of American minor poems. Of these, Mr. Cawein's 'Moods and Memories' (Putnams) takes the lead, for he has profuse wealth, without much depth, of tone; and he is seemingly shedding that imitativeness which so marked his earlier volumes. This collection includes some poems borrowed from them, and these have been revised here and there. The new volume by Mr. Charles Henry Lüders, 'The Dead Nymph, and Other Poems' (Scribners), sustains the promise its author had previously shown, and is made pathetic by his recent death. 'Giovio and Giulia: A Metrical Romance,' by Clinton Scollard (privately printed), seems to us less successful than his shorter poems. 'Connecticut River Reeds, blown by the Peasant Bard' (Boston: Cupples), has nothing in it quite so good as the cordial, manly face of the farmer, prefixed by way of frontispiece. The like may be said of 'A Volume of Poems,' by Mrs. M. A. B. Kelly of the Albany State Normal College; this also has a portrait so strong and so winning that it quite eclipses the poems. 'Summer Fallow,' by Charles Buxton Going (Putnams), has no portrait and hence no competitor; but it is a book whose modest aspect and subdued tone conceal a real feeling for nature and a power of deep and tender expression, as in the following, where an old, old story is told in a few strong touches (p. 6):

A MEETING.

"I can recall so well how she would look—
How at the very murmur of her dress
On entering the door, the whole room took
An air of gentleness.

"That was so long ago, and yet his eyes
Had always, afterwards, the look that waits
And yearns, and waits again, nor can disguise
Something it contemplates.

"May we imagine it? the sob, the tears,
The long, sweet, shuddering breath; then, on her breast,
The great, full, flooding sense of endless years
Of heaven, and her, and rest."

THREE BOOKS ON MUSIC.

Musiciens d'Aujourd'hui. By Adolphe Jullien. Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*. Pp. 460.

Manual of Musical History. By James E. Matthew. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 462.

Classisches und Romantisches aus der Tonwelt. By La Mara. Breitkopf & Härtel. Pp. 361.

M. JULLIEN, the eminent French critic, and author of the excellent Berlioz and Wagner biographies, has published another work which amateurs, and especially critics, will prize. It is a collection of his best criticisms on the principal musical works (French or foreign) produced in Paris during the last twenty years or more. The composers represented are Berlioz, Schumann, Thomas, Wagner, Verdi, Gounod, Lalo, Reyer, Brahms, Saint-Saëns, Bizet, and Massenet. French composers naturally predominate, and to the most fashionable of them—Massenet—no less than 74 pages are devoted. Until within a few years, Paris has been very conservative in regard to foreign works, so far at least as the operatic stage is concerned; and even in regard to new French works it is noticeable in how many cases M. Jullien has an article on the *première* at Brussels before he can record the production at the Paris Opéra. Criticism of singers and minor details is usually eliminated, and it is the composers and the fate of their works in France that are chiefly considered. When we read that it was only twenty years ago that M. Jullien could congratulate the Conservatoire on having got out of its ruts and produced a few Schumann pieces, one ceases to wonder that Brahms is almost entirely unknown in Paris. Since M. Jullien wrote on this topic, the Conservatoire has made almost startling progress toward liberalism by producing that *ne plus ultra* of modernity, an act of "Parsifal."

M. Jullien has a good deal to say about the shameful conduct of his countrymen toward Berlioz, and he notes the irony of fate in that the favorite operatic works of that ferocious Wagner-hater should have had their first adequate performances under the care of the Wagner Society, and of Conductor Mottl of Bayreuth and Carlsruhe. The "Troyens" was given completely at Carlsruhe for the first time twenty-two years after Berlioz's death. Jullien remarks on the curiously antique style of Berlioz's opera, which suggests Gluck. Some of M. Jullien's essays, especially those dealing with unsuccessful operas by Thomas, Gounod, and others, lack in interest of subject, although historians will value them. Accounts are also given of the solitary "Lohengrin" performance in May, 1887, when the mob interfered; and the last article describes the first performance of the same opera last September. As this was followed by fifty-five repetitions up to April 1, with others being added at the rate of at least one a week, and as the leading Wagner city last year was Berlin, with eighty-one performances, it looks very much as if Paris, from being a city with not a single Wagner performance, were about to be transformed, in one year, into the leading Wagner city, as far as the number of performances is concerned.

Mr. Matthew has revised his 'Manual of Musical History,' and the publishers have printed it in a more convenient form. While the first edition extended only to Mozart, the present volume brings the story of music up to date. There are some minor inaccuracies, especially in the early chapters, but not of sufficient importance to impair the utility of the book. The index is uncommonly full, and a bibliography appended to the several chapters serves as a guide to students for further research. By an unfortunate accident to the types, *O du mein holder Abendstern*, on page 383, is converted into *O au*, etc.

The name of La Mara (pseudonym for Marie Lipsius) is well known to all readers of German musical literature. From two to six editions have been printed of the five volumes of her 'Musikalische Studienköpfe,' in four of which the lives of the principal composers are briefly and interestingly told, while the fifth is concerned with women who devoted themselves to music as singers and players—the whole being little more than clever compilations of facts accessible in all libraries. 'Classisches und Romantisches,' on the other hand, bears a more original character, as it contains some interesting documents and revelations regarding Beethoven, Spohr, Marschner, Schubert, Liszt, and Henselt, which are not contained in the biographies of those composers, but have been recently brought to light, partly through the author's own researches. One of the chapters on Beethoven narrates his experiences with women, another gives a number of unpublished letters, and a third traces the haunts, at Baden near Vienna, of a composer who, by his own confession, "often preferred a tree to a man." The graves of the eminent musicians who lie buried in Viennese cemeteries are visited and described. In the chapter following, a number of letters by Spohr are printed; they are addressed to Hauptmann, and their chief interest lies in their fre-

quent reference to Wagner's early operas. Spohr was the first composer who appreciated the "Flying Dutchman," but he felt tempted to draw the line at "Lohengrin," which was already too much "music of the future" for him. He found it almost impossible to teach his orchestra how to play the "Tannhäuser" overture.

Much space is devoted to a description of Liszt's first triumphal progress through Europe. Liszt was anything but a pessimist, and he was the most successful and fêted of mortals; yet when he was asked one day whether he did not intend to write his own life, he replied: "Alas! it was more than enough to have lived it!" La Mara states that Liszt, although born in Hungary, did not speak the language of that country, and that he often remarked jocularly that "eljen" was the only Hungarian word he knew. His amiability is illustrated by an anecdote told on page 275. Rubinstein disliked autograph-hunters, and one day, when a lady asked him for his signature, he rudely handed her his card. Liszt saw this, and, noting the lady's disappointment, asked her to lend him the card for a moment. When she received it back, she found that the pianist had written on it: "et son admirateur, F. Liszt."

Of great biographic importance are the reminiscences of Schubert by one of his friends, Freiherr von Spaun, printed here for the first time. A pathetic interest attaches to them, as to almost everything relating to the most spontaneous and fertile melodist the world has ever seen. But Schubert clothed his melodies in wondrous harmonies, which were "Greek" to his contemporaries; hence he was not appreciated by them. Modest as he was, he asked a friend, only a few years before his death, if he really believed he had talent; and how little the Viennese realized his greatness is shown in this citation:

"When Vogl or Schönstein, accompanied by Schubert, sang his songs in social circles and produced a ravishing effect with them, they were literally overwhelmed with applause and thanks; but no one thought of the modest master who created these glorious melodies. He was so accustomed to this neglect that he did not care about it in the least."

A great change has taken place since those days. People are beginning to realize that a creator is greater than an interpreter.

RAMSEY'S ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The English Language and English Grammar: An Historical Study of the Sources, Development, and Analogies of the Language and of the Principles Governing its Usage. Illustrated by copious examples from writers of all periods. By Samuel Ramsey. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

"THERE are many persons," says Mr. Ramsey in his modest preface, "who would be glad to know more about the English language than can be gained from the formal routine of the public schools, who, nevertheless, are unable to procure and read the great number of valuable works on the subject that have issued from the press within a period of fifty years. Such persons are in a position to appreciate a work taking a somewhat wider view than the common text-books, and presenting some of the more familiar results of modern philology."

For such persons a volume of 600 pages, written in Mr. Ramsey's lively style and printed in the large clear types which his publishers have allowed him, would assuredly be very valuable if it actually presented the main results of philological inquiry for the last fifty years, or if, failing this, it were at least sensible and accurate in what it did offer, and did not run counter to modern science. Unfortunately the present volume does not fulfil these requirements. It is not properly an historical study, for it again and again violates the first principles of the historical method; it is rather the note-book and scrap-book of a veteran amateur, containing, of course, much that is true and pertinent, but, equally of course, abounding in irrelevancy and error.

One is first struck by the lack of method displayed in the work. 214 pages are given to "The English Language," 352 to "English Grammar." In "The English Language" the fault in question is specially marked. This division comprises seven chapters: "The Instability of Language" (8 pages), "The Sources of English" (31 pages), "The Province of Grammar" (10 pages), "Word-Making" (41 pages), "The Alphabet" (38 pages), "Grimm's Law" (6 pages), "Pronunciation and Spelling" (77 pages). Here we have, in an "historical study" of our language, the alphabet preferred to the sources of English in a ratio of about 5 to 4, and the subject of pronunciation and spelling similarly preferred in a ratio of nearly 2.5 to 1. Yet it is only when we examine the favored chapters in detail that the enormousness of the disproportion becomes striking. In the chapter on the alphabet we hear much of picture-writing, we are informed that "the Japanese learned Chinese through the medium of Corea," we are told of "the especial alphabet of the Sanskrit language," of the cuneiform characters, of hieroglyphs, of the Rosetta Stone, the Moabite Stone, and the inscription of Eshmunazar. Much of this, however interesting in itself, has no place in a book like Mr. Ramsey's, especially when it crowds out material that would be to the purpose. Similarly, in the overgrown chapter on pronunciation and spelling, we have a quantity of useless, or at best inopportune, matter. The discussion of the irregularities of our spelling is far too long, and we could dispense with the one more system of semi-phonetic orthography that the author finds it worth while to expound. Nearly six pages, almost as many as are allotted to Grimm's Law, are taken up with a list of "anomalies of spelling and pronunciation"—the residuum left "after all that can be said in the way of general principles" has been set forth; and three pages of proper names follow. The first of these lists bristles with words that are not English at all—*Aino, cicerone, cicisbeo, concetto, çy près, estramaçon, improvisatrice, lammergeyer, reiter, zollverein*, and the like; the second contains some very queer things. Both lists seem intrusive in an "historical" treatise that can spare but 31 pages for "The Sources of English."

Such disproportion, however, though a defect in the book, would not of necessity make it unsafe, and might conceivably exist without seriously impairing its value. There is no reason why the general reader should not amuse himself with linguistic curiosities, and perhaps no serious objection to his attaching a rather undue importance to them. Our chief quarrel with the work is based on its errors, which are numerous and grave.

To begin with, the author's Anglo-Saxon is unsatisfactory. To say nothing of scores of false quantities (which we might charge to the printer, if that were all), or of such unheard-of forms as *fit, gis, tith*, for *fét, gés, téth* (which charity might ascribe to an illegible hand and a negligent proof-reader), we meet with many mistakes that betray lack of knowledge. Thus, we are informed that "Saxon abounded in compound vowels—*ae, ea, ei, ie, eo, ia*—which were varied by accents placed on one or another of the vowels" (p. 13); that "the earliest English poetry depended neither on rhyme, accent, nor measure, but on alliteration—that is, identity of initial sounds" (p. 23); and that "the Saxons retained an old rune to represent the sound of *th* in *thin* and crossed a *d* for the *th* in *then*" (p. 140). Again, the paradigm *blind*, at page 88, is far from accurate, and at p. 317 an instrumental is offered for all three genders of the demonstrative pronoun ("*thy, thære, thy*"). Further, the declension of *gód* (p. 294) is given in the weak form appropriated to the definite use, with the remark: "The Saxon took another pattern, slightly fuller, when the definite article preceded the adjective"! The strangest paradigm of all is that at p. 445, where of the six forms ascribed to the preterite indicative of *findan* two only are correct. After this we need not be surprised at Mr. Ramsey's odd translation of Cædmon's Hymn (p. 8); at his supposing that *street* and *wall* were words adopted by the Saxons after their invasion of Britain (p. 12); at his calling *dor* the Anglian form for *duru* (p. 14); at his regarding "the *ke'ow* [for *cow*] of rural New York" as "a genuine Saxon survival" (p. 13); at his having observed *oo* for *ō* "first in Sir John Mandeville, middle of the fourteenth century" (p. 165); or even at his including among "the most easily distinguishable features [of English], due in whole or in part to French influence," "the almost universal ending of the plural in *s*," and "the verbal ending in *s—goes* and *speaks* instead of *goeth* and *speaketh*" (p. 22).

Nor is Mr. Ramsey a safer guide in his etymologizing and his treatment of the history of the language in its post-Saxon stages. *Orange* is not to be classed with *(n)adder, (n)apron*, and *(n)umpire* as a word in which an original *n* "has been transferred to the preceding article," *a(n)* (page 64). There is no evidence to connect *bag* with *balg* (p. 148). A final *b* has *not* "become silent after *m* in *crumb, limb, numb*" (p. 146), for *crumb* is A. S. *cruma, limb* is A. S. *lim*, and *numb* is Middle English *nume*. The *a* in *apace* is *a=on*, not *a=one*. "*Go*," we are told, "had once a past tense, which is well preserved in the Scotch *gaed*" (p. 89); here, perhaps, the author is thinking of A. S. *gengde*, the preterite of *gongan;* if so, one would be glad to know how this is "well preserved" in the Scotch form. On the same page we read that, "as early as the time of Chaucer, *went* had completely usurped the place of *éode*"; yet Mr. Ramsey knows that there were dialects in the fourteenth century. A hard saying is that on p. 60, where, as the sixteenth *a*-prefix in English, stands "Arabic *al*, the," with the note "*apricot*, introduced by the Portuguese"; but, of the various ways in which this remark may be taken, one may devise an interpretation that will save the author's credit. This, however, we can scarcely do in the case of the note on *children*, composed, apparently, in oblivion of the Saxon plural *cildru* (p. 239). The list of "the principal strong verbs that have become weak" (p. 365) actually includes *bereave, cast, lock, smoke, throng*, and *wink*. *Would* and *should*, according to our author, "are obtained by successive reductions of the older forms *wollede* and *shullede*" (p. 375).

The scope of the work precludes excursions into literary history, yet Mr. Ramsey takes occasion to ascribe the Anglo-Saxon Gospel of Matthew to Ælfric (p. 7), and to credit to

Higden, who, he says, wrote in the time of Richard II., the well-known record about Cornewal and Pencrych which we really owe to Higden's translator, Trevisa (p. 19).

In comparative philology Mr. Ramsey is equally untrustworthy. His treatment of the Indo-European personal endings (pp. 417ff.) is a good specimen of his powers in this field. A still better sample is his discussion of the comparative and superlative terminations (pp. 295 ff.), in which Bopp's derivation of *-tama* from *-tara-ma* is cited as if it were the latest thing, and we are told that "it is held with still more confidence that *-tara* signifies *of two*, and *-tama, of several.*" After this we are prepared for the "conjecture" that the Latin *-issimus* is for *-itimus*. In Mr. Ramsey's notions of word-formation the connecting vowel plays an important part. Not content with remarking, apropos of *geogeny, geography*, and the like, that "the privilege of inserting at pleasure a connecting vowel facilitates greatly the making of new compounds" (p. 33), he illustrates his position in a passage significant enough to quote:

"We may select the syllable *voc* as a starting point. In this form it is neither noun, adjective, verb, nor adverb, but, with some slight additions, may easily become either. First attach to it the syllable *re*, and it will become *re-voc*. If written *revoke*, to suit our peculiar views of spelling, it would now be a familiar word. Without such change, we may append the syllable *bil;* but *re-voc-bil* would be too harsh without the cushion of a connecting vowel, and an *a* may be interposed; but again the habits of English spelling require us to write so much of the word *re-voc-a-ble*" (p. 68).

In concerns of modern usage Mr. Ramsey does not err so often, but even in this regard he is sometimes far from sound. Witness his perverse discussion of the history and offices of *shall* and *will*. His hostility to *shall* is curious. "Another wise saw," he remarks sarcastically, "put forth as often and as confidently, is to the effect that the prevailing error lies in putting *will* in the place of *shall*. . . . I think that the great abuse is the undue frequency of *shall*" (p. 374). "It is doubtful if any one ever says 'Shall you?' without a consciousness of putting on an extra touch of style. Still 'Shall you?' has been used occasionally for at least fifty years by authors otherwise respectable" (p. 392). Anything absurder than these dicta it would be hard to discover, even in the most irresponsible of "English grammars." The author's whole treatment of the subject is confused and illogical, betraying an absence not only of the historical sense, but of ability to appreciate the finer distinctions of linguistic usage.

We have neither space nor heart for further details. To enumerate all Mr. Ramsey's errors and hazardous assertions would be a melancholy task and would require many columns of this paper. Enough have been cited to show that his book is thoroughly untrustworthy, and to justify our opinion that it should never have been issued. If it does not sell, its failure may tend to discourage the publication of philological works. If it does sell, it will disseminate error and propagate confusion. Meantime, though somewhat depressed by the result of Mr. Ramsey's venture, we still look forward hopefully to the day when authors and publishers will understand that to write a good book on grammar or on language requires as careful scientific training as to write a good book on quaternions or on neurology.

Two Thousand Years of Gild Life. With a full account of the Gilds and Trading Companies of Kingston-upon-Hull. By Rev. J. Malet Lambert. Hull: A. Brown & Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. xi., 414.

THE title of this book and the claims of the author are somewhat pretentious. He informs us in the preface that he has attempted to sketch in outline the origin and development in England "of that peculiar principle of association which has its typical form in the mediæval Gild," and that he has worked out this design chiefly on the basis of hitherto unpublished documents relating to the merchant companies and craft fraternities of Hull. A glance at the contents of the book shows that this claim is untenable, for the manuscripts used and printed by Dr. Lambert begin towards the end of the Middle Ages. It is clearly impossible to base the general history of mediæval gilds on such records, and, in fact, the author has made no attempt to do this, notwithstanding his assertion in the preface. The first 110 pages of the work are devoted to the origin and development of gilds—Greek, Roman, and English—considerable attention being paid to the mediæval gild merchant of England. The remainder of the book deals chiefly with the trade fraternities of Hull from the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries inclusive. The treatise concludes with short chapters on the place of the gilds in economic history, their incorporation, and their relation to the Christian Church.

We agree with the author in his estimate of the general importance of his subject:

"The whole municipal, industrial, and social life of the Middle Ages, if we except the industry of agriculture, moved in the circle of the Gild. Not alone the public, but also the social and private, the moral and municipal interests of the townsfolk centred therein. They were very largely the Chambers of Commerce, the Friendly Societies, the Trades Unions, the Freemasonry, and in some degree the Joint Stock Companies, of times when the merchant lived in his warehouse, which was also his factory as well as his shop. . . . It is plain that to enter into the current of this ancient life is to become familiar with no small part of the true history of the people."

It is refreshing to find that English writers are beginning fully to comprehend the bearings of gilds on the general history of England. They also begin to perceive that Brentano did not say the last word on this subject, and that he is not an infallible guide. In fact, Dr. Lambert, though he cites many authorities, scarcely ever refers to Brentano. A few years ago no account of English gilds was considered worthy of serious attention which did not rest mainly on Brentano's brilliant but sophistical deductions.

But in the use of authorities Dr. Lambert is not above reproach. His data on commerce are taken from Anderson rather than Cunningham, on the Hanseatic League from Marquard rather than Schäfer or Höhlbaum, on Scandinavian gilds from Du Chaillu rather than Pappenheim, on the Berwick Gild Statutes from Smith's 'English Gilds' rather than the 'Acts of the Parliament of Scotland.' Moreover, his way of citing authorities is unscholarly and at times exasperating, owing to the frequent omission of chapter or page; and some titles of books from which he draws much material are nowhere given. For example, the single word "Luchaire" often constitutes the whole of a footnote; this is a bad way to cite an author who has written several books, all or none of which may be known to the reader. Again, "Marquardi" is frequently quoted, but we are not informed what and when he wrote; Marquard's 'Tractatus de Commercio' (1662) is presumably meant. When the author does venture to give title and page he is often inaccurate (for example, notes 60, 61, 115, pp. 59, 99).

Passing from these external matters to his treatment of the subject, it must be said that Dr. Lambert's chapters on the general history of gilds add little to our knowledge. He attempts to revive the theory of the origin of English gilds in the Roman *collegia*, but he makes out no stronger case than did Coote in his 'Romans of Britain.' His arguments, like those of Coote, do not seem to us to be convincing; the parallels which he presents do not necessarily prove a continuity of institutional life. He also revives Kemble's theory regarding the identity of the gild and the personal tithing of the frank-pledge system in the Anglo-Saxon period. He does not, however, demonstrate this identity, and it is hard to believe that the tithing—a public, compulsory institution—was identical with any private, voluntary body like the gild. But while adding little to our knowledge of the subject as a whole, many of the author's remarks on the general history of gilds exhibit independent judgment, and are worthy of careful consideration.

In this part of the book there are many errors of detail. The description of Winchester on page 54 belongs to the twelfth century, not to the eleventh; the Cnihten Gild of London was dissolved in 1125, not 1115 (p. 49); the gild hall at Wycombe was called "knaveshorn," not "knaveshorn" (p. 59); "scot" should not be distinguished from "lot" in the phrase "scot and lot" (p. 61); "hanta-chevesle" (p. 76) is a wrong reading of "hantachensele"; the term "foreigner" was not limited to strangers from *other* counties (p. 87), but comprehended also persons within the same county; for "worthy for hire," page 88, read "serving for hire"; chapter 24 of the Berwick Statutes was not enacted in 1284 (p. 95); the *liber burgus* was never granted to the men of a gild (p. 99); Dr. Gross does not limit the meaning of hanse in the way stated on page 104; the charter of York concerning the hanse was granted by John, not Stephen (p. 153); for "commonalty of Bedfordshire" (p. 380), read "commonalty of Bedford."

The body of the work (pp. 111-365) contains the history of the gilds of Hull, especially its trade fraternities, and deserves much praise. Dr. Lambert here gives us the most complete publication of the records of craft gilds which has as yet been offered to the public in connection with any provincial town of England. The portion of the history of English gilds which still remains to be investigated is that relating to the craft fraternities. The difficulty in studying the latter is the paucity of printed records. This hiatus Dr. Lambert's book helps to fill up. It is to be hoped that his example will be imitated by other local historians, and that, with the help of such publications, a good history of the English craft gilds and of their relations to economic development may soon be written.

Dr. Lambert closes his treatise with a bibliography and an index, neither of which can be commended. The former is very brief, and purports to give "a list of those works and contributions . . . which are not included in the very full account contained in Dr. Gross's 'Gilda Mercatoria' and 'Gild Merchant.'" Notwithstanding this statement, about one-quarter of the titles in Dr. Lambert's bibliography are to be found in Dr. Gross's list of authorities.

The Dialogues of Plato, translated into English, with analyses and introductions. By B. Jowett, M.A. Third edition. 5 vols. Macmillan. 1892.

To this third edition of Prof. Jowett's monumental work the publishers prefix a note stating that "the additions and alterations which have been made, both in the introductions and in the text, affect at least a third of the work." This is not an over-estimate. The second edition contained 3,015 pages, the present one 3,410, or nearly one-seventh more matter. This consists of eight entirely new essays, enlargements of the old ones and of the introductions, preface, and index, new translations of the Eryxias and the Second Alcibiades, and a slight expansion of the earlier rendering throughout. These enlargements in matter are accompanied by changes not less extensive and important in the form of presentation. The whole appearance of the page is altered. The type is smaller, the margin broader, the top of each page now carries a running line descriptive of the topic beneath. The title of the dialogue has retreated to the outer corner of the page; immediately below it stand the names of the characters who are at the moment talking; and, further down, beside each paragraph, is printed a marginal summary of contents. For students, and for those who need to look up a matter rapidly, these condensed analyses are a great convenience. The insertion of them, together with the additions previously mentioned, make this edition almost a new work.

The changes in the translation are individually less striking. In 1871 Prof. Jowett was no tyro. At that time his scholarship was already solid and his method well established. In his long life with Plato he has experienced no large repentances. But being, like his master, an artist, he has never ceased to study neatness, simplicity, adaptation to the reader, subtle textual accord. The results of many mutually correcting moods are here given in a multitude of delicate emendations. How numerous these are may be estimated from the fact that it would be hard to find half-a-dozen consecutive lines in the entire work which have altogether escaped alteration. No one will admit that all these changes are for the better; yet, bearing in mind what Prof. Jowett himself has said, that "translation is dependent for its effect on very minute touches," most readers will agree that on the whole each page, while making a closer approach to the Greek, conveys more than ever to both ear and mind the impression of a piece of masterly English.

The conveyance of this impression is the distinctive mark of Prof. Jowett's work. Commonly the translator who seeks to reproduce beauty fails because he has not the resources of his own tongue at command. For purposes of translation, scholarship is more important as regards the language into which, than as regards that out of which, the rendering is made. Defects in the latter can largely be made up at the moment from books; for the former a man must rely on himself. Prof. Jowett has the double wealth. Primarily a literary man of exceptional power, he happens also to be the first Greek scholar in England. Both Greek and English he therefore understands and reverences, and he is at the same time curiously free from the prejudices of his class. He perceives that "the tendency of modern languages is to become more correct as well as more perspicuous than the ancient." He declares that "in some respects ordinary English writing, such as the newspaper article, is superior to Plato." Yet he has labored for a quarter of a century to domesticate Plato in the West, and at last, in these beautiful volumes, may be said to have made him as completely our countryman as ever he was that of Sophocles, Lucian, or Plotinus. Here Plato talks in all his grave and playful amplitude. Here we feel his grace, his humor, his dramatic power, his fondness for the mere act of utterance, his combination of passionate Hellenism and cosmopolitanism, his luminous insight into common things, his world-scorning morality, his suggestion everywhere of meanings deeper than he cares to express. All this Prof. Jowett has rendered. No other English translation from the Greek, except our English Bible, has brought over so fully the riches of its original.

The Grammar of Science. By Karl Pearson, M.A., Sir Thomas Gresham's Professor of Geometry. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

THE title of this book hardly prepares the reader for its real nature. It is an attempt to elucidate, in an original train of thought, what amounts, generically speaking, to Kantian nominalism, and to show its applicability to contemporary scientific problems. Although the metaphysical doctrine from which it proceeds is all but exploded, and rests upon an inaccurate psychology and an uncritical logic, in our opinion, yet it must be conceded that the book is one of considerable power, and contains matter for salutary reflection for anybody who cares to think deeply.

"The object of the present work," says the author, "is to insist that science is in reality a classification and analysis of the contents of the mind." This suggests that investigation consists in first collecting one's facts, and then locking one's laboratory door and retiring to one's study to work out one's theories; whereas, in truth, it involves experimentation alternately with things and with the diagrams of things. The realist will hold that this alternation is helpful, because the reason within us and the reason in nature are essentially at one; while the conceptualist will wish to separate his facts and theories as much as possible. He holds that any uniformity or law of nature is, as Prof. Pearson says, a mere "product of the perceptive faculty." Newton's great work was "not so much the discovery as the *creation* of the law of gravitation"; and the force of gravity, because it is a concept, not a percept, has no reality. "The mind of man," he tells us, "in the process of classifying phenomena and formulating natural law, introduces the element of reason into nature; and the logic man finds in the universe is but the reflection of his own reasoning faculty." This is (as we think) very false; but it is the definite position, broadly taken, of a vigorous thinker.

It is hardly necessary to say that the nodus of the whole argument lies in an attempt to show that "the reality of a thing depends upon the possibility of its occurring as a group of immediate sense-impressions." But the author hardly seems aware that this statement will be regarded by most psychologists as involving an analysis of consciousness now quite out of date. In the first place, it is not possible, as here implied, for the same sense-impression to occur twice. It is an individual event which happens once only. When a sensation had today is said to be identical with one had yesterday, what is true is, that two sensations are recognized to be alike; and this likeness resides not in those sensations, nor in any others, but in the irresistibleness of an act of generalization. Thus, generality is essentially involved in that whereon the reality of a thing is said to depend; and that consideration is fatal to nominalism. Besides, there is no such thing as an "immediate" sense-impression: the only things immediately given are total states of feeling, of which sense-impressions are mere elements; and to say that they are elements is a metaphorical expression, meaning, not that they are in the immediate feeling in its immediateness, but that the act of reflective judgment is irresistible which perceives them there. Here, as before, therefore, a product of analytic thought is detected as essential to that whereon the reality of a thing depends; and, as before, nominalism is refuted. Moreover, in both these cases, and in all others, that which is most essential to reality is the irresistibleness of something; and this sense of resistance is a direct presentation of externality —what Hamilton called an immediate perception. Let the subjectivism out of which nominalism springs be modified by the recognition not merely of immediate feeling, but also of this sense of reaction, and further of the generalizing movement, and it will become a harmless doctrine enough—a mere aspect of realism.

In his application of his nominalism to problems of science, Prof. Pearson has adhered to the spirit of the 'Kritik der reinen Vernunft' with surprising fidelity. He has said things which Kant did not say, but which are so completely in his line of thought that we almost seem to be reading the old master himself. Many of his observations are interesting; others seem quite untenable. Thus, he adheres to Laplace's doctrine of indirect probabilities in its least acceptable form, relying here upon Mr. F. Y. Edgeworth's cobwebs. In a still weaker fashion, he allows himself to be confused by such a writer as Dr. Ernst Mach, in regard to the relativity of motion. The conclusion to which his nominalism leads him is that motion is wholly relative. If this were proved, the truth of Euclid's postulate concerning parallels would be an easy corollary; but, unfortunately, as far as rotation is concerned, the proposition is in flat conflict with the accepted laws of mechanics, as Foucault's pendulum-experiment will remind us.

Ethnology in Folklore. By George Lawrence Gomme, F.S.A. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. 12mo, pp. vii., 203.

THE scientific bias communicated a few years ago to folklore studies by Mr. Lang and Mr. Frazer in the attempt to connect them with anthropology, has resulted in stimulating renewed attention to, and vastly increasing the interest of, superstitions and customs which formerly possessed little attraction for any but the antiquary. Since the scholars just mentioned have shown the great light which modern folklore throws upon the question of classic mythology, many investigators have used this means for the elucidation of hitherto unsolved problems of ethnology as well. A vast mass of folklore has been gathered from every country in Europe and the East, and the time has come to sift this mass, and, if possible, to see whether the comparative method of investigation can show that folklore is a science and a valuable auxiliary to the other sciences. As we have said, many scholars have drawn upon various classes of folklore as illustrative of problems in mythology, as Sir George Cox, who made free use of modern popular tales in

his 'Aryan Mythology,' and Mr. Frazer, who employed extensively modern superstitions and customs in his 'Golden Bough'; but no attempt has been made until lately to formulate the principles and laws of folklore in general. This labor the learned President of the English Folklore Society has just undertaken, and has accomplished his task, as might have been expected, in a scholarly and entertaining volume, which, by its inclusion in the "Modern Science Series," edited by Sir John Lubbock, shows what a different plane the study of folklore has come to occupy since the day when the Grimms began their collection of popular tales and customs.

Mr. Gomme's volume is entirely unpretentious, and free from the exaggerated claims which the votaries of a new science are apt to make. If the results of his studies seem somewhat meagre and vague, it should be remembered that the author confines his investigations to but one field, ethnology, and that, in the very nature of things, the results are liable to be indefinite. In dealing with the problem of vanished races, or of the mutual influences of races, where the evidence is wholly drawn from popular customs and beliefs, which, while they are extraordinarily persistent, are also easily changed and modified, we must not expect the same degree of certainty as in other fields of research, where the evidences are of another kind. It is impossible within the limits of this notice to give an adequate idea of Mr. Gomme's method and its results. Suffice it to say that he attempts to show that custom or belief which survives in the savage form is of different ethnic origin from custom or belief which survives in higher forms. In other words, the folklore of any race will be arrested when a race of superior civilization comes in contact with it, and, to use Mr. Gomme's own words, "if the incoming civilizations flowing over lower levels of culture in any given area have been many, there will be as many stages of arrestment in the folklore of that area; and in so far as each incoming civilization represents an ethnic distinction, the different stages of survival in folklore would also represent an ethnic distinction."

The principal result of Mr. Gomme's studies is the ability to point out, somewhat vaguely, it is true, the distinction between the non-Aryan and the Aryan elements in folklore. Incidentally, the author treats of a great variety of interesting topics involving the early civilization of England and Ireland, and many remarkable examples are given of the survival of savagery down to comparatively recent times. The book is scholarly and suggestive, and the method indicated can hardly fail in the future to produce novel and valuable results.

A Tramp Across the Continent. By C. F. Lummis. Chas. Scribner's Sons. Pp. 270.

Now that there are half-a-dozen ways of crossing the continent by steam, "going across the Plains" has become a mere tradition and material for romances of the future. The suppression of the Indians and the conversion of a large part of the "Great American Desert" into smiling gardens, by means of irrigation, would make a trip to California in "prairie schooners" much less perilous than it used to be; but as it would cost many times as much as the railroad fare, no one ever undertakes it at present. Under these circumstances Mr. Lummis's tramp across the continent appears in the light of a novel experiment. His motives for undertaking it were curiosity and a craving for unlimited "joy on legs," both of which were abundantly satisfied.

Leaving Cincinnati on September 12, 1884, he arrived in Los Angeles 143 days later, having walked 3,507 miles, or an average of almost 25 miles a day, although on some days the mileage was nearer 50 than 25. As the result of his trip he gives this advice to pedestrians:

"People who do not walk all the time should wear thick-soled, heavy shoes for a tramp; but if one is to make a business of walking, the best way is to be as lightly shod as possible, and let the soles and ankles toughen and strengthen without 'crutches.' Since learning to campaign in the Apache moccasin, I have always preferred a few days of sore feet and subsequent light-footedness to perpetual dragging of heavy shoes."

Mr. Lummis saw many interesting sights, but his experiences on the way were not such as to encourage others to imitate his example. He was repeatedly "held up" by tramps, and only his nerve and skill in the use of the revolver saved him. Once he came within an inch of being murdered by a convict who wanted his revolver; he had several encounters with wild cats and California lions, broke his arm in climbing a hill, barely escaped from snow-storms in the mountains and the parching sun of the desert; and, to cap the climax, his dog went mad in Arizona and had to be shot in self-defence, and a very narrow escape it was. These adventures, with many others, make this book capital reading for boys, old and young, and it will interest others who are not satisfied with seeing the West from a car-window. There is, of course, a good deal about fishing and hunting in the book; but, with a curious inconsistency, Mr. Lummis, in speaking of the exterminated buffalo, inveighs against "the pot-hunter, the hide-hunter, and, worst of all, the soulless fellow who killed for the mere savagery of killing." Yet only a few pages later he describes triumphantly how he killed two antelopes within a minute, and barely missed a third, although all he got from this murder of animals over whose beauty and grace he goes into raptures, was "a few pounds of steak."

The Horse: A Study in Natural History. By William Henry Flower, C.B., etc., etc. [Modern Science Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xiv, 204, illustrated.

Under the guidance of Prof. Flower, it is possible to become familiar with the natural history of the noblest of our domesticated animals easily and enjoyably. These pages treat of the place in nature, the relations in the past, the nearest existing relations, and the evolution of the present structure of the horse. The presentation is of the broadest and most philosophical, and is the outcome of the most recent investigations. The text is adapted to readers in general; it is concise, clear, and interesting, alike in dealing with the uncouth nearest of kin, the tapirs and rhinoceroses, in tracing the evolution from possible ancestors by means of teeth or limbs, or in various details of anatomy. The book is admirable in the matter relating to established facts; it is commendable also in that pertaining to things that may or may not be. Doubtful matters are shown in their true light; they are left doubtful without attempt at theoretical proof. Degrees of probability are indicated in cases, but the reader is allowed to build his own hypotheses. This will win the hearty approval of those who have felt the detrimental effects of prejudices induced by so-called "good working theories." Apparent ancestors among the fossils may be displaced in the future by more acceptable discoveries without seriously impairing our author's work.

He has left a few points open to the critic. Through an unfortunate reference to the work of Mme. Pavloff, five-toed Phenacodus is apparently identified with the more advanced Hyracotherium and a reduced number of digits. The general precision of statement is marred by a sentence on page 160: "The scapula is of complex shape, with strong, projecting processes. In the horse (see Frontispiece) the humerus especially, so prominent a feature in the scapula of man, being scarcely visible. There is no trace of a clavicle." The meaning of the second of these sentences is not evident. Comparisons are aptly made between the "ergot," the bare pad in the fetlock of the horse, and a similar pad under the feet of other mammalia. We must, however, dissent from the statement that this pad in the horse is now apparently useless, remaining only as testimony to the unity of structure with other mammals and of probable descent from a more generalized form, for the well-being of whose life this structure was necessary. The ergot is one of several protective structures behind the joint at the lower end of the metapodial, and is in function on rough or yielding grounds, in sands, gravels, or loose rocks, or in descending inclines. Naturally, on wild species of Equus it is more developed. But opportunities for fault-finding are very rare in the case of this book, which is one of the best of good books on natural history.

The Life of Col. Paul Revere. By Elbridge Henry Goss. With portraits, many illustrations, facsimiles, etc. Two vols. Boston: Joseph George Cupples. 1892. 8vo, pp. 689.

Paul Revere was one of the most fortunate of the minor characters of the Revolution. He never held any important position, but by a lucky chance he filled a romantic part, and, thanks to a modern poet, "Paul Revere's Ride" is likely to be remembered by posterity. He was the trusted friend and agent of the Boston patriots, he served loyally and ably, he survived the perils of war to reëstablish himself in business, and he left descendants among the most distinguished families of his native town. Whether among his other pieces of good fortune the publication of these volumes is to be reckoned, may be a matter of doubt.

Mr. Goss is evidently a painstaking antiquary, greatly interested in his subject, and he has collected everything, perhaps, which a biographer could need. On the other hand, these books, as books, are discreditable to the publisher. The paper is shiny, the back-margins are too small, and the volumes can neither be opened nor held with any comfort. The illustrations are mostly printed from "process" plates of the poorest description, and, for some inconceivable reason, they are printed in various colors, often to the further injury of the engraving. Of the drawings we prefer not to speak, as they seem to be works of love. There is a flavor of sham antiquity about the book, beginning with a title-page whereon the publisher divides his names between two lines, which is unnecessary and unpardonable. We presume that the author is not responsible for these defects, as he has shown his zeal and knowledge in the collection of Revere's engravings; but though these originals, in their pristine defects, are merely historical evidences and not models for an art academy, they are a thousand times more repulsive in red, green, blue, and yellow reprints.

Paul Revere was born at Boston December 21, 1734, and was the son of Apollos Rivoire, a native of Riancaud, France, who came hither as a youth and learned his trade of goldsmith with John Cony of Boston. The father anglicized both his names to Paul Revere, and died in 1754. By his wife, Deborah Hichborn, he had twelve children, of whom our Paul was the third. The son followed his father's trade, and, like many others, passed from the engraving of gold and silver to that of copper plates for printers' use. His skill in the latter art, though very limited, was of great use to his country, when employed both on patriotic caricatures and on the notes and bonds of the Revolutionary period. His mechanical ability was also of service in the manufacture of gunpowder and cannon, and, after the war, he was the founder of the copper-manufacturing industry in Boston and its vicinity.

It would be useless to repeat the story of his notable "Ride," which was only one of the many good things he did. Everything is recounted in Mr. Goss's book, and we are all obliged to him for his industry. An abstract of the volumes would probably be more serviceable, however, to the memory of this sturdy patriot, industrious citizen, and admirable man.

The Claims of Decorative Art. By Walter Crane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

One is likely to open this book with anticipations of pleasure and profit. So much of the writing on matters of art is done by men who have no practical and little theoretic acquaintance with their subject, and whose literary skill is their only critical equipment, that a book on art by an artist of ability seems very welcome. One expects, at last, to be told something. In this case, however, these very legitimate expectations are aroused only to be disappointed.

Mr. Crane is a decorative artist of great talent, but he is also a Socialist, and his Socialism occupies a much larger place in his writings than does his art. He seems, also, to be a man incapable of reasoning and guided entirely by sentiment. Almost any one of the sixteen essays in the present volume might be given the title of any other and no harm done. Wherever he starts, he always comes out at the same place. Over and over again, with "damnable iteration," he laments that modern art is all wrong, and modern life is all wrong; that art is given over to a vain competition with photography, and life to "commercialism" and the struggle for money; and ever comes the refrain, "as if it were the burthen of a song," "Meanwhile, the only hope, alike for art as for humanity, lies in Socialism."

A part of his indictment is true, and occasionally he comes near saying something valuable about "Design in Relation to Use and Material," or about "Imitation and Expression in Art"; but the fatal inability to reason spoils all, and makes what might have been a real contribution to criticism a mere expression of personal feeling. The world is out of joint, and somehow Socialism is to set it right. The vague millennium of the Socialist which is to remake mankind and turn us all into angels, will, of course, save art as well as humanity; but the how or the why Mr. Crane is incapable of telling us.

We cannot recommend Mr. Crane's book to the student of art as one from which he is likely to glean any instruction.

The American Government, National and State. By B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D. Ann Arbor, Mich.: The Register Publishing Company.

Prof. Hinsdale's volume consists of a Constitutional text-book, preceded by a history of the origin of the American State. The chief difference between it and most books of its class lies in the greater attention paid to the historical introduction, and the space devoted to the machinery of the State Governments. There is no great originality in the descriptive part—indeed, it would be difficult, after all that has been written on the subject, to find much scope for originality here; the main thing is that the description is accurate, that on disputed points the author's views are expressed with reserve, and the aim generally kept in mind is merely to give the "better opinion."

We think the author has here and there gone into greater detail than is necessary, and in one or two places, at least, the subject under consideration is not fully elucidated. Thus, in the discussion of the legal-tender act no notice is taken of any decision of the Supreme Court later than that in the twelfth volume of Wallace's Reports; and the final judgment by which the power to make paper money legal tender in the discretion of the Government was affirmed is not even alluded to. This is a defect which should be corrected in another edition. No more important decision as to the powers of Congress has been rendered in our time, as may be easily seen when we reflect that it is perfectly true, as Mr. Hinsdale says, that the framers of the Constitution "undoubtedly supposed they were making irredeemable paper money, issued by the Government, impossible." In general the book is brought down "to date."

The treatment of the Commerce clause (pp. 184–187) is good enough as far as it goes; but without some account of the police power, and the question of concurrent powers, it is incomplete. These are given elsewhere, but, scattered through the book, one sheds little light on the others. On the other hand, it is to be said that the maker of such a compendium as this is perpetually confronted with the difficulty that he can never fully explain American constitutional law except to a person who has received a legal education, and in writing for ordinary students is continually in danger of falling between the two stools of too much explanation or too little.

The book opens with a dissertation on the Science of Politics. Many treatises on this subject end in suggesting a doubt as to whether the writer has any clear idea of what a "science" is, and to persons of a sceptical turn it will be refreshing to find that Prof. Hinsdale is able to compress the whole science into eighteen pages. Even as to the truth of the propositions contained in this narrow compass we doubt if his fellow-scientists will wholly agree. It may be doubted, for instance, whether it is scientifically correct in a treatise of this kind to say that the Poles are a "nation." There is a Polish race, or a Polish people, but the term nation in the mouths of modern publicists generally imports the idea of territorial sovereignty, and not that of race affinity. The question is not one of etymology, but of usage.

Brahmanism and Hinduism: or, Religious Life and Thought in India, as based on the Veda and Other Sacred Books of the Hindus. By Sir Monier Monier-Williams. Fourth edition. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

The very admirable work of M. Auguste Barth, entitled 'The Religions of India' (2d ed., London, Trübner, 1890), treats in order of the Vedic religions, of Brahmanism, ritualistic and philosophic, of Buddhism, of Jainism, and finally of Hinduism. The Oxford Sanskrit professor's beautiful volume, which lies before us, has for its proper subject the last of these topics, Hinduism. Barring ritualistic Brahmanism, it is the dreariest of them all. The monstrous mythology of the worshippers of Vishnu and Çiva, the endless ramifications of the sects, the demon-worship, hero-worship, ancestor-worship, the tree and serpent-worship, the religious life of the orthodox Hindu, his fasts and feasts, temples, shrines, and places of pilgrimage—all is here patiently and faithfully set forth by a writer who has not only read his Sanskrit books, but has also made three journeys to India for the personal study of subjects in which autopsy is of especial value.

Unattractive as these subjects may seem, they nevertheless compel the attention of the serious student of anthropology and religions, and the author has invested them with as much liveliness as was feasible. It is matter for curious reflection that we nineteenth-century Americans have contemporaries on the other side of the globe—in Orissa—who worship the Queen of England as their chief divinity, and that men of remarkable strength or of unusual deformity are liable—"like Paul and Barnabas at Lystra"—to be converted into gods (p. 259).

Looking at the practical aspects of the case, it seems idle to hope that the mass of the grosser forms of idolatry and superstition will yield to direct efforts at proselyting. The force of the whole system of modern civilization and enlightenment will ultimately dislodge it, and so, by indirection, change the general habit of mind of the Hindus. A hundred miles of new railway in India is more efficient in breaking down the prejudices of caste than are as many thousands of tracts and arguments.

Apropos of the recent discussions of branding as practised among young collegians, it may interest them to know by way of precedent that they can cite the Vada-galai and Ten-galai parties of the Ramanuja sect of the Vishnuites. These parties quarrel most bitterly about the form of their frontal emblems. The Vada-galais hold that the mark on their foreheads should represent the right foot of Vishnu (from which the Ganges sprang), while the Ten-galais insist that both feet should be thus honored. But they all agree in branding the boys of seven and upwards on the arms and breast with the discus and conch-shell of Vishnu, to stamp them as true followers of the god. Since they go about mostly bare, this is a sane and significant proceeding.

Egypt: Handbook for travellers, edited by K. Baedeker. Part Second: Upper Egypt, with Nubia as far as the Second Cataract and the Western Oases. With eleven maps and twenty-six plans. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons.

This volume has been long in preparation, and has been produced only after much trial on the part of the publisher and much pains on the part of the compilers and writers. The travelling public have earnestly desired its appearance, while to only a few was it given to know the cause of the long delay. But at last it is here, and will meet with a most hearty welcome from those who desire to have a handbook of convenient size which shall contain all—yes, and more than all—one needs to know

in order to view and be amazed by the wonders of the land in question. The names of those who have assisted in the preparation of the volume are a sufficient guarantee of the scholarship of the undertaking: Georg Ebers of Leipzig, Johannes Dümichen of Strassburg, and August Eisenlohr of Heidelberg. These are names well known in Egyptological circles, and greeted with approval in those branches of study to which they have especially devoted themselves.

The volume is supplementary to the earlier one on Lower Egypt and the Delta, and relies upon the introductions and notes previously published. The only things reprinted are the dynastic lists and the hieroglyphic names of the more important kings. As indicated in the title, the places and regions described are in Upper Egypt, including the Fayum, Nubia, and the oases. The translation is excellent, the type clear and distinct, though small, and the general appearance of the volume in accord with the other volumes of the entire series. Henceforth the traveller in Upper Egypt will have the satisfaction which comes from the possession of a competent guide-book, even though in the guise of a "red Baedeker."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, G. A. The Poems of Andrew Marvell. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Allen, Grant. The Duchess of Powysland. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Atkinson, Edward. The Science of Nutrition. Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan & Co. 50 cents.
Balestier, W. The Average Woman. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Baring-Gould, S. In the Roar of the Sea. National Book Co.
Betham-Edwards, M. France of To-day. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Black, W. Magic Ink, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Blok, P. J. Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk. Eerste Deel. Groningen: J. B. Wolters.
Bouchot, Henri. Les Clouet, et Corneille de Lyon. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Carleton, Will. City Festivals. Harpers.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. IX. Round—Swansea. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Davis, W. T. Days Afield on Staten Island. New Brighton, N. Y.: The Author.
Deene, Harley. Cortland Lasker, Capitalist. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Dickson, W. B. Modern Punctuation. Putnams. 75 cents.
Dobson, Austin. Fielding's Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon. London: Chiswick Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Dumas, A. The Black Tulip. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Earnest Thoughts for Every Day. T. Whittaker. 25 cents.
Ewart, William. Cardiac Outlines. Putnams. $1.50.
Ferguson, George. Our Earth—Night to Twilight. Vol. I. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Frost, A. B. The Bull Calf, and Other Tales. Scribners. $1.
Gouin, Prof. F. The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages. London: George Philip & Son; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Hall, Gertrude. Far from To-day. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hewins, W. A. S. English Trade and Finance, Chiefly in the Seventeenth Century. London: Methuen & Co.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of London. 8th ed., revised and enlarged. Harpers.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Familiar Letters of James Howell. 2 vols. London: David Nutt.
Jowett, Prof. B. The Dialogues of Plato. 3d ed., revised and corrected throughout. 5 vols. Macmillan. $20.
Keary, C. F. Norway and the Norwegians. Scribners. $1.50.
Mr. Facey Romford's Hounds. London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.25.
Ober, C. F., and Westover, C. M. Manhattan, Historic and Artistic. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Olmis, Elizabeth. Morris Julian's Wife. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Roberts, Morley. The Mate of the Vancouver. Cassell. 50 cents.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. A Transplanted Rose: A Story of New York Society. Harpers. 50 cents.
Snow, Alvin L. Songs of the White Mountains, and Other Poems. Creston, Iowa: *Gazette* Publishing House.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1892.

The Week.

Gov. PATTISON of Pennsylvania has done well to call out the entire division of the national guard of that State to restore order at Homestead. There has been some disposition to criticise him for not having taken such a step sooner, but fair-minded people will generally feel disposed to the conclusion that deliberate action was quite as wise a policy. The strikers have now had every opportunity they could ask to put their side of the case before the public and to make their disposition clear. The stand which they have taken is fully understood, and their contention is universally recognized as untenable and intolerable. Everybody who believes in the reign of law sees that there is only one thing to be done, and that is to end the anarchy of the present situation at Homestead, to restore the works to the owners of the property, and to protect them in their right to operate them. If Gov. Pattison had rushed some troops to the scene of the trouble the moment he heard of the collision on July 6, there would have been more or less questioning as to the rights and wrongs of the question at issue and as to the necessity or wisdom of his action. Now the public sentiment of the entire nation will unquestioningly sustain his course, and the strikers will have no moral support in making any opposition to the troops.

The principal reason for fearing that the Stewart Silver Bill might pass the House was, that it might go through in the sudden access of hope and frenzy caused by its unexpected success in the Senate. Then, too, there was for a time a feeling on the part of Republican members of the House that they must do nothing to make the financial record of the Republican Senate worse than that of the Democratic House, and that, therefore, they had no special interest in voting against the bill. But the two days' filibustering of the anti-free-coinage Democrats gave opportunity for a little cool reflection on the folly of the course of the men who were willing to wreck their party for the sake of an individual advantage, and there is every sign now that reason is resuming her sway and that the bill has no chance of passing. Even if the bill be brought to a final vote, which now seems improbable, the honest-money Democrats count upon a majority of twenty-five against it. On the whole, the Democrats appear to be successfully fighting off this attack of midsummer madness.

The perplexity of the free-silver men in the House over the repeal of the Sherman Act of 1890 is due partly to political and partly to economical considerations. They see that as it is, in the opinion of good lawyers, at least doubtful if the Stewart Bill does not deprive the notes issued under the act of 1890 of their legal-tender quality, they have made it easy for President Harrison, who is astute both as a lawyer and as a politician, to veto the bill as being an act of repudiation, without committing himself in the least on the free-coinage question. The attempt of Mr. Harrison's Republican enemies to "put him in a hole," would therefore be foiled, while the sincere silver-men would be no nearer their end than before. As to the economic argument, the anxiety of the advocates of free coinage that the Government should not deprive the notes issued under the act of 1890 of their legal-tender character is not due to any tenderness for the national credit, but to a fear that this would result in a contraction of the currency, the very thing which they are making all the trouble about, and which they are constantly denouncing as a crime. Really it makes little difference whether these notes retain their legal-tender character or not. If they are absolutely annulled, the currency is contracted suddenly to the extent of $60,000,000, or whatever the amount of these notes may now be. If, which is the most reasonable supposition, the repeal of the act of 1890 makes the notes no longer legal tender, but leaves them the obligations of the Government, redeemable in coin on demand, they are good enough money for anybody, and will circulate as freely as national-bank notes. But, and this is the real difficulty of the silver-men, if these notes are redeemed they cannot be reissued; so that reduction of the volume of our currency is made easy, if not inevitable. There would be no shadow of authority for reissuing one of these notes that had found its way back into the Treasury.

The chief result up to date of President Harrison's "personally conducted" campaign has been a cheapening of the Chairmanship of the National Committee such as has never been seen before. The way it has been hawked about is ingeniously calculated to make any self-respecting man refuse to touch it, and it is no wonder that Senators Aldrich and McMillan are reported to have done so. One consequence of these successive declinations appears to have been to cause the President to show considerable deference to that mammon of unrighteousness which he was so virtuously turning his back upon. A faithful Republican organ described ephemeral Chairman Campbell as coming on Wednesday week from a conference with Mr. Harrison, met at the White House door by W. W. Dudley (who, having got as far as the door, may soon hope to be invited to dinner), joined by Dick Quay, and driven to the house of the latter's father. Thence he betook himself to the President's inner sanctum again, to report the advice of the greatest politicians of the age, and shortly emerged with the announcement that he was going to consult with "certain persons in New York." We think the Hon. Thomas C. Platt will discern here a veiled allusion to himself. What the general effect of all this manœuvring will be upon the better class of Republicans may be inferred from the following remarks of the New Bedford *Mercury:*

> "The spectacle of the President of the United States running a political campaign for his own reëlection is not an altogether pleasing sight. He is, of course, following the example of Governors and Senators and Representatives, not to speak of hundreds of the small-fry officials, of both parties. And Democratic criticism of him in this regard is both insincere and inconsistent. Still, we think many of Mr. Harrison's best friends would be better pleased if he would let the Machine alone."

Those persons who sincerely think that President Harrison has given the country "a safe, clean administration" owe it to themselves to read the report of the Pension Office Investigating Committee. This report does not go back to the days of Corporal Tanner, and is therefore incomplete, but it is sufficient to make every one who reads it blush for his country. The comments of Judge Wheeler, the author of the report, are not very dignified, we regret to say, but the facts speak for themselves. A clerk who was dismissed by Commissioner Raum, but reinstated by Secretary Noble, testified that when he wished to see the son of the Commissioner, he found him during office hours on three successive days at the pool-rooms of a notorious gambling-place, accompanied regularly by a special examiner in the Pension Office, and sometimes by two other examiners. This young Raum was proved to have accepted a bribe for getting a man a place in the Pension Office, the applicant being personated by another person in the examination before the civil-service examiners. Young Raum was also proved to have pocketed money sent to the "conscience fund." Under the advice of counsel he declined to reply to these charges. Three old soldiers, however, who had made charges against this Raum, he having tried to levy blackmail upon one of them, were forced out of the Department upon manufactured evidence. Commissioner Raum himself charged one of these men with delaying a pension so that "an old soldier now lies in a pauper's grave" by reason of this wilful delay. The report of the investigating committee on this matter is almost too shocking for belief. They find that the old soldier was dead before the case was put in the hands of the maligned examiner, and that the

Commissioner knew it, so that he maliciously bore false witness against his subordinate.

We cannot here go into full details of the Committee's findings against Raum. He has, they allege, employed deserters from the army as clerks; he has at least tolerated scandalous immoralities between certain chiefs of division and their female subordinates; he has dismissed employees for reading newspapers that criticised the administration of his office; he has plotted to injure the reputation of a Congressman who was active in the investigation; he has supported his employees in their refusal to give information to the investigating committee; he has refused to explain how it was that a pension attorney endorsed his note for a large amount, which note he did not pay, although he advanced many thousands of cases in which this attorney was interested; he has, in fine, as the Committee charge, "prostituted his office for the purposes of private gain, prostituted his office for political purposes." Secretary Noble's conduct has been such as to make it probable that Commissioner Raum has been kept in office by the command of President Harrison. This policy of maintaining bad men in office was Gen. Grant's political ruin, but he did nothing worse than what President Harrison is now doing. Gen. Grant, moreover, was a simple-hearted soldier. President Harrison is an astute politician and also an elder in the Presbyterian Church.

The *Tribune* gives prominence to a declaration made by the editor of a Kansas newspaper, hitherto Democratic, that he will not vote for Cleveland, but will vote for Harrison. His argument is entirely logical, but we think that a little reflection would have led the *Tribune* to avoid publishing it. The editor's reasons for changing sides are, first, that Mr. Cleveland is bigger than his party, from which we may infer that he regards Mr. Harrison as exhibiting different proportions. In the second place, Mr. Cleveland is admired by men like Mr. George William Curtis, the inference from which is that Mr. Harrison is not admired by such men. In the third place, Mr. Cleveland is a free-trader, while the Kansas editor is a protectionist, as to which we have only to say that though Mr. Cleveland cannot, if he would, give the country free trade, Mr. Harrison is the true candidate of those who want more tariff taxation. In the fourth place, Mr. Cleveland is a gold-bug, while this editor believes in free coinage, indicating that he hopes for better treatment for silver at the hands of Mr. Harrison than at those of Mr. Cleveland. In the fifth place, Mr. Cleveland believes in reforming the civil service, the editor holding to the doctrine that the spoils belong to the victors, and therefore preferring Mr. Harrison. In the sixth place, Mr. Cleveland vetoed the Pension Bill which Mr. Harrison signed, and which will cost the country thousands of millions of dollars before we are through with it. Finally, the Irish dynamite element detests Mr. Cleveland, and so do the adherents of Tammany Hall, both these elements preferring Harrison.

It is doubtful if a stronger array of arguments in favor of Mr. Cleveland's election has been presented by any of his supporters than this which the *Tribune* lays before its readers as matter for encouragement to Republicans. They are invited to exult in their candidate because he is a submissive party man, because the most cultivated element in the community does not admire him, because he may sign some silver bill satisfactory to the free-coinage faction, because he is no civil-service reformer, and because he will attract the votes of the O'Donovan Rossas and of the adherents of David B. Hill. This is one of the most extraordinary combinations of attractions that have ever been offered to the *Tribune's* constituency, and, were it not for the saving feature of Mr. Harrison's undoubted protectionism, we should incline to the opinion that many worthy people, upon perusal of the Kansas editor's encomium, would decide to cast their votes for Mr. Cleveland.

The unique religious convention which held its sessions in this city last week was very much in evidence by force of numbers, if nothing else. There was something comic in the persistent incredulity with which hotel proprietors and railroad managers received the requests made of them to provide accommodations for an army of thirty thousand delegates. They had apparently measured the affair by the standard of the dwindling "May anniversaries" and other religious gatherings of the sort, and almost too late woke up to the fact that the enthusiastic and irrepressible young men and women of the Christian Endeavor Society meant what they said when they declared their intention of descending upon this city in midsummer 30,000 strong. The result has been that railroad trains have been crowded and stalled and hotels and boarding-houses taxed in a wholly unprecedented way. Moreover, the youthful vigor and high spirits of the delegates, and the hearty and unquestioning faith which they displayed in the power of their organization to conquer all obstacles, united to make them an altogether new species of attendants on a religious convention. A hardened politician is reported to have said, as he saw delegation after delegation of blooming maidens file down the street: "I tell you that if the Christian Endeavor Society continues to send such delightful specimens of young American womanhood into New York, they will own this town."

Everybody must sympathize with the young ardor and uncalculating devotion thus banded together for worthy purposes, and also be glad of all the good the Society has undoubtedly accomplished. Yet we presume that it will scarcely bring on the millennium prematurely, or will, in the long run, take a place in the religious history of our times as anything more than one of the long list of organizations supplementary to church work and life. We think, too, that those thoughtful people within the churches who have gravely questioned some of the Society's methods, have not been without reason for their doubts. The Society has probably owed a large part of its success to the social attractions it offers to young people in the churches, who have found in it a new outlet for the youthful spirits which the popular religion of two generations ago aimed to suppress, but to which church life nowadays seems bound to give play to the full. The rise of such a society to such power as it now has, witnesses to profound modifications in the prevalent religious conceptions. Conservative church people may be pardoned for doubting whether the new impulsive type of Christian character promises as stable and reasoned a religious faith and practice as were the fruit of older methods. Moreover, it is the testimony of some who have watched the workings of the Society from the inside, that the rule requiring every member to speak or pray at its meetings results too often in a forced and formal religiosity unpleasant to contemplate, in the young above all. Such things as their "sunrise prayer-meetings" at six o'clock in the morning seem either to speak of a desire to have a frolic in connection with such a service, or to lean to the notion which attaches special merit to vigils and ascetic practices. However, we do not suppose that such defects in the organization prevented anybody from perceiving its good qualities, or from taking a kindly interest in what was, in some ways, the most remarkable religious gathering ever held in this city.

The expiration this year of copyright on four famous novels comes to illustrate afresh the ethics of international practice in respect of literary property. 'The Scarlet Letter' went out of copyright early in the present year, and two or three cheap editions promptly appeared on the American market. In England, however, the event passed without notice, as the book had long since yielded the English pirate all the booty that could be wrung from it. On the other hand, American publishers are not affected by the knowledge that copyright on 'David Copperfield,' 'Pendennis,' and 'Alton Locke' ends with this year. Each of those volumes has been so freely appropriated in this country that the cessation of the author's rights in it will not influence its future price with us.

But in England, where might has not been right in this matter, a keen competition is looked for among publishers, several of whom are understood to be prepared to flood the market, at the earliest moment allowed by law, with cheap editions of the popular books mentioned.

It is impossible to appreciate to its full extent the calamity at St. Johns without noticing the fact that for all trading and distributing purposes that city was the colony of Newfoundland. In population alone the city comprised one-fifth of the colony's total inhabitants, and the appeals for relief estimate that the fire which swept the city on Saturday rendered homeless nearly half of its inhabitants. Such a stroke as this would be ruinous to a prosperous and growing community, but, as it happens, the colony of Newfoundland has for years been struggling with adversity. The codfish trade, the mainstay of Newfoundland's industry, has been falling off, and fishermen must nowadays sail a long distance out on the Banks, or up to the coast of Labrador, in order to get the fish that have deserted the near-by waters. The colony's debt has been rapidly increasing, and the railroad, in whose construction the debt was incurred, has thus far failed altogether to bring about the promised development of the interior. In 1886 Mr. Harvey, the geological expert of the colony, prepared at the Ministry's request an ingenious pamphlet setting forth the colony's great resources in coal, timber, and farming lands. The hopes aroused by its publication have been completely disappointed. The coal and forests and arable soil are all there, and in some future stage of the continent's history may be of immense value, but there is clearly no profit in working them now. Crown lands within easy distance of the city were offered to anybody who would clear them, at thirty cents an acre, but in the face of this offer emigration from the colony has grown steadily larger. The worst effects of the great fire are likely to come from the permanent giving up of their local business by the merchants of St. Johns.

The borough and such of the county elections as have been thus far held in Great Britain seem to indicate that Gladstone cannot secure a large and trustworthy majority in the new Parliament, and that the best he can now hope for is a narrow margin in his favor. Moreover, this small majority, if he finally secures it, will be composed of heterogeneous elements, and cannot be depended upon for effective support. It is perfectly obvious that home rule has lost much of its former hold on the public mind, and it is exceedingly doubtful whether Gladstone will be able to carry through any home-rule measure. The Irish cause has lost ground steadily ever since the first unsavory disclosures regarding Parnell were made, and the succession of bitter and bloody quarrels among his original followers ever since his downfall has disgusted many who at first were inclined to favor home rule. Even among those who still believe that home rule is wise, necessary, and inevitable, the old enthusiasm in its favor has steadily grown cool, until their equanimity will not be greatly disturbed if it should prove that it must be again postponed. While the analogy is, of course, not complete, the feeling in many minds regarding this issue has come to resemble much that which characterizes many Northern people in this country regarding negro suffrage in the South—a mood in which they frankly concede that theoretically the blacks ought to rule where they have a majority, but practically they are not disposed to complain if this right is denied them so long as they seem so unfit as now to exercise it. It must be said, however, that Parnellism as a brute force has nearly reached the vanishing point, only five members of Parliament remaining, and two of these being due to Tory help.

Among the most striking results of the recent municipal elections in France was the success of the Socialists in several important cities. They are put in complete power at Marseilles, Roubaix, Toulon, Narbonne, and Toulouse. What they think of their victory may be gathered from the terms of one of their posters, reproduced in a French paper:

"It means that Labor is at last conscious of its power and rights, and is decided to enforce them, crying out to its exploiters: 'Your reign is ended. It is I, who produce all, who should administer all; first the Commune, afterwards the State.'"

In keeping with this is the declaration of the Socialist Mayor-elect of Roubaix, who said to a reporter: "We are going to put in force, as far as possible, the programme of the Workingman's Congress at Lyons, which all the candidates on the workingman's ticket signed and which secured them their election." Asked if he thought the entire programme capable of realization, he replied that he did, and that he was convinced that it would be in force "in its entirety" before the end of his term of office, and that "to the great satisfaction of our fellow-citizens." This programme, it will be remembered, calls, among many other things, for one free meal a day for children in the public schools, and a semi-annual distribution to them of shoes and clothing; an eight hours' day, with a minimum of wages to be fixed by the City Council; free medical treatment, and drugs at "reduced prices"; free legal advice from judges in all "litigation interesting workingmen"; free lodging and food for "travellers and laborers without a fixed residence in search of work." We should say that the enforcement of a programme containing such features would bring about the greatest "satisfaction" on the part of all the Mayor's fellow-citizens who never pay any taxes.

Some of the difficulties in the practical application of "Imperial Socialism" in Germany are considered by Mr. J. G. Brooks in the *Economic Journal* for June. Under the new system of State insurance, laborers who are sick are entitled to sick-pay, and this provision is apparently having a deleterious influence upon the health of the community. Where there is a motive for being sick it is very easy to imagine a slight feeling of discomfort to be a symptom of serious illness, and furthermore the very act of attending to imagined symptoms of disease tends to make them real. Accordingly, a great amount of "simulating" is reported as taking place among the German laborers, and all sorts of remedies for the evil are proposed. Some authorities recommend that doctors who are found to be soft-hearted should not be allowed to certify as to sickness, but there are obvious objections to such odious comparisons as this. Another proposal is to reduce the amount of sick-pay, but this would be to punish the really sick for the sins of the malingerers; and, besides, the testimony of the doctors who report upon this practice of simulation is that an extremely minute pension, provided it can be depended on, is a sufficient inducement to make some men shirk labor. Some of the physicians report a startling amount of this feigned illness among workmen, varying from 10 to 25 per cent. of the cases examined.

Mr. Brooks quotes many expressions of opinion from the physicians and officers engaged in administering the law that indicate its fundamental weakness. It might almost be laid down as a principle of human nature that no one will support himself if he finds that others will do it for him. What is more remarkable than this increase of feigned sickness is that of accidents. The doctrine of "contributory negligence" not being applied under the new law, the number of accidents, in spite of the introduction of safeguards for dangerous machinery, tends to increase. The general impression derived from Mr. Brooks's extended study of the situation is that while it may be practicable for trade unions, the members of which are directly interested in guarding against fraudulent claims for illness, to check those who are disposed to cheat, this task cannot be performed by the general Government. This lesson is offered to the English by Mr. Brooks in view of the State pensioning schemes that are in so much favor there; but it seems probable that nothing will satisfy those who advocate these measures except their own experience. If that of other nations were regarded, we might suggest an inquiry into the operation of our pension law, under which most of our old soldiers have discovered that it is impossible to earn their own living, and now seem to believe that the country owes them support whether they are able to earn it or not.

THE MERITS OF THE HOMESTEAD TROUBLE.

HARDLY any one who recollects the principal struggles of recent years between workmen and their employers can have failed to be struck with the extent to which the Homestead laborers have obtained the sympathy of the classes socially above them. At the time of the difficulty between the Knights of Labor and the officers of the New York Central Railroad two years ago no such sympathy was felt. When the Reading Railroad and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad had their struggles with their men, the sentiment of the well-to-do was on the side of the corporations. The same may be said of the coal-heavers' strike at Hoboken, of the recent pavers' strike, and of the lockout of the housesmiths. The issues in the present strife are not different, to the superficial view, from those of these previous controversies, but it is apparent that in this case the employers receive at the most a rather grudging recognition of their legal rights, while the strong support of an earnest public opinion is denied them.

What is the cause of this different attitude of the public? So far as the employers are concerned we do not see that anything is said against their treatment of their men. The village of Homestead is described as made up largely of houses owned by their workmen, their mills are fitted with all the most improved contrivances for manufacturing steel with the minimum of human exertion, they have recognized the great union of their men, the Amalgamated Association, and they have for a long time accepted a scale of wages satisfactory to this union. These wages, too, are apparently very high. The table given in the *American Manufacturer* shows wages ranging from two dollars up to more than fourteen dollars for twelve hours' work. In some of the Pittsburgh bar-mills, it may be said in corroboration of these figures, the proprietors report the average wages of rollers as over fifteen dollars a day. These wages have been increased in recent years by improvements in machinery that make labor more effective; and though they may increase indefinitely with the price of the product, they do not fall when it falls below a certain point. The reduction of this minimum was justified by the steady decline in the price of steel; it affected in any event not more than one-tenth of the men at the Homestead works, and even after this reduction the wages earned will generally, owing to the increased output, be greater than when the scale was signed. The only other point involved was a change in the date when the scale should expire, the employers, for business reasons, desiring the beginning of the calendar year, the men preferring the 30th of June, because they regard it as a more favorable time for a strike should they decide upon one. But, accepting the contention of the men, there was certainly nothing outrageous in the claim of the masters.

On the other hand, the workmen present no argument in justification of their action, of any validity either at law or in morals. They practically assert that the mills are their property, and not the property of those whose money built them. They profess to be protecting this property, but by preventing the owners from using it they destroy its value. It is not the material substance that gives its value to property, but the use that is made of it, and so far as making use of the property at Homestead is concerned, the owners of it would be as well off with a grant of land in the moon. The motive of this action on the part of the men is to make it impossible for any man to work in these mills unless they give him permission. This work they have monopolized through their Union, and they mean to maintain their monopoly. In acting upon this motive they fired upon the Pinkerton men—for it seems to be clear that the first shots came from the shore—and thereby took life without justification. They were where they had no legal right to be; they fired without the excuse which the law recognizes, and the best that they can say for themselves is that they were acting in defence of a claim to deprive rich men of their property and poor men of their right to labor. The Pinkerton men, on the other hand, were lawfully landing upon ground which they were employed by the owners to guard, and they fired only in self-defence. That they can honestly plead that they were in fear of their lives is amply shown by their subsequent fate, which rivals in horror that of the captives taken by our aborigines in their wars. Upon the whole, it must be said that the conduct of these Homestead workmen is utterly unjustifiable legally, and atrocious morally; all that can be said for them being that they have not been guilty of the crowning folly of destroying the works which have furnished them support.

How comes it, then, that these men have secured so large a measure of public sympathy? We believe it to be because the country is at last awakening to the infamous abuses which go on under the name of "protection." With a misguided patriotism, our people have consented to a fiscal system supposed to enable struggling industries to get a foothold in this country, and they now see that their mistaken generosity has resulted in putting the Government into the hands of a ring of enormously wealthy and wholly unscrupulous men. Protection is very well as a theory; but every one knows that what it means in the concrete is that a number of manufacturers agree upon such a tax as they think will compel their fellow-citizens to stop buying foreign goods and buy of them, which agreement is enacted by Congress. The people are induced to tolerate this sort of legislation by the claim of the manufacturers that it is intended for the benefit of their workmen, and this claim, in common estimation, establishes a partnership between these parties. The implied terms of this partnership are that the profits derived by the manufacturers from tariff legislation shall be shared with their men; and when manufacturers fall back upon their legal rights and say that they will discharge whom they please, and employ whom they please, and pay what wages they please, the feeling is irrepressible that they are stating their true position, and that their plea for American laborers was a mean and contemptible pretence, designed simply to enable them to enrich themselves by utilizing the credulous patriotism of the American people.

Upon this point Congressman O'Neill of St. Louis makes some observations that deserve the attention of protectionists. He says:

"Some of the newspapers fling at Senator Palmer because he said that the men had a right to employment. Now, haven't they, if this theory of protection amounts to anything? The high-tariff men say their tariff is to protect American laborers. Why haven't the laborers a right to demand the benefits of protection if it is kept up for them? If the country passes laws for the avowed purpose of protecting labor, why can't it see that the men reap part of the results?"

The sympathy felt for the Homestead laborers, therefore, is due to a feeling that their employers pleaded a partnership with them when they persuaded the people to tax themselves for the benefit of their business, and repudiated it when it came to the division of the spoils. But there is more in the matter than this. It shows the miserable results of the fundamental principle of protection, that the Government is to be used to benefit one class of citizens at the expense of another. The power in the hands of men of great wealth is already so great as to be regarded with jealousy, and when this power is employed, as for more than thirty years it has been employed by the ironmasters of Pennsylvania, to regulate the fiscal policy of the United States in their own interest, it becomes detestable.

SENATOR PALMER ON THE RIGHTS OF LABOR.

THE Senate took up the Homestead riot as a subject of discussion on Thursday, on a motion of Senator Peffer to appoint a select committee of three to investigate Pinkerton and the Pinkerton men "since their first appearance in the United States to the present time." In the course of the debate Senator Palmer of Illinois took very advanced positions on the labor question, which must lead him into the ranks of the Bellamy nationalists if he is not there already. This is rather surprising to people in the East, who had come to regard Mr. Palmer as rather conservative in his ways of thinking, he having voted against the disorganizing schemes of the silver-men in the Senate, and having taken the decisive step at Chicago which made the nomination of Cleveland certain. It becomes necessary to examine Mr. Palmer's arguments in detail, and see whether they are supported by the facts of the workaday world, and

where they would lead us if they were carried into execution.

The first thing that strikes us as open to objection, or wholly condemnable, is the Senator's habit of sheering away from his own conclusions as soon as he comes in sight of them, and taking refuge in glittering generalities of speech. Thus, after contending powerfully for the laborer's right to be hired and to remain in the service of the employer he has chosen—this being, as he acknowledges, a new class of rights springing out of the changed relations of men and things—he does not tell us where the laborers' pay, or the manufacturers' profit, if any, is to come from, or how either the one or the other is to be ascertained and adjusted. Upon these points he takes refuge in the phrases "reasonable compensation" and "reasonable profits," as though there were standards on file somewhere by which these could be determined, and also resources out of which they could be paid. Senator Palmer knows, as a lawyer, that all disputes about reasonableness which cannot be settled privately by the parties must go before a jury. Therefore his idea is that the new order of things that has been ushered in lately, requires a jury trial to determine the reasonableness of both wages and profits.

The Bellamy Nationalist party, anticipating the law's delay in such cases, knowing that the laborers might starve and the manufacturers be ruined while waiting for the verdict, have run ahead and lodged in the central government the whole power to regulate these matters. Seeing, furthermore, that no power can compel an employer to pay what he has not got, or for that matter what he says he has not, they provide that the Government shall so regulate all employment at the fountain-head that there will be just enough of everything produced to satisfy all reasonable wants and nothing over, and so that all shall be willing to work the requisite number of hours per day at the particular trades requisite to satisfy all wants. The Bellamy programme is at least comprehensible. That it is unworkable on any such planet as that on which our lot is cast is the opinion of all the recognized thinkers who have taken the trouble to look into it, but it is at least possible to see what it means and where it brings us. This is more than can be said for Senator Palmer's plan. The Socratic dialogue, if applied to him, would drive him straight into the Bellamy camp or into that of the Socialists of the school of Marx. When once there, he would be asked to show where the State is to find means to pay the workman's reasonable compensation, or the wonderful men to work the complicated machine by which all persons are to have their reasonable wants satisfied.

These would not be the only questions confronting the honorable Senator. Some people would want to know at what precise time, or about what time, the new order of things was ushered in by virtue of which the Homestead rioters had a right to take possession of the property after they had struck or been locked out. Upon this point Mr. Palmer was more emphatic than lucid, saying:

"I maintain, therefore, that at the time of the assault upon these people at Homestead they were where they had a right to be; they were upon ground they had a right to defend. Do you ask me if these men may by force take possession of the property of another? No. They were conducting themselves in the line of their rights, as I understand them. Business was suspended, and these men were simply awaiting a settlement of the disputed questions between them and their employers.

"Mark me! I maintain the right of owners of property to operate it at their will. I maintain the right of the operative to assist in its operation. I maintain the right of both parties to reasonable compensation for their services. I maintain the right of these laborers to continuous employment, dependent not up on the will alone of the employer, but dependent on the good conduct of the employees."

If there is such a thing as the right to seize other people's property and to commit an assault, it must be of very recent birth. Indeed, we gather from the telegraphic report of Mr. Palmer's speech that these rights are still inchoate, but are on the point of being established. Whether they are to be fixed by act of Congress or of the several State Legislatures, or by judicial decision, or by common consent, is still uncertain. It is to be hoped that when the time comes for defining them, they will not be restricted to operatives in iron mills, but will be made general, so that, for instance, if the hired men in a harvest field or on a cotton plantation are not satisfied with their wages, or if their employer discharges them for any reason, they will have the right to seize the farm and commit an assault on the farmer's family. Such rights could not be restricted to any class without producing a hateful aristocracy. The waiters in a dining-room ought to have the right to seize the hotel, subject, of course, to the owner's right to keep it and operate it in his own way. These two rights, being somewhat conflicting in any imaginable state of the law, the result would probably be a smashing of the crockery and a bill for damages. Who ought to pay the bill would be a difficult question to answer, but not more difficult than a hundred others that Senator Palmer raises.

OUR VARIEGATED CURRENCY.

THE letter from the *Evening Post's* London financial correspondent which appeared on Saturday, describing the apprehension felt in that city about the effects of our silver laws, showed a certain confusion in regard to our silver paper money, which is shared to a large extent in this country. The letter said: "We should like to know whether these 'legal tenders' (of the New York reserve banks) are silver certificates or solely greenbacks." The answer is, that what are technically "silver certificates" are not a legal tender. But it is probable that the London idea of a "silver certificate" includes the "Treasury notes" issued under the Silver Law of 1890. The so-called Bland Bill of 1878 provided that the holder of silver dollars issued under that act (the dollars being legal tender) may deposit them with the United States Treasurer or any Assistant Treasurer and receive in exchange "certificates," which shall be receivable "for customs, taxes, and all public dues." These are the technical "silver certificates," and there are outstanding of them $326,680,803.

The law of 1890 provides that the silver purchased by the Treasury under that law shall be paid for with "silver bullion Treasury notes." These notes are made a full legal tender, and it is provided that, "when held by any national banking association, they may be counted as a part of its lawful reserve." There are outstanding of these notes $98,051,657. It is these "treasury notes," probably, which the London financiers have in mind in the connection referred to. It may be added that the law provides that these notes shall be redeemed on presentation "in gold or silver coin." This is supplemented by the statement that it is "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such ratio as may be provided by law." Then comes the further statement that after July 1, 1891, only so much of the silver purchased under the act shall be coined "as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes." Moreover, the Treasury Department issues "United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes," and these certificates may be, and in fact are, issued on the deposit of greenbacks or of silver Treasury notes under the act of 1890, or of mixed parcels of both. There are about $16,000,000 of these certificates in the bank reserves of the whole country.

A glance at our variegated currency, now and then, is a useful lesson, both in economic science and in the evolution of public opinion. It consists of the following things:

(1.) Gold coin. This is the foundation of the whole. Everything else rests upon it, including the standard silver dollar. The gold dollar is the "unit of value," and the only one known to the law. The meaning of the phrase "unit of value," since the silver dollar was reintroduced into our coinage in 1878, seems to be restricted to custom-house valuations, the rating of foreign coins, and other technical matters. Inasmuch as gold is the only thing in our variegated currency that stands on its own bottom, it results that gold bullion answers the same purpose as gold coin for monetary uses.

(2.) Standard silver dollars. There are about $60,000,000 of these in actual circulation, answering the same purpose as small notes. The remainder of the silver dollars, about $347,000,000, are held in the Government storehouses, most of them being represented by—

(3.) Silver certificates. According to the latest report there were, as stated above, $326,680,803 of these in circulation, and there can be no more of them. These pieces of paper are not legal tender.

(4.) Greenbacks. These are the legal-tender notes issued during the war, amounting now to $346,681,016, of which about $100,000,000 are held by the national banks as a part of their reserves. No more can be issued.

(5.) Legal tender notes under the act of 1890. These are issued in payment for silver bullion bought by the Government under said act at the rate of 4,500,000 ounces per month. With silver selling at 87 cents per ounce, the monthly output of notes would be about $3,900,000. This is a continuing operation. The whole amount at present is, as we have said, $98,051,657.

(6.) National-bank notes. These amount to $167,000,000, or thereabouts. They are not legal tender between individuals, but are such at all national banks, each bank being required to receive them at par for any indebtedness due to itself.

(7.) Gold certificates and legal-tender certificates. Not in general circulation. They are issued by the Treasury on the deposit of gold, or of either kind of legal-tender notes, for the convenience of banks.

(8.) Subsidiary coins. These it is not necessary to describe. They include everything less than a dollar that circulates as money. They are not legal tender beyond five dollars. The Treasury redeems them in legal-tender money whenever requested to do so.

The act of 1890, as already said, declares that it is the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other. This amounts to a direction to the Secretary of the Treasury to redeem everything that comes to him for redemption in gold, except the notes of solvent national banks. When a bank becomes insolvent, he must redeem its notes also.

Inasmuch as the whole structure rests upon gold, the question may be asked, Why do we have all these variations of currency? Why not have what other nations have, viz., gold and bank notes, or gold, Government notes and bank notes? The answer is that we have had a majority of members of Congress during the past fourteen years who have imagined that taking gold from the people by taxation to buy silver bullion with, and then coining this bullion into dollars and selling them back to the people at 100 cents each in gold, would cause the people to have more money in their pockets. This is the cause of our variegated currency. The experiment has been tried so long, and with such disappointing results in the way of filling people's pockets, that some observers think the end of it is not far distant.

THE BURDENS OF THE PRESIDENT.

It is disappointing, in view of Secretary Tracy's commendable action concerning appointments in the Brooklyn Navy-yard, to find him making a long speech upon the duties of the President without referring to the relief that might be had through a reformed civil service. Perhaps Secretary Tracy is too honest and too loyal to express views that might seem to reflect upon the practices of his chief, but he certainly failed to recognize the irresistible suggestion of his facts. He computes the number of postmasters to be appointed by the President at over 3,000, and the total number of offices to be filled by him at 4,556. The Presidential post-offices fall vacant at the rate of 800 a year—Secretary Tracy does not estimate how many of these are due to partisan removals—and for every office there are as a rule many applicants. The next President will have to fill on an average more than four offices on every business day during his term, which certainly ought to leave him time to do nothing else.

But the President, after considering the merits of a dozen or twenty applicants for office daily, must during the year pass upon some 550 applications in behalf of citizens who desire to have not more to do with the Government, but less—the petitioners for pardon. He had also to inform himself during the Fiftieth Congress concerning the 1,824 acts and resolutions which that body submitted for his approval. His duties in connection with the Cabinet are not insignificant, as may easily be imagined if we think of President Harrison repressing the warlike ardor of Secretary Tracy, gently correcting the errors of taste of Postmaster-General Wanamaker, or diplomatically guiding the exuberant impetuosity of Mr. Blaine. He must, in theory at least, feel a certain responsibility for committing the expenditure of a hundred and twenty or thirty millions a year to the hands of Corporal Tanner and Gen. Green B. Raum. He must, if required, shake hands with every American citizen who visits Washington; he must give and attend dinners and receptions, must occasionally write a letter, go to church, inquire after the health of his family, and if possible secure a little time for sleep.

With slight exception, Secretary Tracy's suggestions of relief do not seem to be of a nature to lead to any improvement in the Government. It might be practicable to allow applications for pardon to be disposed of according to the recommendation of the Attorney-General, but we do not see how this practice can be constitutional. It is probable that as a matter of fact these applications are disposed of in some such way, but it would require a constitutional amendment to give the practice legislative approval. Much the same may be said of the practice of accepting the recommendations of heads of departments and others specially informed as to appointments to office and as to the merits of statutes. This is done now because it is impossible for the public business to be done in any other way, but it cannot be formally recognized by legislation without conflicting with the letter of the Constitution.

As to the proposal that the appointment of officers to the Presidential post-offices should be made not by the President but by a subordinate, the remedy is worse than the disease. So long as the President can be held directly responsible, some kind of decency in the matter of removals and appointments may be exacted by public opinion. But if the President is able to say to an indignant citizen, "I have nothing to do with these matters; you must go and see Mr. Clarkson about them," reform will be impossible. Responsibility would be effectively divided, and where it is divided it does not exist. To adopt this measure would be to increase enormously the power of the party organization, which is the very power that intelligent reformers all over the country are doing their best to limit.

The true line that reform should take is indicated by the circumstances of the case. It is physically impossible that President Harrison should have direct personal acquaintance with the citizens of Texas and Oregon and Maine. If he has to appoint a postmaster in one of the towns of these States, he is necessarily obliged to consult with some of their citizens in order to learn the qualifications of applicants. The most convenient way to do is to act on the recommendation of Representatives or Senators from the different States. They at least know something of the applicants, while the President knows nothing. The practice is convenient, and, from a party point of view, desirable; but the objections to it are notorious. Yet unless some other practicable means of enabling the President to judge of the merits of applicants is devised, the present system will continue.

The remedy is not far to seek. First, the four years' law should be repealed, so that vacancies should not exist until there is a real need for a change. Then, when new postmasters are required, let them be nominated by the people directly interested. The Post-office would be quite as well served by men chosen by the people who come in daily contact with them as by men selected for political considerations, and it admits of no question that in towns of moderate size intelligence is sufficiently advanced to prevent the general recommendation of unsuitable postmasters. Other functionaries have little to do with the people, but the postmaster meets them daily face to face. They are personally interested in the selection of such functionaries, and they are entitled to have something to say about it. It is frequently the case that appointments are determined by the petition of persons using a particular office, and all that is necessary is to regulate this practice by law. The Department should be left free to refuse an appointment for

specified reasons, but in default of these the appointment should go to such men as are desired in particular localities. The requirement of a proper bond and the retention of the right of dismissal for cause would protect the interest of the Government, and the right of petition for the removal as well as the appointment of postmasters would protect the people.

THREE YEARS OF REPUBLICAN FINANCIERING.

THE 30th of June brought to a close the third year of control of the national finances by the Republican party since its last accession to power. A review of the financial methods and results which have marked this period of three years is naturally suggested at this time.

The great question which troubled Secretaries Manning and Fairchild and, for a time, Windom, was, what to do with the enormous Treasury surplus; the thing that puzzles Secretary Foster is, how to stave off a little longer a Treasury deficit. On June 30, 1889, the surplus available cash in the Treasury was $127,000,000; on June 30, 1892, Mr. Foster reports his net cash balance at $26,692,377, of which $14,224,714 is in unavailable subsidiary coin. The surplus is gone, sure enough. Fairchild's $127,000,000, together with $247,000,000 of surplus added in three years and the $54,000,000 of the bank-note redemption fund turned over to the Treasury by the law of July 14, 1890, has come down to $12,000,000; and how even that narrow balance on the right side has been artificially obtained we shall presently show. The Republicans have found the surplus so much "easier to handle than a deficit," in Col. Fred Grant's historic phrase, that it has altogether disappeared under their expert manipulation, and they will soon have a chance to try their skill on a deficit.

In his annual report for 1887, Mr. Fairchild passed in review the various expedients for preventing taxation from exceeding the expenditures of the Government. He mentioned: purchase of the interest-bearing debt, larger expenditures by Government, reduction of taxes. To the first he gave a qualified approval, as the main instrument then within the power of the Secretary of the Treasury, pointing out, however, that the apparent saving of interest was really a losing transaction to the people, "the measure of loss being the difference between the worth of the use of the money to them and the interest saved on the bonds cancelled." He proceeded:

> "I cannot believe that unselfish statesmanship will adopt the second expedient, viz., the enlargement of Government expenses simply to expend money raised by taxation, when the public weal does not otherwise call for the expenditure. Every dollar taken by taxation from the man who has it employed in a business which the natural wants of the community call for, and carried into the Treasury, even if at once paid out again to satisfy obligations created by law in excess of the healthy needs of the Government, is a dollar used to misemploy labor and to impoverish the people."

His natural conclusion was that reduction of the revenue from taxation "is the only fit remedy for the evils which threaten the country."

What methods have the Republicans followed in their too successful reduction of the Treasury surplus? First, the purchase of national bonds. They chose that means in spite of the fact that Secretary Windom, in his first annual report—that for 1889—declared that "it is manifestly wrong to take money from the people for the cancellation of bonds, to the saving of only about 2 per cent. of interest, when it is worth to them perhaps three times as much in their business. It is rather through a reduction of customs receipts and internal taxes that an unnecessary accumulation of money in the Treasury should be avoided." Between March 4, 1889, and October 31, Mr. Windom purchased bonds to the amount of more than $66,000,000. During the fiscal year 1889–90 he bought about $100,000,000 more. In the year 1890–91, $134,000,000 additional was paid out for the same purpose. In this way we account for the disappearance of about two-thirds of the surplus of over $400,000,000, of which the Republicans have had the disposal. The rest has gone in that "enlargement of Government expenses" which Secretary Fairchild could not believe in 1887 would be adopted by "unselfish statesmanship" as an expedient for getting rid of the surplus. The total ordinary expenditures of 1888–'89 were $281,996,615; of 1891–'92, $361,348,669. Moreover, in the former year all appropriations were paid; in the latter, according to Senator Allison, $87,000,000 of the appropriations remain unpaid. In 1888–'89, civil and miscellaneous expenses were $73,000,000; three years later, $99,000,000. Then the pension bill was $87,000,000; last year it was $134,000,000, and next it will be $160,000,000. These two items show the main and unjustifiable increase; in the others—the outlay on the army and navy and the Indian service—the advance has been no greater, perhaps, than the growth of the country called for.

Secretary Fairchild's last estimate of income and expenditures and consequent surplus proved so accurate as to extort a compliment from his Republican successor in the Treasury Department. Last December Secretary Foster estimated the surplus at the end of the fiscal year at $24,000,000. He was only $28,000,000 out of the way, as his surplus turned out to be a deficit of over $4,000,000. A slight mistake like that will not disconcert a man of Mr. Foster's make-up, who is rather disposed to dwell upon the immense success of his efforts to stave off the payment of $87,000,000 more, for which the laws have made the Treasury liable. The bills for that amount will finally be presented and must be paid; but he comforts himself by reflecting that perhaps the election will be over by that time, and then it will make no difference.

It is only fair to say that the force of the argument which might be made against the Republican party for its extravagance and incompetence in financial matters has been impaired, for Democratic uses, by the record of the present House. Its monstrous River and Harbor Bill is a piece of indefensible extravagance. Yet, when all is said, apart from this item the appropriations by this Congress have been as economical as possible under existing laws. The pension laws call for an appropriation of $150,000,000, and so long as no one can be found with nerve and patriotism enough to bring about a repeal of the wasteful and demoralizing provisions of those laws, there is nothing to do but to vote the millions demanded. Some other pieces of extravagant Republican legislation were deliberately made a "continuing appropriation," for the express purpose of fastening the expenses they entail upon a Democratic House. For the last year the total amount of such permanent appropriations was $122,486,808. Add that compulsory sum to a compulsory pension bill of $150,000,000, and there is not much margin left for economy.

THE BRITISH ELECTIONS.

THE London constituencies, Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Hull, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Nottingham, Salford, Sheffield, and Wolverhampton, being all the places which, under the existing distribution of seats, return more than two members each, will be represented in the new Parliament by sixty-seven Conservative or Liberal Unionists, as against forty-five Home Rule Liberals. The figures show a great change of sentiment since the time, not so many years ago, when the large cities were, with few exceptions, Liberal strongholds, constant to the party even when the rest of the country decided against it. After the Tories, under the leadership of Mr. Disraeli, in 1868, by extending the borough franchise, took their "leap in the dark," the cities above named, being then entitled to forty-eight members, returned no less than thirty-nine Liberals and only nine Conservatives. Of course the secession of the Liberal-Unionists on the Irish question has been in part responsible for the change in sentiment that results in the return of what is practically a Tory majority from places which, less than a quarter of a century ago, sent to the House more than four Liberals for every Conservative.

In some places the opposition to home rule has operated with most disastrous results to the Liberal cause. In Birmingham it has wrought a literal revolution. Prior to 1886, the Radical metropolis of the Midlands had never returned a Conservative to Parliament. So overwhelming was their majority that its Liberals were able, in spite of the device to secure minority representation contained in the Reform Act of 1868, to elect at every one of the three general

elections held while that act was in force all three members. Even in 1885 the Liberals polled 33,000 votes to 23,000 cast for the Conservatives—that is to say, as late as seven years ago it was relatively about as strongly Liberal as New York city is Democratic. Yet every representative in the new House, as in the one just dissolved, will be a supporter of the Salisbury Government, and in the five divisions in which alone the Liberals ventured to make a contest, the Unionists polled 29,000 votes, as against but 13,000 cast for the Gladstonian candidates.

Still, strong as the Liberal-Unionists are in particular localities, their strength is by no means generally diffused, and it is usually great only in constituencies in which the united Liberal party formerly had a heavy majority. In many Conservative neighborhoods the Liberals are stronger than they were before the home-rule controversy arose. Warwickshire furnishes a curious illustration of this fact. There are, inclusive of the seven of Birmingham, ten borough seats in this county. In 1885 they returned 9 Liberals and 1 Conservative. In 1892 they returned 9 Unionists and 1 Liberal, and the lone Liberal comes from the same constituency which in 1885 returned the solitary Tory. The Liberals, overwhelmed everywhere else, have "gone to Coventry" and captured the borough from the Tories, who in 1885, when themselves as unpopular in the neighboring constituencies as the Liberals now are, found there a refuge.

Exclusive of Birmingham, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, the Liberals in 1892 carry in the large cities three more seats than they did in 1885. Outside of the three places named, prior to 1885, other causes than Liberal differences as to Ireland must have been at work to reduce the Liberal strength. One of the first evidences of a coming change of opinion in the great centres of population was shown when in 1874 the City of London first became definitely Conservative—a faith in which it has since become more and more confirmed. It was principally due to this loss of the City that, even in 1880, Mr. Gladstone did not get quite as many seats in the larger places as he had done twelve years before when his majority in the country as a whole was smaller. Still, in 1880 he carried 37 such seats, as against but 11 held by Tories. The Redistribution Act of 1885 more than doubled the representatives of these places, increasing the number from 48 to 112. Had political opinion in them remained unchanged, this increase of their representatives would have added greatly to the Liberal strength. In fact, however, it had precisely the opposite effect, and instead of a Liberal majority among their members of Parliament of more than three to one, as in 1880, the Conservatives actually returned 59 members as against but 53 Liberals. Some seats were lost by the transfer, under Mr. Parnell's orders, of the Irish vote from the Liberals to the Tories; but, allowing for such losses, it is obvious that between 1880 and 1885 there must have been a great change in the political opinions of very many of the voters in these cities.

Whatever was the cause—whether it was disapproval of Mr. Gladstone's management of foreign affairs, the increasing popularity of the Tory Democracy, or what not—the effect was indisputable, and was not confined to the larger places. The British boroughs in 1880 gave a Liberal majority of 149, and in 1885 cut it down to 28. Had not the enfranchisement of the agricultural laborers brought about an equally striking counter revolution in the counties in which the Conservative majority of 35 in 1880 was turned into a Liberal majority of 75 in 1885, Mr. Gladstone would have been defeated in the latter year almost as signally as he defeated the Earl of Beaconsfield in the former. This change in the political complexion of the boroughs seems likely to be a permanent one. In the new Parliament, although the Unionist majority of 88 in them in 1886 will be reduced to about 18, there will still be, as compared with 1885, a loss of 23 seats counting 46 on a division, and of no less than 80 seats as compared with 1880.

The elections give new proof that, in Anglo-Saxon countries at least, the size and enthusiasm of public meetings and the extent to which the streets are thronged with cheering thousands furnish no safe indications of the real drift of opinion among the great mass of the quiet voters. Never was Mr. Gladstone more enthusiastically received in Edinburgh than during the campaign just closing, and yet the result of the polling shows that his party in that city is not only far weaker than it was in 1885, before the home-rule controversy had divided it, but that, relatively at least, it has lost ground even since the general election of 1886. The Scotch capital has always been a Liberal stronghold. It has, we believe, never returned a Conservative to Parliament. In 1885, out of 27,271 votes polled, but 4,231 ballots were cast for Conservative candidates, although doubtless there were a number of Conservatives who, in the districts in which they had no party nominee, voted for the Liberal candidates least objectionable to them, and thereby somewhat exaggerated the apparent Liberal strength. In 1886, when Mr. Gladstone appealed to the country on the home-rule issue, the opposition vote more than doubled, rising to 9,763, while that of his supporters fell to 13,625, or only a little more than one-half of what it was but eight months before. In the last six years, to all appearances, the Liberals were regaining much of their lost ground. The single Unionist elected from Edinburgh to the Parliament of 1886 became a convert to home rule, resigned, and recontested his division in the Liberal interest, and turned a Unionist majority of 690 into a home-rule one of 46. Now, however, when the final test comes, it appears that, in the six years, the Gladstonians have increased their vote only 1,723, as against an opposition gain of 2,806. West Edinburgh has again returned a Unionist, while the Liberal majority in South Edinburgh, which in 1886 was 1,587, has been cut down to 220.

THE "AGAMEMNON" AT BRADFIELD COLLEGE.

OXFORD, June 25, 1892.

THE valley of the Thames is never more full of summer than on these pleasant days of June, when the larks are rising from its hills, and its hedgerows are filled with the staccato notes of the yellow-hammer. Suppose that a company of idlers are floating down the Isis from Oxford, and let one of them, grown tired of his narrow boat, make for the river-bank at Pangbourne. There—if his landing had happened last Tuesday afternoon—he might have found me hurrying out of a dusty train which had left Oxford an hour before, and his more leisurely journey by water would have been admirably in keeping with the rest of my expedition to Bradfield. From Pangbourne we drove through pleasant avenues of limes, past little clusters of thatched cottages, and fields white with ox-eyed daisies or golden with buttercups. Before the fourth mile ended, we noticed on our right hand a picturesquely overgrown chalk-pit, and stopped a few minutes later at a wicket gate leading down into a second chalk-pit. But the place was so hidden and embowered by trees that nothing but a wooded slope appeared.

At this roadside gate strange things were happening, for there seemed only one way of gaining admission to this English chalk-pit. You had to produce a square blue card upon which Greek words were written. As you descended the narrow downward path, darkened by overarching foliage, a cushion somehow found its way into your hands, and then came a surprise. A sudden and sharp turn to the right revealed a crowd of people seated in a Greek theatre. Above them was the sky of England framed in by the branches of trees, but you and they seemed to be in another world. What could this countryside gathering be if not a festival-meeting held to honor Dionysus in some rural township of Old Attica? We sat in circles around the altar of Dionysus, there was no roof, there were no foot-lights, no stage paraphernalia to make us into workaday play-goers. The pleasant-mannered boys in mortar-board caps and black gowns who had received and guided all comers, bore white wands which seemed to have a magical power to break down the barriers between past and present.

Soon a signal was given by youthful trumpeters from the ledge above our heads; then appeared a priest at the door of the house of *Atreus* and *Agamemnon* which faced us. When he had commanded silence and disappeared, *Clytemnestra's* watchman began the tale of his year-long vigils on the palace roof. At last he espied the beacon from Troy, and his shouts stirred up a tumult within the house. In wild excitement youthful figures clothed in the graceful Greek dress darted from its doors across the stage, and were followed by women and older men. As these retired, the music of a harp and a flute was heard, while the elders of Argos marched in. *Clytemnestra*, in-

suing from the palace, found them gathered in the orchestra and confirmed the great news that Troy had fallen. The simplicity of the accompaniment to which they chanted their songs all in unison; their uncomplicated dances, which often recalled the rounds of May-day festivals—everything the chorus did, served to mediate between the drama in progress and the assembly of holiday-makers, which was never allowed to fall away from the performance into the attitude of an "audience." Like pious Athenians of old, we had each a part of our own in the function at hand. Thus a strange hold was given to the beauty and majesty of the story as it ran its course, and little if anything in the manner of the performance stood between us and that mysterious power which in this, as in all great Greek tragedies, conquers the spirit of man until he is possessed by an element larger than himself. The frank and youthful enthusiasm with which the boy actors of Bradfield threw themselves into their parts was rarely ill-judged, and served to bring out into bold relief the great outlines of the drama. *Agamemnon* arrived in his chariot with *Cassandra* cowering behind him. *Clytemnestra* appeared and beguiled him, though loath, to tread upon the purple strewn by her maidens. The Chorus spoke often of forebodings which were shared by us all when, with a word for *Cassandra*, the king of men went in to his doom. *Cassandra's* agony of prayer and her prophetic cries alarmed not the Chorus only, but all who were listening. When she also disappeared, there was a universal shudder, so that we wondered to see how carelessly a "shiftless little swallow" fluttered down from an overhanging bough and perched for a moment on the peak of the house of *Atreus*. Then were heard groans and shrieks from within, and, just as the elders of the Chorus were about to dash into the palace, *Clytemnestra* appeared, flung open the doors, and stood exulting in her crime and pointing to her slain.

The total effect of this representation of the "Agamemnon" by Dr. Gray, Warden of Bradfield College, and his pupils, was more nearly that of an ancient Greek ceremonial performance than anything which has yet been seen in our day. This is true in spite of details to which objection must be made. The rather theatrical and over-precious prettiness of the Apollo of the Belvedere looked uncommonly foolish when *Cassandra* turned toward it in anguish and prayer, and the spectacle of slaves, harnessed under the lash to draw in *Agamemnon's* chariot, suggested the habits of Persian rule rather than any Athenian conception of the heroic ways of the king of men. A lingering attachment to unreal traditions confined actors and supernumeraries to the stage, which was therefore very often unsuitably crowded when the orchestra stood comparatively empty. It was strange to see a chariot and a band of returning veterans emerging from a narrow side door and blocking one-half of the raised stage when the outside approach to the palace through the orchestra was open and unused. The stage at Bradfield had been refashioned for this play, and the old-fashioned notion (based upon a misunderstanding of Vitruvius) that the stage was something more than a portion of the orchestra, raised more or less to suit the setting of the drama in hand, had apparently been abandoned. Having gone so far, and not too far, like those who abolish the stage altogether, Dr. Gray might well have taken a hint from Dr. Dörpfeld, and could have increased the effectiveness of his stage-setting by making his actors use the orchestra as freely as his chorus used the stage.

But, after all exceptions have been taken in detail, the wonderful impression made as a whole by the "Agamemnon" at Bradfield remains. Only in such an open-air theatre can we feel to any full extent the deep religious undertone which characterizes every great Greek play. In such surroundings only will the powers of nature anciently personified in Dionysus weave themselves into the tragedian's story. It was therefore a most happy inspiration which led Dr. Gray to transform a corner of the demesne of Bradfield College into a Greek theatre. What he began in 1890 for the performance of the "Antigone" then given, he has now brought far toward perfection. His guests at this year's three performances have to thank him for the unique opportunity of witnessing a Greek dramatic service under just the circumstances and in just the posture of mind and body most favorable to the understanding of its Greek quality. Furthermore, they owe to one much younger than he, who is a scholar-elect of Corpus at Oxford, a remarkable performance of the rôle of *Clytemnestra*. It was no fault either of the Warden or of his pupils that we were rudely reminded of our latitude just when *Aegisthus* entered at the close. A drizzling rain descended, and the spell was broken by the very elements that had been weaving it around us. Let us hope they will be more propitious today for the third and last performance at Bradfield.

LOUIS DYER.

A GERMAN JACOBIN.

PARIS, June 23, 1892.

'A PRUSSIAN IN FRANCE IN 1792: Strasbourg, Lyons, Paris'—such is the title given by M. Laquiante to his translation, just published, of the letters of J. F. Reichardt. The name was not altogether unfamiliar to me. Reichardt was in 1792 the principal writer in the *Musical Journal* of Berlin. His letters were published in two volumes in Berlin, at the end of 1792, and in 1793. And what volumes! The title-page of the first is adorned with a red liberty cap and two tricolor cockades; the author has adopted a pseudonym and calls himself "Frei." These ornaments disappear, however, in the second volume, in the year 1793, the year *par excellence* of the guillotine. The book has become rare. Reichardt was accused of Jacobinism, and lost in 1794 his place of Capellmeister to the King of Prussia. His letters on France are those of a disciple of Rousseau, of a friend of France, of a friend of the French Revolution. He was brought up as a musician, and was appointed Capellmeister at Berlin at the early age of twenty-three; as such he was Director of the Italian Opera. In 1785 he visited Paris, with introductions from Gluck; he returned to Prussia, made several other journeys to France, and became a member of the French Institute.

The correspondence now published begins on January 6, 1792, at Frankfort on the Main. Reichardt meets several French *émigrés* and has very little sympathy with them; his heart is on the side of the Revolution. The German population of the Valley of the Rhine had no more sympathy than he for the *émigrés*. "In almost all the towns, but especially at Coblentz, the *émigrés* are obliged to pay double or treble, and always in advance; otherwise people refuse to lodge or feed them." The Prince de Condé, on leaving Speyer, said: "This German rabble knows how to behave towards its little princes; it does not know how when it has to deal with princes of the blood." In the Palatinate, the French who had no domicile could not remain more than twenty-four hours in the cities. "Among the host of Frenchmen who established themselves in Heidelberg with their families when the agitation began in France, there are many whose ancestors devastated this country." Reichardt speaks of the ruins of the castle of Heidelberg, and wonders what the French think who contemplate them. At Bruchsal, the residence of the Bishop of Speyer, the *émigrés* were not tolerated. Reichardt has no sympathy for the ecclesiastical electors or the German princes. "Our princes ought to pray that the French do not cross the frontier. The peasants of the Palatinate and of Mayence say boldly: 'As soon as the French come, we will join them.' At Bruchsal the oppression is as hard as it can ever have been in France."

In January, 1792, Reichardt is in Strasbourg, and puts a tricolor cockade on his hat. He goes immediately to the Club of the Friends of the Constitution, and makes the acquaintance of the supporters of the "good cause." Among them was Schneider, who has since become legendary in Alsace. Born in Bavaria, he made himself a monk (of the order of the Récollets) at the age of twenty. He was a good speaker, and, taking the name of Euloge, he became preacher at the Court of Stuttgart and Professor at Bonn; the Mayor, Dietrich, called him to Strasbourg, where he founded a paper, the *Argus*, and became the chief of the demagogic party, and upset Dietrich, his protector. In 1793 he was appointed public prosecutor, and acquitted himself of his functions with such ostentatious cruelty, vanity, and license that the Convention was forced to have him arrested and conducted to Paris. He had the impudence in his prison to say a word against Robespierre, during the trial of Dietrich, whom he accused with savage passion. Robespierre sent the "German priest" to the guillotine.

It is curious to see Reichardt among Dietrich, Schneider, and others, before all these events, conversing quietly with Dietrich at the "Freibürgerstube," or applauding Schneider at the Club. Dietrich was a partisan of constitutional government. He was really for thirty months the master of Strasbourg; he opposed the Jacobins; he decided the local assemblies of Alsace to vote in favor of a monarchical constitution, and this vote was the signal for persecution. He was arrested, and died on the guillotine December 29, 1793. Among the men whom Reichardt met in Strasbourg was Marshal Luckner, a veteran of the Seven Years' War. "Luckner, with his small stature, his vulgar physiognomy, seemed to me pitiful. Think that this man, in this country of equality, where all decorations except one have been suppressed, wears three foreign orders on his breast." Luckner was placed at the head of the Army of the North and gained a victory over the Austrians. This did not prevent him from being arrested and guillotined on the 4th of January, 1794. Again, among the persons of note whom Reichardt met in Strasbourg was the eldest son of Marshal de Broglie. Victor de Broglie had attached himself to constitutional ideas; he was matriculated in the Alsatian nobility, as he had married Mlle. de Rosen, who was descended from the Swedish Rosen, and had brought him a marquisate. Broglie did not go far enough in the revolutionary direction; he was opposed to the suspension of the King. He would not emigrate, however, as his father had done. He was arrested in 1794 and

guillotined, at the age of thirty-seven, in 1794.

Alasce was less enthusiastic for the Revolution than appeared at first sight. The old nobility had always been very popular, as they lived among the people. Turckheim was elected Mayor of Strasbourg in December, 1792, by an almost unanimous vote. He was the chief of the aristocratic party. The *procureur-général-syndic* (a sort of a prefect) was Levrault, who was hardly thirty years old, and whom Reichardt describes as a very superior man. He belonged to the Constitutional party, and in 1793 he had to flee to Bâle to save his head; he became afterwards a great printer, and died in 1821, rector of the Academy of Strasbourg. M. Laquiante gives in his notes a very interesting letter of Mirabeau's to Levrault written in 1788. He announces in it the meeting of the States General: "What I prophesied has happened; if you don't want them, said I to the Government, on foot, they will come on horseback. What will they do? Many foolish things; but never mind. Nations get into shape like children; they must have their colics, their toothaches, their wailings." The civil constitution of the clergy profoundly divided the Alsatians. Less than one-tenth of the Catholics consented to take the oath of obedience to this new Constitution; the non-jurors were thrown into prison, many of them died in the hulks at Aix or on the guillotine. Dietrich and his friends looked upon the non-jurors as mere fanatics; almost all the Constitutionals were Voltairians. The theatres are always representative of public opinion. Reichardt one day delights himself at an operetta, "Les Rigueurs au Cloître." It is the history of a nun who is ill-treated in her convent because her love-letters have been found. The liberator appears in the uniform of an officer of the National Guard. He reads the decree which abolishes the monastic vows and takes the nun to her lover, a good patriot.

From Strasbourg Reichardt went to Lyons by way of Colmar, Bâle, Nantua. Some noise in the theatres, some bad patriotic plays, were the only marks of the political revolution he found in Lyons. He paid a visit to the Club of the Jacobins: "The company consisted of people of the lowest class; no debates, only denunciations and libellous calumnies. The whole thing seemed to us very disgusting." The laboring population of Lyons took no part in these proceedings.

In Paris Reichardt rushes to the Assembly, in session at the old riding-school of the Tuileries. In the evening he goes to the Club of the Jacobins. He gives us portraits of Condorcet, of Vergniaud, of Brissot, and a few others. "Vergniaud, certainly the most serious and the most vigorous of the popular orators, has an unpleasant face, but one that bears the marks of force and energy. His whole person gives the same impression, though he is neither tall nor distinguished. Vergniaud dominates all his colleagues by his knowledge, his passion, his eloquence." Reichardt, on the whole, though he was what the French call *naïf*, and was led away by his great admiration for the French Revolution, is rather impartial in his judgment of men; he discerns the charlatan in Pétion, the Mayor. "In front of the procession walked, his hat under his arm, Mayor Pétion, a personage of a fine appearance, with broad shoulders and a flat face showing as much vanity as phlegm." He gives, moreover, *in extenso*, a speech by this Pétion, which is absolutely ludicrous. Reichardt is an admirer of the *Père Duchesne*, the most popular paper of the time, which spoke the coarse language of the Halles. His letters read like newspaper articles, and, in my opinion, very poor articles; they have a sort of heavy stupidity which only at times becomes laughable, and their dulness is relieved here and there only by a little *trait de mœurs* which is interesting as showing the temper of the people.

It is clear to me that General Lafayette did not care to make the acquaintance of Reichardt, who made several attempts to see the General, but always unsuccessfully. He avenges himself by writing—

"Notwithstanding all I have read and heard of Lafayette, I cannot form a clear idea of his character. He is suspected by both parties. This is well expressed by an engraving which you see in every shop-window. Lafayette is hanged; an aristocrat drags him by one foot, a Democrat by the other. . . . He has made himself odious to the Jacobins. . . . Such conduct is not clever in a man who has, at least in appearance, the same object as the Jacobins, viz., maintenance of the Constitution, resistance to the machinations of the Court and of the *émigré* princes who wish the restablishment of the old régime. . . . So far he has too much liked to be spoken of and to figure in the front rank."

Reichardt sides entirely with the Jacobins, though there remains in him a certain *fond* of *bonhomie* and of good sense which comes out here and there. He blames the aristocratic men of letters who are not revolutionists —Marmontel, Suard, Barthélemy, Grimm. He puts on the red liberty-cap; he, however, describes Robespierre with some severity: his haughty demeanor, "his pale face, his sly look, render even more provoking the impertinence of his attitude." He recalls Goethe's epigram—

"Jene Menschen sind toll! So sagt ihr von heftigen Sprechern
Die wir in Frankreich so laut hören auf Strassen und Plätzen.
Auch mir scheinen sie toll; doch redet ein Toller in Freiheit
Weise Sprüche wenn, ach, Weisheit in Sklaven verstummt."

Sometimes Reichardt is well inspired; his final judgment on all he has seen is remarkable: "I am obliged to confess that the French nation is less enlightened than I thought. The qualities which give it precedence over the other nations which I know, are more due to a happy natural disposition and to the gentleness of its manners than to intellectul culture." He sees clearly that there are no real political convictions, no real devotion to the new Constitution. He deplores the lightness of mind which is a trait of the national character: "It is impossible for a young Frenchman to seize a serious idea conceived in a dry form." He perceives that "the ignorance of the lower classes is incredible, and in the higher classes it is not rare to meet men devoid of any notions of the importance and government of foreign countries." This picture, which is in the letter of April 2, 1792, deserves to be read *in extenso;* it is very exact, and, on many points, as exact in 1892 as it was in 1792.

Correspondence.

THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I don't quite understand your very complimentary reference to Mr. Stevenson, the Democratic nominee for the Vice-Presidency. Of course you recognize him as one of the leading officials in the Post-office Department under President Cleveland, and as a very active, handy man with the headsman's axe. In fact, the only man who has ever kept up anything like his record was Mr. Clarkson. Out in this country we recognize it as a victory for the enemies of civil-service reform, although his probable part will be a minor one during the next four years. Isn't there something wrong about your notice?

Yours truly, E. G. Cooley.

Aurora, Ill., July 1, 1892.

[Nothing wrong, because we were speaking only to Mr. Stevenson's personal character as vouched for by his political opponents; and to his mental calibre, in striking contrast with that of his rival, Gray of Indiana. If we could also have praised his views of office-holding, we would have done so; but it is fair to remember, even in his case, that the Administration which he served found the civil service filled with Republicans almost exclusively, and barred to men of other party opinions and affiliations, and that Mr. Cleveland approved of an immediate, though not precipitate, series of removals and substitutions until something like an equilibrium as between Democratic and Republican incumbents should be reached. In this we consider he made a fatal mistake of expediency, as the good of the country demanded of him not an equitable redistribution of the offices, but an instant abandonment of the spoils system—*i. e.*, so far as in him lay, the taking of all appointments out of politics. Mr. Stevenson's rectification inevitably paved the way for Mr. Clarkson's, and what has been gained?—Ed. Nation.]

ROLLING-MILL PROTECTIONISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The average voter determines, it is said, the policy of a democratic country like ours; but what he really thinks and believes can only be determined on the day after a general election. A small section of average men, however, can be studied profitably, if one takes time. I have had the curiosity to study the political opinions of a number of rolling-mill protection Republicans with a view to finding out their actual private belief on the subject of the tariff. They consist chiefly of people employed in the mill or indirectly making a living therefrom. The majority of the club which in particular I studied have a fair common-school education, but are unaccustomed to weighing arguments and debating questions logically. They are honest, thrifty, patriotic citizens, and the kind of people an innocent man would like to have on a jury where the merits of the case could be decided by the heart rather than by the head.

The following is, I believe, a correct exposition of their views on the tariff and kindred subjects.

(1.) The war is over and there is no immediate danger of a Southern invasion. (Still, the Democratic party, on general principles, may not be any too patriotic now.)

(2.) The word protection means a great deal: people protect themselves from cold and rain, and we should protect ourselves from foreign competition. (This is a general underlying idea and not to be pressed too closely.)

(3.) If the tariff is lowered, the mills will

close and we must starve. (This is a favorite scare argument. Citing instances of previous similar declarations, subsequent reduction of tariff, followed by increased output and extension of mills, is useless. This argument works well with newly arrived Swedes, Poles, and Germans; the more [politically] ignorant the man, the greater its effect on him.)

(4.) Granting that the manufacturers get higher prices for goods under a protective tariff, it follows that, as they are thus enabled to, they will pay higher wages to their workmen. (This assumption that the manufacturer will pay more for labor simply because he has more money to his credit in the bank, is rarely stated in so many words; but a vague yet persistent notion often crops up in discussion, that the boss will "divvy up" the profits with his men; he ought to—therefore he will.)

(5.) Statistics (source and trustworthiness unexamined) show that protected American workmen receive more money than free-trade English workmen. If we have free trade, we shall come down to their level. (Comparative purchasing power of money in different countries unknown, and comparison of wages between free-trade English workmen and protected Continental workmen suppressed or misunderstood.)

(6.) The doctrine of protection is American and patriotic; the Stars and Stripes and a high tariff go together. Hurrah, boys, etc.! (Comment unnecessary.)

Generations to come will probably laugh at the above sophistries, as we now laugh at Sir Robert Filmer's thesis.

EDWARD L. MORSE.

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY IN TURKEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to an article in your issue of June 16 on "The Troubles of Americans in Turkey," which contains an implied censure of our State Department and of our present Minister in Constantinople. Without entering into a lengthy reply or an explanation of the causes of the present troubles (which I might do), I should like to say from personal information that the present Administration has not been less firm than its predecessors in protecting the rights of our missionaries in Turkey; and as for the efficiency of our present Minister, Hon. Solomon Hirsch, I am glad to state that he combines fine business qualities with a sound judgment, decision of character, and firmness of will, and it is no exaggeration to say that in point of ability he is far superior to any Minister that we have had in Constantinople for many years. In saying the above I feel that I am voicing the almost universal verdict of the American missionaries in Turkey.

Very respectfully,

Z. T. SWEENEY.

COLUMBUS, IND., July 1, 1892.

[We merely reported an *express* censure of the Administration, uttered by a high authority on Turkey, and took pains to disclaim for ourselves any means of judging either its conduct or that of Minister Hirsch.—ED. NATION.]

THE RUSSIAN PROFESSORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As Mr. Dole and Mr. Wiener have seemed not to have grasped my exact meaning in regard to the Russian professorship, allow me to state my position with a little more definiteness on the points which they have raised. I take them in the order in which they are printed in your issue of June 30, so far as possible.

It is probable, as Mr. Dole remarks, that a professor of Russian would not be likely to be overrun with pupils. But it is certain that what few pupils he had would go to him, primarily, for the sake of acquiring a practical working knowledge of the pronunciation and an ability to understand the spoken tongue, with a view to continuing their studies in Russia itself so soon as they should be qualified to do so. I am assuming, of course, that the supplementary study in Russia includes the merely superficial, polite acquaintance with the current literature for which university students in French, German, and other modern languages are prepared, as well as the more profound researches which one in a thousand might feel moved to make, as in the case of the other languages mentioned. It is only when a student attacks the dead languages, such as Sanskrit, Latin, and ancient Greek, that these practical considerations can be set aside, and an American professor considered as permissible. In short, with the dead languages, an American may be a very much alive, whereas, with the living languages, he is generally the deadest sort of a teacher, and is responsible for the vast amount of ridicule which the American nation reaps abroad among cultivated foreigners, who cannot comprehend the stupidity of learning any language except from a native of the country in question.

There is no necessity for the Russian professor to be an adept in the pronunciation of anything except Russian. But the other languages and varieties of the Slavic which I mentioned possess more or less literary monuments, which he should be able to read at first hand. Slight as is the difference between some of them, I could name cultivated Russians of my acquaintance (not to mention Americans) who are unable to cope with them. Some of my friends cannot read the Slavonic, which is indispensable to a professorship, though they understand the church service in it, as Italian Roman Catholics understand the Latin service, but more perfectly. Others of my acquaintance cannot read Little Russian, and this sort of inability is so widely extended that Turgeneff translated Little Russian authors into the ordinary Russian for the benefit of his countrymen. The Imperial Geographical Society found it worth their while to send an expedition into the Southwestern provinces (Little Russia, Ruthenia—they are synonymous), and make and publish an immense number of folk-songs, ballads, and legends at the expense of the Government. The same sort of material has been collected, to a greater or less extent, in the case of all the languages which I mentioned. I happen to be pretty well posted on this matter, as I read, literally, thousands of pages of it, in all the varieties of dialect and tongue, for Prof. Francis J. Child's great work on the English Ballads. Moreover, in 1887, I was invited by Mr. Justin Winsor to classify and prepare for cataloguing a vast mass of volumes, in all the various tongues, which had long been accumulating in the Harvard Library, and lay utterly useless to every one for the lack of a person who could even assign titles. I do not mention my own powers (which are somewhat unusual, I am told by Russians) of reading all these things, with any personal aims or interested motives on behalf of any one else, but simply to prove that I know what I am talking about.

What Mr. Dole says in regard to the abundant leisure which the future Russian professor will enjoy, after attending to his tiny flock, and of the use which might be made of it, is also true; but his deductions in this case are as false as in the other. A Russian professor, properly qualified by birth and years of previous study at home, would, indeed, be capable of continuing his researches on the base of his past and giving the world something valuable. But how is an American to effect this? After years of study abroad—which some aspirants would expect the University to pay for—he might make a beginning, provided he knew the languages I have mentioned to start with, for the philological part of his work. The only libraries in this country which can pretend to furnish even the rudiments for his investigations are those of Harvard and Yale. (The late Eugene Schuyler gave Cornell a considerable miscellaneous collection of Russian books; but I am not aware that Cornell has attempted to complete it, or to compete with Harvard or Yale on this ground.) When it comes to publishing, the Russian, by life-long training and custom, has so distinctly the advantage over the American that it is hardly worth while to take the latter into consideration at all. The American, thanks to having received what superficial instruction he may be lucky enough to possess of foreign tongues, from American professors, as is advocated in this case, will infallibly write in English—very likely, in bad English, as translators frequently write. The Russian would issue his learned treatises in Russian and French, or in French alone, as has long been the practice with his scientific fellow-countrymen. They would thus be accessible to the whole learned world, and, supposing that the professor should be as ignorant of idiomatic English as Mr. Dole assumes, or as the ordinary translator is, they could readily be translated into English for the benefit of victims of American professors of French, and so on.

I heartily agree with Mr. Wiener that only a philological knowledge of the cognate Slavic tongues is required—that is what I meant to be understood in the beginning. But this should be thorough, not a sham derived from defective French translations instead of from the originals. The point on which I do not agree with Mr. Wiener is that which he illustrates by citing the case of Prof. Morfill at Oxford University. Prof. Morfill, despite his learning, is a brilliant example in disproof of the very point which Mr. Dole imagines that he has triumphantly scored beyond the chance of contradiction, viz., that in regard to the greater insight of an American into the peculiar difficulties which would present themselves to an American student, but not to a Russian professor, since the American has suffered in his own person the agonies of linguistic puzzles unperceived and unelucidated by the native Russian. Prof. Morfill's Grammar, which should, in virtue of this argument, be the most perfect in existence, is the worst. It is, perhaps, absolutely perfect for a person who already knows the language thoroughly in its finest shades, and is capable of grasping a set of Liebig's extract of rules—in short, for the person who does not need it, or as a literary monument. But for the beginner it is no more comprehensible than Chinese, though the book was written for beginners.

I will also venture to call Mr. Dole's attention to the fact that, delightful as it may be to boast—half a century later—that one has studied with a native American Longfellow

or a Lowell, Longfellows and Lowells are not very plentiful even in our rushing young country; also, that neither of them attained to the supreme fame of being thus mentioned without prefix or Christian name on account of their temporary professorships of foreign languages, but rather in despite of this, and because of their mastery over their own tongue, which less noted Americans would do well to imitate. ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

JULY 4, 1892.

FRANCES DUNLAP LOWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While so many tributes have been paid to our great poet, essayist, and statesman, James Russell Lowell, will you give me a little space in your columns to say something of the woman who for thirty years was the great inspirer of his life? She has been strangely overlooked in the many notices that have appeared from time to time. The writer of this has at various times been an inmate of their home and knows whereof she speaks.

Frances Dunlap Lowell: beautiful in person, attractive in manner, her loving nature drew all to her who came within her influence. She charmed little children, and young men and young women became closely attached to her. She possessed rare common sense. The practical element in her supplied what was wanting in Mr. Lowell in this respect. He gave into her keeping all his income that she so well knew how to spend to the best advantage, so that their never large income told for much more than most persons would have thought possible. But this was far from being all. She had fine literary instincts, which Mr. Lowell fully recognized. He used to submit all that he wrote during the period they lived together to her criticism, and said that he valued her opinion above every other. She hesitated not to give adverse criticism whenever she disapproved of what he wrote, or thought him not at his best. That wonderful "Commemoration Ode" he read to her page by page, as it was written, as well as the last series of the "Biglow Papers." He said to more than one person, "She has a perfectly rounded character, and is superior to any woman I have ever known."

She loved this man with all the strength of her noble nature, but in no narrow way. She was broad in her views of human life, and generous almost to a fault. Of a deeply religious nature, the Divine element within her was always uppermost and ruled all the affairs of her life. She had a genius for loving. When, seven years since, she closed her eyes to this world, the greatest light of this man went out. Had she lived to the present time, James Russell Lowell might now be living, with the prospect of ten years at least of usefulness to his country and the world before him, such loving, wise care did this woman, Frances Dunlap Lowell, take of him.

SOPHIA T. TOWNSEND.

PORTLAND, ME., July 5, 1892.

Notes.

AN illustrated subscription book, 'Famous Composers and their Works,' edited by Prof. J. K. Paine, with able collaboration, is to be published in the fall.

The Presidential year involves a new edition of McPherson's indispensable 'Handbook of Politics,' which James J. Chapman will issue at Washington a month hence. Any one who remembers the electoral and legislative events of the past two years will know what interesting data this thirteenth volume of the series must contain.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Carlyle,' by Prof. John Nichol; 'On Canada's Frontier,' by Julian Ralph, illustrated by Frederic Remington; 'The Danube: From the Black Forest to the Black Sea,' by F. D. Millet, with illustrations by the author and by Alfred Parsons; and 'That Wild Wheel,' a novel by Frances Eleanor Trollope.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will begin in September a new edition of Bulwer's works in forty volumes, each provided with a frontispiece designed by E. H. Garrett.

The Arena Company, Boston, have in preparation 'The Rise of the Swiss Republic,' by William D. McCrackan; and 'Sultan to Sultan: My Adventures among the Masai and other Native Tribes of East Africa,' by Mrs. French-Sheldon.

W. H. Lowdermilk & Co., Washington, have undertaken to complete Mr. Hickcox's 'Monthly Catalogue of Government Publications,' and to issue it hereafter regularly and promptly, with Mr. Hickcox for editor. We trust that the enterprise is at last on the stable footing which Congress and the libraries of the country should already have assured it. The subscription price will be five dollars a year.

Rand, McNally & Co. have in the press a translation of Paul Berkow's 'Vae Victis,' illustrated with views of the Alhambra.

The most interesting part of 'The Naturalist in the Transvaal,' by W. L. Distant (London: R. H. Porter), is that relating to the Boer, his manner of life and opinions. In the characterization of him as a mixture of the old Israelite and the Scotch Covenanter, "a rough, God-fearing, honest, homely, uneducated Philistine," whose one book is the Bible, the author differs little from other writers. But he appreciates better than Lord Randolph Churchill, for instance, the Boer's intense love for the independence which he won by hard living and hard fighting, and sympathizes with him in his bitter resentment at the invasion of his solitudes by the eager, restless throng of money-seekers attracted by the gold mines of Johannesburg. His days are numbered, however, for "with the railroad the ox-wagon will disappear, and with it the last characteristic feature of the old voortrekkers." The Kafir, who still forms the bulk of the population, is described as a fairly trustworthy laborer, whose industry is shown by the fact that he takes back every year from the farm and the town to his kraal about $3,000,000 in gold coin. The author's accounts of his various excursions to observe the bird and insect life of the Transvaal are always entertaining, the scientific description of his collection being relegated to an appendix. This fills about half the book, and is mostly the work of the leading English ornithologists and entomologists. The attractiveness of the volume is heightened by the general excellence of its illustrations, and especially of the colored plates of the more important insects collected by the author.

'France of To-day,' by M. Betham-Edwards (Lovell, Coryell & Co.), does not call for extended comment. It will be a disappointment to readers who are led to take it up by the reputation of the author. But for that reputation one would guess it to be the work of an inexperienced writer, who had no qualification for literary work, and who had read more books than she could digest. The style is slipshod and careless; there is a good deal of repetition, and a good deal of tedious and jejune commonplace, together with much irrelevant literary allusion. It contains some useful and interesting facts concerning the ordinary routine life of French peasants, the provision made by the Third Republic for popular education, more particularly for that of girls, and a few other topics which, if skilfully handled, could well furnish forth an interesting essay of perhaps fifty pages, but, when spread and padded out into a book of 335 pages, produce a most wearisome effect. Two or three specimens of the style may amuse our readers: "On the Committee of Management—a noteworthy fact—figures the name of a Protestant pastor" (p. 125). "Above the chair of office, a fact to be specially noted, hangs a crucifix" (p. 250). "The siege of Belfort gave French history as grand a page as that of La Rochelle; and, advocated by Thiers, 'the old man eloquent,' rescued the key of the eastern frontier from the fate of Strasburg and Metz" (p. 237).

Books like Mr. Charles F. King's "Picturesque Geographical Readers" (Boston: Lee & Shepard) proceed from a commendable motive, and 'The Land We Live In,' by this author, will interest most school-children. But they are but poorly adapted for reading aloud, especially for rhetorical exercises, though Mr. King has collected at the end some poetic fragments about the States. In parts the descriptions are so condensed as to run the risk of being unintelligible, even with the aid of the very good illustrations. A teacher might use the book to advantage occasionally, with amplifications.

Mélusine for May-June reproduces a curious impression from an old woodcut inferred by M. Gaidoz to be of the time of the Fronde. The legend is an Alexandrine—

"Les quatre vérités du siècle d'à présent";

and the personification consists of four figures representing a priest, a soldier, a man of law, and a peasant—a man of the people, a Populo (or Populot) as he would be called nowadays, says M. Gaidoz—"the Fourth Estate," as it is the present fashion for the orators of the working class in France to designate their constituents, though the name has long been appropriated by the Press. M. Gaidoz sees in this picture "tout un programme," the implication being that on this proletary, with fowls, game, and eggs in his basket and panier, the three orders are dependent for common nourishment.

In the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for June 15, M. Ch. V. Langlois has the happy thought to print *in extenso* the metrical "Somnium cujusdam clerici" found in MS. in the library of the city of Reims. Littré knew of it, and cited it in his 'Histoire Littéraire de la France,' but did not give it its true value. It is, in fact, a memorial of a battle between the English and Picard "nations" in the University of Paris, in 1279, arising out of some question of precedence, which ended in the expulsion of the Picards. The author of the "Somnium" was one of the expelled, and he bewails his fate in 380 rhymed verses showing a strong affection for Paris.

"Cum mallem Parisius sine mora mori
Quam hic esse spacio vivens longiori.
O dulcis Parisius, decor omnis ville,
Civitates superans omnes modis mille. . . .
Urbs nulla se audeat tibi comparare"

—he says. The luckless scholar is soundly rated in his dream by Prudence, but cheered at the end by Hope. What is noticeable is that he does not *name* his English enemies, con-

tenting himself with the allusive "gens aculeo caude nimis dure," it being a tradition that Englishmen had tails, and a customary mode of aggravating them by referring to the fact. "Anglici erubescunt caudati vocari," says Étienne de Bourbon.

A very effective beginning is made of an annual 'Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature,' published by Ginn & Co., under the direction of the Modern Language Departments of Harvard University The first volume, consisting of 128 pages, is slenderer than its successors are expected to be, but not many are likely to contain a more weighty article than Prof. George Lyman Kittredge's formidable critique of Prof. Lounsbury's advocacy for Chaucer of the authorship of the English 'Romaunt of the Rose.' It occupies just one-half the volume, without a particle of verbiage. Prof. Kittredge contributes, besides, a kindred paper on Henry Scogan, controverting Brandl's ascription to him of the 'Court of Love.' Prof. E. S. Sheldon discusses at length the origin of the English names of the letters, and furnishes also some etymological notes; Mr. John M. Manly traces the meaning and etymology of "lok Sounday"; and Prof. Kuno Francke, with the aid of plates, makes a very plausible argument to show that Mantegna's "Triumph of Cæsar," which hung in one of Goethe's drawing-rooms for daily contemplation, was the source of several images in the Mummenschanz procession of Plutus-Faust in the Second Part of "Faust."

The interesting exercises at the opening of the new Library building at Cornell University last October have been printed in a fine quarto pamphlet, illustrated in a way to give a good idea of the beauty and aptness of the structure, which seems ideally well placed (on a hillside) for indefinite enlargement of its stack room. Portraits of Mr. Henry W. Sage, who generously bore the cost of erection; of ex-President White, who bestowed his remarkable historical collection upon the Library; and of Mrs. Jennie McGraw-Fiske, after Miss Whitney's medallion, are likewise inserted.

A three-quarters portrait of the late James R. Osgood leads the series of plates in the July *Sun and Shade* (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.). The rest present the customary assortment of views from nature and copies of paintings, and are of good average quality.

—The New England Society of Orange, N. J., has fitly undertaken the publication of the late Dr. Stephen Wickes's posthumous 'History of the Oranges.' Newark, of which these pleasant suburbs of New York once formed part and may again, was a New England settlement, and was the last experiment in theocratic government on this continent. It was founded *anno mirabili* 1666, with a covenant which confined the right of suffrage and of office-holding to members of Congregational churches. In the course of fifteen years this "Fundamental Agreement" was already laid on the shelf; by the end of half a century the Congregational polity had been superseded by the Presbyterian. Apart from its share in these transformations, the history of Orange has few salient or picturesque features, and the interest of Dr. Wickes's cautious researches is almost wholly local. Of all the town's primitive industries, that of hatting has been the most persistent and profitable, while the manufacture of shoes has gone under, partly as a consequence of the civil war, for coarse cowhide shoes for slaves were a specialty, and one saw them carted to New York in "a wagon with sideboards, and heaped up five or more feet high, like a load of hay." Copper-mining is also extinct, though the deposits were not exhausted. The ore had to be shipped abroad for smelting, and the jealousy of the protectionists of the mother country was likewise shown in the case of iron, an act of 1750 forbidding the erecting "of any mill or other engine for slitting or rolling iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer, or any furnace for making steel," in any of the colonies. The advance in the hat-making trade, too, was deemed "to the prejudices of Great Britain." The history of Orange in the period under review (1666-1806) is bound up with that of its First Church (the Mountain Society, as it was originally styled). The parish sloop for the support of the Gospel was an odd investment, growing out of dock privileges on the Passaic River. She plied between Newark and New York. The subscription paper for the purchase of her, in 1784, here given in facsimile, contains the first mention of the town's name extant in any local record; and this name was adopted for the sloop. The pastors were men of mark and spirit, and samples of their sermons curiously reflect the spiritual habit of the time. In 1784, Pastor Chapman helped the neighboring church at Caldwell into existence, and its first two ministers (1788-1833, 1834-1840) were Stephen Grover and Richard F. Cleveland, the namesake and father of the ex-President. Orange was represented in Congress for thirty years in succession, in House and Senate, by Dr. John Condit. Dr. Wickes's chapters were not fully wrought out before he died, but they have been edited with intelligence, and the book is solidly and handsomely made and profusely illustrated.

—The ninth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (J. B. Lippincott Co.) contains some first-rate specimens of the kind of writing demanded by works of this character. Such are—opinions apart—the articles on Rousseau, by the Rev. H. G. Graham; on Russia, by Prince Kropotkine; on George Sand, by George Saintsbury; on Shakspere and Shelley, by Prof. Dowden. Mr. Lang is the brief biographer of Sir Walter Scott, with a lavish hand. The Salvation Army is described by Bramwell Booth, with a lack of realism that was to be expected. The venerable Isaac Pitman cannot be charged with egotism in mentioning himself and his system in the article on Shorthand, but Mr. Theodore Watts, who treats of the Sonnet, certainly goes out of his way to advertise his four exemplary "sonnets on the sonnet," "one only of which, under the name of 'The Sonnet's Voice,' originally printed in the *Athenæum*, was widely circulated in sonnet anthologies." Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace defines and defends Spiritualism, with little astuteness, and, in the case of this country, with absurd praise of the intellectual performances of "seers" whose moral status, too, in the community has suffered a woful decline, though Mr. Wallace appears to be ignorant of it. The appalling fact of the worthlessness, literary and practical, of the great mass of spirit communications, is not so much as hinted at. Nor does Mr. Wallace, in attempting to deduce from the "long and eloquent addresses" (signifying nothing) of trance mediums "our most complete knowledge of the teaching and philosophy of modern spiritualism," remark on the absence, after more than forty years of assumed intercourse between the two spheres, of any consistent, definite, detailed account of the next life, such as, if the spirits were to put the questions, would be given to them of life on the earth—such as we obtain from travellers concerning foreign countries, or such as we should exact of the explorer of Symmes's Hole concerning its subterranean inhabitants. These astonishing defects in the revelation, though they do not settle the question of the genuineness of the mysterious phenomena which constitute the alphabet of spiritualism, do cast a chill on the pursuit of the subject by existing methods.

—The first four out of the sixteen parts of the new annual supplement to 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' come to us from Westermann & Co., and furnish fresh proofs of the value of this publication. The leading geographical articles record the progress of exploration in Africa (filling five pages), Asia, Australia; and under the Dark Continent we have a table of the extraordinary development of European appropriation of territory in the past fifteen years. Under Australia is sketched the basis of the proposed Confederation. Under China it is manifested how much prompter the Government was to avail itself of the telegraphic bond of national union than of railroads, of which the strategic value may yet appear to the Peking dynasty. The article on Bosnia tells of the fostering, by the Austrian Museum of Art and Industry, of a revival of the Oriental hand industry of damaskeening, with happy effects on the trade of the province, and without injury to the native taste; a like movement in the manufacture of woollen hangings and tapestry has sprung up. Noticeable are the statistics of the Prussian income tax and railroad system, together with the censuses of Berlin and Germany. The Chadourne incident is related under Bulgaria. There is a long article on the history of Cambridge (Eng.) University. Under Banks there is a survey of the development of the chief banks of Europe, with such comparisons as the United States afford. The several scientific and learned congresses of the year are reported, as usual; a long chapter is devoted to the legislation in several countries looking to the insurance of workingmen. Electricity is another prominent rubric. The obituaries include two real Bonapartes and two Brummagem—Boulanger and Balmaceda; on the other hand, the new men taken cognizance of are J. M. Barrie, T. Hall Caine, and, tardily, Aubrey De Vere; with Mr. Elkins, our present Secretary of War. It affords some idea of the scope of this work to cite the article on the discovery of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens,' and the news item, which will strike the eye of readers of Tolstoi's 'War and Peace,' that the One Hundred and Fourth Ustiug Regiment in Russia has been named after General Bragation. The maps and illustrations have the customary originality and worth: a map of illegitimacy in France, Germany, Austria, Hungary, and Italy; one of the lighthouses on the German coast; and views of mountain railroads, with diagrams of mechanism and a profile of the highest in the world—that on Mt. Washington being overlooked.

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 15, M. Alfred Binet prints an interesting article on Jacques Inaudi, the latest arithmetical prodigy, whose case has recently been investigated and reported on by a committee of the French Academy. Jacques Inaudi is in his twenty-fifth year, and comes of a poor family; his earliest years were spent in minding sheep. It was at the age of six that he first showed an interest in figures. Unlike most celebrated calculators, he did not employ pebbles or his fingers, or other visible symbols, to perform his sums: his operations were mental, and

done by means of words—that is, by the names of the numbers from one to one hundred, which his brother recited to him. Neither he nor his brother could read at that time, and, as far as he recollects, his brother did not teach him the multiplication-table. With the numbers he knew he proceeded to calculate, and when he had exhausted them, he asked to be taught the numbers exceeding one hundred. Thanks to continued practice and to his prodigious aptitude, his progress was rapid. At the age of seven, he says, he could multiply five figures in his head. He soon left his native land to go on a tour with his brother, who played a barrel-organ while Jacques picked up the pennies and gave occasional specimens of his proficiency in figures. Presently he was taken in hand by a showman, and made his first appearance in Paris in 1880, being presented to the Society of Anthropology by Broca, who made him the subject of a brief note, from which it appears that at the age of thirteen Jacques was still innocent of reading and writing. He has acquired those arts since, and has in other respects made great headway, although his education has remained rudimentary on many points. The operations which he performs are addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, the extraction of roots; and he resolves, by arithmetic, equations of the first degree—all in his head, without any outward aid from reading or writing. A problem is given to him, *viva voce*, he listens attentively, repeats it distinctly, says, "I begin," starts muttering to himself very rapidly, and goes on calculating, undisturbed by anything that goes on about him. He can answer questions, and even carry on a conversation, while performing his mental process. After a very short interval he says, "I have done," and gives the solution, proving it, also, for his own satisfaction. The problems he solves are such as multiplying by each other numbers composed of eight or ten figures, or he will say how many seconds there are in an arbitrarily chosen number of years, months, days, and hours, or he will add in a few seconds seven numbers, each composed of eight or ten figures; he will rapidly find the square or cube root of a number containing twelve figures; he can extract as well the sixth or the seventh root.

—M. Binet's discussion of the facts just enumerated, and of others for which there is no room here, leads him to the conclusion that the case of Inaudi furnishes a remarkable confirmation of the modern theory of partial memories—the theory, namely, that there is a musical memory, a memory for language, for letters, for numbers, etc. All arithmetical prodigies have an unusual memory for numbers, while their memory for other things is not above, and is perhaps below, the average. Inaudi can repeat twenty-four figures that have been recited to him, while the average man can repeat only from seven to ten; but when it comes to letters, Inaudi cannot repeat more than seven or eight. A second conclusion is the discovery of an auditive as well as a visualising memory; that is, while all other mathematical prodigies who have been able to give an intelligent account of their mental processes have agreed in saying that they saw before their mind's eye the figures with which they operated, as a blindfolded chessplayer sees the squares of a mental chessboard, Inaudi, on the other hand, distinctly asserts that he does not see the numbers, but that he hears them resound in his ears with the pitch of his own voice. His habit of whispering to himself while calculating confirms this account, and a further confirmation is found in the fact that when he tries to stop whispering, his operations take much longer than the usual time.

VON HOLST'S UNITED STATES.

The Constitutional and Political History of the United States. By Dr. H. von Holst, Professor at the University of Freiburg. Translated from the German by John J. Lalor. 1859-1861: Harper's Ferry—Lincoln's Inauguration. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 8vo, pp. 459.

With this volume Dr. von Holst announces the close of his important work. In a letter to Von Sybel inserted as a preface, he gives his reason for making the inauguration of Lincoln instead of the attack upon Fort Sumter "the end of the old Union and the beginning of the new," and therefore the proper end, also, of the history of the old Constitution. The question is not one of much moment. Several striking events might any one of them be a fit end of an historical epoch. The election of Lincoln in November, 1860, and the immediate overt act of South Carolina beginning the secession programme, was in several ways more significant than Lincoln's inauguration.

Americans who assert that the Union was not destroyed—that the attempt to destroy it, gigantic as it was, proved unsuccessful—will naturally prefer to ignore any sharply drawn distinctions between the old Union and the new. In a strict sense, the constitutional history of the epoch of slavery ends with the adoption of the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery. The Union remained, but the Constitution was amended in harmony with its own provisions to that end, fundamental as the amendment was. The effect of the Rebellion in hastening the constitutional change was very great; but the sharp arbitrament of war must be regarded as compelling the acceptance of a result foreshadowed in the election of Lincoln. Had there been no rebellion, three steps would have been taken in a peaceful evolution of our organic system. First, there would have come a practical acquiescence in the popular decision that no more slave States should be organized, and that all future new States must be free States. Second, the slavery system would have decayed in the remaining slave States, beginning with the borderland from Maryland to Missouri. Third, in the ripeness of time, freedom having become practically universal, the form of the Constitution would have been made to agree with the fact; the remnants of the old bondage being removed by compensated emancipation, perhaps, and this being the consideration for the anti-slavery amendment.

This was the consummation toward which the Republicans of 1860 looked. It was also the consummation which the secessionists of 1861 knew to be inevitable if they peacefully accepted the election of Lincoln. It might have taken a century, though such processes of evolution tend to accelerate. But it was not so to be. The secessionists made war, not only on the Union, but on the progress of the age. It is probable that but for the attitude of all Christendom toward slavery, the Confederacy might have got such aid and comfort as to establish it and make the disruption permanent. It found, by sorest experience, that the progress of the age was not a glittering generality, but a force potent enough to control the action of States and to limit to words the sympathies of rulers like Louis Napoleon.

Dr. von Holst continues his masterly analysis of events down to the Presidential election of 1860 with a power and success which leave little to criticise. Differences of opinion grow more marked (as he himself recognizes) when we come to the interpretation of the events of the following winter. The true purposes of Southern leaders, the real attitude of Buchanan toward them, the various groups of Northern political forces, and the development of popular sentiment in both sections—these start complicated problems of which the solution is far from clear. Their consideration opens so wide a discussion that any historian may well pause before attacking it.

We cannot help thinking that Dr. von Holst has felt the difficulty of going further, and has practically closed his history with the autumn election, giving a sketch, rather than full treatment, to the problems suggested. In what he has written, he leans to a more simple analysis of the political elements and forces than his American readers will be apt to receive. In such a crisis, the formal organizations of parties by no means constitute the nation. It was a time when parties were not unlikely to be blown out of existence by a whirlwind of popular feeling. Political leaders and organs are, in such a time, the most vacillating and uncertain of things. Their utterances are hollow, and have no fixed relation to their real beliefs. They are either whistling to keep their courage up, or are prophesying smooth things to the circle of their closest followers. To declare that that will happen which they wish to happen, and to scout all dangers which they dread, is of the nature of nominal representatives of vested political interests in a revolutionary time.

To quote party newspapers and speeches of politicians is, therefore, only to note the things which they wished and apprehended. It leaves unsounded the depths of the popular current which is sweeping all onward. It does not even measure the true opinions of those who are quoted, whose voices often sounded sepulchrally hollow to themselves, while they expressed unshaken confidence in the good fortune of their party and their friends. Von Holst does not seem to recognize this sufficiently in his chapters on the "Wrong Calculations of the Republicans" and the "Wrong Calculations of the Secessionists," in the fateful winter before the war. We should put more stress on the fact that each party was formed of many groups, not only, but that on the outskirts of each were many of whom it was doubtful whether the centripetal or the centrifugal force were stronger upon them. The slightest thing might change attraction into repulsion. To hold the elements together, to draw on the doubtful, to hold back the too aggressive, to watch the drift of sentiment, to suppress imprudent disclosures, to seek forms of commonplace accepted by all—these are the time-honored arts of political managers which are practised till the very down-pour of the deluge which had been the proverbial limit of their planning.

Von Holst's treatment of this period seems to deal too much with the outward expressions of prominent men and journals, and not to reckon enough with the forces behind them. It may not be possible, even now, for one to the manner born to marshal properly the evidence which shows the true spirit of that time in the North or in the South. With all his industry and all his instinct for historical investigation, it is doing no discredit to Dr. von Holst to say that it was impossible that he should adequately examine the infinite forces

working beneath the surface and leaving obscure traces of their action, but which accumulated a power to sweep away vociferous leaders and give the lie to their prophecies and their expositions. An equally able investigator, living in America, might give to the inner history of that winter of 1860-61 the full twenty years which the distinguished German professor has devoted to his whole task, and find the time none too long.

We believe it will be found that in the North and in the South there was a development so rapid that the most truthful history of the time would be one showing from week to week such changes of sentiment and opinion that an estimate of the purposes of men which would be accurate for November would be false in January, and one which would be true for the 4th of March would be absurd for the 13th of April. A consciousness of this (more or less adequate) made sagacious men like Lincoln adopt a waiting policy. *Laissez-faire* became a respectable principle instead of being a helpless makeshift. It was the germinating time of a revolution, and the changes which wrought beyond expectation did not prove "wrong calculations" in any proper sense, on one side or the other. The conflicting expressions of men showed rather that they took refuge in formulas of hope or of courage because they were impotent or afraid to speak out their inmost hearts, and were waiting for a demonstration of forces before which they stood in awe. With such a view of that time, it becomes to us an epoch in itself, and we can sympathize with the feeling of the historian that it had better be left to a separate treatment. It is too large a theme for the closing chapters of a great work devoted to seventy years of previous constitutional development.

Down to the beginning of the second session of the Thirty-sixth Congress, Von Holst's history has the very great merit of grasping with firm hand the clues to American development found in the conflict between slavery and freedom, and of showing clearly the control this antagonism exerted upon both the exterior and interior policy of the country and of the parties which ruled it. Through all his seven volumes there is a unity of thought and a strength of handling which we cannot fail to acknowledge, even when we find ourselves occasionally differing from his estimate of men and of measures. It makes the reader feel how inevitably the woes of the great conflict of 1861 were potentially hidden in the wrong of slavery which all the colonies shared, but which, by a fatal error, was allowed to survive the establishment of a republican constitution in 1789. In this respect the book has hardly a rival, and it must long remain a leading authority in both hemispheres.

In noticing former volumes we have had occasion to express regret that the English version was not more satisfactory. The last volume gives less occasion for criticism in this respect than some of its predecessors, though there are many involved and complex sentences that might easily have been put in a form to be much easier and more attractive reading to the American public. The book is so able and so honest, and it teaches lessons which our people may profit so much by learning, that we could wish its form were every way such as to attract the widest possible circle of readers. It is also to be hoped that an index will be furnished for the whole work, there being as yet none at all.

RECENT FICTION.

A Human Document. By W. H. Mallock. Cassell Publishing Co.

The Quality of Mercy. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

Fifty Pounds for a Wife. By A. L. Glyn. Henry Holt & Co.

Vesty of the Basins. By S. P. McLean Greene. Harper & Bros.

Sybil Knox. By Edward E. Hale. Cassell Publishing Co.

A Fellowe and His Wife. By Blanche W. Howard and William Sharp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Daughter of the South. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Cassell Publishing Co.

An Edelweiss of the Sierras, and Other Stories. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Harper & Bros.

Colonel Starbottle's Client, and Some Other People. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Tales of a Time and Place. By Grace King. Harper & Bros.

Don Finimondone: Calabrian Sketches. By Elizabeth Cavazza. Charles L. Webster & Co.

In the introduction to 'A Human Document,' Mr. Mallock informs us that his part in the work is little more than that of a compiler of letters and diaries, and that the novel is therefore a chapter from the life of two people faithfully written by themselves. The only reason for questioning the truth of this statement is the lengthy exculpatory discourse which follows it. In the past the author has involved himself in immoralities without any prefatory defence, and here he has the sane and chastened air of one conscious of follies committed, who wishes to say, "I am going to do it again, but accept beforehand my rational extenuation." His defence is a protest against those limitations in depicting life prescribed for English novelists by English public opinion. These limitations have furnished a theme for many rebellious essays which frequently impress the disinterested as more or less shameless pleas for the unreserved privilege of writing indecent novels. Though we may suspect Mr. Mallock of having the same end in view, his argument is so clear, temperate, and civil that it goes far to disarm the suspicion; indeed, when considered apart from the novel which it prefaces, it is an admirably concise and comprehensive declaration of the principles by which all fiction should be inspired if it would have any enduring value as a picture of life or a guide for living. Considered in its relation to 'A Human Document,' it is an adroit stratagem for heading off alert censors of morals, who, with such frank preparation for a violent shock, will be so worn out by hope deferred that when the critical moment arrives, they can experience only a passing tremor.

Never was an immoral situation arrived at more decorously or with such deliberate elegance. Every person concerned in the action is a personage, and we see the common sinners, Mr. Grenville and Mrs. Schilizzi, strolling down an endless perspective of Hungarian castles till plebeian eyes are dazzled, and plebeian judgment hesitates to express itself confidently about the commonness of their sin. The only way to recover a decent self-esteem is to declare ourselves bored by the description of their external life, and to wonder why, of all the objections to the book foreseen and apologized for, its dulness should have escaped the author's observation. The diaries in which Grenville and Mrs. Schilizzi disclose their intellectual and emotional progress from indifference to mutual passion, with subsequent relapses to coldness and accessions of fervor, are unquestionably human documents, in their assumption that nothing could be so important or so impressive as even the trivial acts and thoughts of the writer. So much earnest sincerity applied to self-scrutiny may be salutary to the scrutinizer, but the solemn egotism of the performance is the quality most clearly visible to the reader of the record; it is also the quality in the Grenville-Schilizzi memoirs which substantiates the author's claim for them as an impartial revelation of the contact and conflict of good and evil in the persons implicated. The genuine humanness of the documents is further attested by their unconscious revelations. Grenville never mentions that he is either a prig or a snob, yet his confessions fairly entitle him to both attributes. Mrs. Schilizzi never refers to her desire, growing into an intention, both to eat her cake and have it too—a vulgar determination of all women whose private lives run counter to the demands of their public, conventional respectability. Yet she is neither vulgar nor immoral, only lacking in that rare mental integrity which compels one to face an unpleasant fact. Her unfortunate circumstances abundantly explain an infidelity which brings in its train many forces for the disintegration of character. A victim to the barbarous custom which permits, and in lofty circles encourages, the marriage of a young girl to a man whom, if she knew him at all, she would loathe, is generally faithful to that husband just so long as she escapes close contact with a man who seems to give her all the understanding and sympathy which she has longed for and hitherto missed. Schilizzi's total depravity makes his wife appear an angel of patient forbearance. He is in every aspect so loathsome that the services rendered to him by Grenville when he lies dying of diphtheria are unnatural, unnecessary, and revolting. The only chapter in the book for which apology is needed (that which the author may all the time have had in mind) is the one describing the progress of Schilizzi's malady. This is a plunge into the mire of naturalism from which, if public opinion could for ever restrain our English novelists, we need not regard the name of "prude" as a reproach.

'The Quality of Mercy' is a modern novel, yet not precisely up to date, for its events precede the ratification of the extradition treaty between the United States and Canada. Long familiarity has made the public callous to any sad significance in the announcement that a highly esteemed citizen, long occupying a position of trust, has mysteriously vanished; that an examination of his books discloses peculations extending over a quarter of a century; that a distracted family has locked the front door of his palatial mansion whereat the righteous interviewer batters in vain. The amount of the respected citizen's embezzlement must be enormous to excite more than a passing breath of comment. The student of character alone maintains a vivid interest in the fact, undiminished by its frequency. To him the absconding gentleman perpetually suggests the questions, whether during his career of crime he has ever regarded himself as a thief; whether the suspicion is forced upon him only by the moment of discovery; whether, even after that, he can cast aside the garment of self-delusion and see his soul's deformity. Mr. Howells presents

these questions concretely in the person of Mr. Northwick, the defaulting treasurer of the Ponkwasset Mills. The circumstances are precisely similar to those so often narrated in the newspaper reports of a defalcation. The clever youth of a country village goes up to town (in this case Boston), seeking a sphere of action commensurate with his abilities. Energy, industry, boldness held in leash by prudence, known domestic virtue, all combine for the speedy achievement of prosperity. His children reap the benefits of his wealth and his high repute. As he approaches old age, apparently in indisputable possession of the honors that should attend it, the awful moment arrives. The Ponkwasset Company fails to meet its engagements. The horror-stricken directors meet in hasty conclave. It is plain that their childlike trust has been abused, and they, the innocent, the unsuspecting, stand discredited unless a scapegoat be speedily produced. He is just at hand, and it is at the crisis when monumental respectability topples and crashes in the dust that Mr. Howells's study begins. His presentation of a character so complex and inscrutable is profound and complete, the artist's intuition supplying many links in the chain that can never be found by the mere observer, however keen. Northwick seems to be a type of men of his kind as true to life as are Silas Lapham and Bartley Hubbard. The pleasure to be derived from reading this study is a purely literary one, and, great as that is, it cannot dispel the depression caused by the subject's intrinsic pain.

The author has, however, done his best to lighten inseparable gloom. Noticeably inspiriting is Pinney, the reporter, genial, light-hearted, and kind in almost every relation of life, yet a perfectly unscrupulous little fiend when animated by a desire to make a "beat" in the interest of *The Events*. If the day shall ever come when the Pinneys cease from troubling, they will still remain alive and terrible in the pages of Mr. Howells's novels. The perusal of 'The Quality of Mercy' must increase the admiration of the author's constant readers for the fidelity with which he has pursued his chosen way, to present a series of pictures of common American life. They must also be impressed by that steady advance in knowledge which is helping him in his later works to represent his people as, after all, more human than American. The hardness and coldness of his touch, which resulted from limited vision, have been much modified. Without loss of brilliancy, his style has gained urbanity, even tenderness, and thus compels a personal affection through which intellectual admiration suffers no detraction.

The summer is with us, and it is not the joys of the season which are increased for the reviewer by the summer novelist. If it were imperative that the novelist should express or suggest ideas, however feeble, there would be no summer novels. If there is one thing to which the summer intellect is not attuned, it is the reception of ideas, and the novelist who should attempt to inflict them would be promptly rejected with deserved contumely. With a clear understanding, therefore, of the relation between the producer and his public, the reviewer is in honor bound to award praise in direct proportion to the absence of everything that implies or demands an exercise of the reflective faculties. Judged by this standard, 'Fifty Pounds for a Wife' is easily *hors concours*. It appeared slightly before its proper time, but has nevertheless the full flavor of a luscious maturity. It has absorbed the juice and pulp (a summer novel has no blood or bones) of a hundred of its kind. It calls to mind the punctual and greedy boarder who deliberately transfers all the tender bits to his own plate; also, the confident professional gentleman who, having "gone in on his luck," proceeds to "scoop the pot." Mysteries, hereditary curses, abductions, murders, confusion of real and supposed fathers, worse confounded by real and supposed mothers—all these properties of the craft have been seized by the author and worked into the history of a lovely maiden and a demon Earl. The lovely maiden is throughout a victim, responsible for nothing but her loveliness, which she perfectly lives up to. The demon Earl is a compendium of crime, and, if we could believe in him for an instant, we should deeply despond for the race that produced him. But the author's great triumph as a summer novelist is that he is nothing if not incredible, and therefore his work makes no more demand on the emotions than on the intelligence.

A similar tribute is in justice due to 'Vesty of the Basins.' The summer boarder on the Maine coast who carries along a copy of this externally very attractive book will have an opportunity to realize how far past believing an author can get even when filled with the intention literally to transcribe life. The linguistic feats of the hoary cap'ns who guard the wooden piers of their native shores are certainly wonderful, but a wide acquaintance with them fails to locate the unpronounceable speech of Captains Leezur, Kobbe, and their associates. Their peculiarities of character suffer parallel distortion to such a degree that they are recognizable only by a pervading odor of fish and tar. The caricature of a respectable model is coarse and strained, but the author has not again put her publisher in peril of suit for libel. There lives no captain so devoid of self-esteem as to imagine himself the original of any one of the grotesque creatures collectively and with prudent vagueness denominated "The Basins."

Mr. Hale's contribution to the season's fiction is too pointedly didactic to win commendation. In small compass he undertakes to expose the rascality of the "railroad wrecker," to reprove the disseminators of idle gossip, and to accentuate the moral value of societies formed by women for the suppression of self-recognized faults and the extension of good works. Compelled to carry so much serious motive, the interest of the story is divided, only to be united by the momentary fear that the great gossip of Atherton has parted for ever the widow Knox and her devoted swain, John Coudert. Coudert's character has no surprises: he is always worthy and persistent in the several missions undertaken for love of Mrs. Knox, though they involve him in considerable trouble and expense. In the development of Mrs. Knox we confess to some disappointment. A good deal is expected of a lady sufficiently unconventional, not to say excitable, to drive down Fifth Avenue (a thoroughfare where cabs abound) on an express wagon, whip in hand. We feel that such a spirited person ought to have promptly attacked and suppressed the village gossips, and that she would not have lost her pristine vigor amidst the languid joys of Atherton picnics, or at once succumbed to the chastening influence of a "Send Me" society.

The literary references which plentifully grace the story of 'A Fellowe and His Wife' will slightly mar the enjoyment of the casual reader. He will take it up on the train or steamer, far removed from kindly books of reference, and will immediately become depressed by a sense of his ignorance concerning the private lives of great poets and the comparative merits of the great guns of several literatures. If he be conscienceless about those things, his idle hour will be pleasantly filled. The letters exchanged between the Count and Countess von Jaromar move emotion without harrowing it, and comedy is ever more present than tragedy. It is evident from the beginning that the Countess is a light-minded young woman, and that her real motive for separating herself from her obliging husband is a desire to see life, for which purpose the expressed yearning "to feel that I, a woman, am not a mere appendage," forms as good an excuse as any other. Her gift of self-deception is considerable, but her taste for bad company is so much more pronounced than that for art that we suspect Mr. Sharp of a gentle satire on so serious a movement as the emancipation of woman. Miss Howard's Count is a very good "fellowe," a little prosy, a little sentimental, yet blessed with that tact which alone, in his situation, could save him from appearing ridiculous.

Mrs. Harrison comes bravely forward with two volumes containing fourteen short stories or sketches. Some of these invite somnolence, all are superficial and absolutely unprovocative of agitation. It is a matter for regret that the author has done nothing better than 'Golden Rod,' which, after about ten years of existence, remains an agreeable and truthful picture of the summer colony at Mt. Desert; on the other hand, we may rejoice that she has not fallen far below herself, and that she does not strive to achieve popularity by vulgarity in incident, character, or language.

None of the stories included under the title 'Colonel Starbottle's Client' are worthy of the author's fame, yet each is, in some way, better than the best of the average story-writer. Facility in composition and perfect familiarity with scenes permanently picturesque go far to enable a man to turn out readable stories by the score. Excepting the last, these stories are readable and not too grievously disappointing; but in the "Ghosts of Stukely Castle" there is a flatness which we had not supposed could be achieved by any one who had ever risen above hopeless mediocrity.

The scene of Miss King's 'Tales of a Time and Place' is always in the far South, and many of the people are not black, yet not quite white, not quite French, yet definitely not American. Something of the grace and splendor of the old régime pervades Miss King's descriptions of Creole society, and, through all adversity, her great dames remain refined, courteous, and exquisitely natural. To investigate the truth of such charming portraits would be to risk the destruction of a faith most consolatory in a world from which the great dame seems to have vanished. Far better to enjoy unquestioning what Miss King describes with at least the appearance of scrupulous veracity. In narrating a slight episode, as in sketching a simple character, her touch is at once strong and delicate, but her power of invention fails to sustain a complicated plot. She dashes spasmodically from incident to incident, and though she always has her end in view, arrives at it through much incoherence. "Madrilène, or the Festival of the Dead," is the most powerful story in this volume. The wretched girl expresses an agony of despair which can be portrayed only by writers endowed with rare imaginative faculty.

The right to live for many seasons belongs to the little volume of Calabrian sketches en-

titled 'Don Finimondone.' Here are perfect sympathy with very humble people, humor without exaggeration, and just that touch of pathos which is inseparable from poverty accepted as a condition imposed by God. The nationality of the characters is very delicately yet distinctly accentuated, not by eccentric distortions of English idiom, but by that wealth of mordant irony and philosophical aphorism which is the legacy of history to the common tongue of the Latin races.

The Province of Expression: A search for principles underlying adequate methods of developing Dramatic and Oratoric Delivery. By S. S. Curry, Ph. D., Dean, School of Expression; Instructor of Elocution, Harvard College, etc. Boston: School of Expression. 1891.

THE name Elocution, which, even with our own early writers, was nearly equivalent to eloquence, having been subsequently transferred to the subsidiary art of delivery, is at last degraded by Dr. Curry to designate an offensive display of technique without soul or real art. This leaves him no better word than "expression" by which to designate the art usually termed elocution. In this essay, which it is certainly not too much to call thoughtful and refined, although it might be found disappointing to a reader who were to expect the profound philosophy to which the adepts of this art nowadays make pretensions, four different schools of delivery are recognized as traditional—the imitative, the mechanical (that of Rush), the impulsive, and the speculative (that of Delsarte). These are all more or less criticised, although not always with entirely convincing arguments. Especially Rush's method is condemned, partly on the ground that it is mainly based upon observations, not of a natural and universal style of expression, but only of a conventional and peculiar style—an allegation far too lightly supported—and partly on the ground that the mechanical application of its rules is found to produce results very odious. But there is a confusion here between the question of the truth and utility of the rules and of the value of a stupid, unrefined, and tasteless application of them. Elocution, in this, may be compared to the art of writing, the usual rules for which are universally acknowledged as sound, so that they cannot be violated with impunity. But let them be applied with never so much technical skill, yet in a soulless, perfunctory, and undiscriminating manner, and the result will be called an academical or rhetorical style. Precisely the same effect is too often produced by elocutionists of the school of Rush. But in the one case, as in the other, it is not the rules that are at fault, but the inartistic use of them.

Nor is it fair to expect that an elocutionist should be a great artist or orator; Mr. Mackaye himself, to whom Dr. Curry seems to assign a preëminent position among teachers, is not that. The truth is, that the attitude of mind in studying principles is so opposed to its attitude in applying them, that excessive devotion to the theory of any art is somewhat unfavorable to its practice. It is so in some measure even in that principal art to which rhetoric and elocution—if not, indeed, all other arts—are subsidiary, namely, the art of thinking and of feeling aright. And the more an art is of a subsidiary character, the more theory and practice are, or seem to be, at war.

When we inquire what Dr. Curry would propose in place of the four rejected methods, we do not find a very definite reply in this volume. He insists strongly upon training, but that is a matter of course; the whole question is what the method of the training shall be. He thinks it highly important to say that the art of delivery shall be made chiefly a manifestative, and only in small degree a representative, art. But this again seems to be too far back among first principles to escape vagueness. We are promised, however, nine succeeding volumes by Dr. Curry upon his art, so that we cannot expect that the first should contain anything more than generalities.

From Palm to Glacier. With an interlude. Brazil, Bermuda, and Alaska. By Alice Wellington Rollins. Putnams. 1892. 8vo, pp. x, 145, illustrated.

THIS attractive volume is not an itinerary or book of travel, but rather a chronicle of impressions. The journey from New York to Rio, touching at various Antillean and Brazilian ports, introduces the author to various aspects of tropical nature, human and otherwise. The mental and sentimental response to the environment, the hopeless struggle of the New England temperament against the invading languors of the tropics, are delicately and wittily portrayed. Here and there are charming word-pictures of nooks and vistas of the southern world. In an orange grove:

"Already the air is full of snowy perfume; it is just as we had heard it described, with the rich blossoms, the subtle fragrance, the green fruit, and the ripened golden globes, all on the same tree at once. But what we had never heard of was the delicate carpet under foot, of the white petals falling, falling, falling—I had almost said musically falling—in a constant, silent, soft, and snowy shower. There is nothing sad in the falling blossoms; there is not the slightest breeze that could seem to insist on their taking flight, and there is nothing to suggest decay. They seem to have detached themselves of their own accord, and to float willingly down in the rich gold sunshine, as if they had simply blossomed as long as they cared to."

After an "interlude" at Bermuda, Alaska was visited. In Taku Inlet, in front of the great glacier:

"We see the great icebergs cloven from the side of the mountain glacier without any apparent agency. The air is as still as if it were sultry. There is no wind or storm or lightning to crush and mar. The sun is brilliant, but not hot enough to melt a glacier. There is no enemy in sight with gigantic axe or subtle spear. Yet suddenly there is a sound like the booming of cannon, or a long reverberation like magnificent thunder; the ice is cracking; suddenly a thin slice cut from the great mass as smoothly as a slice of bread from a loaf, by some unseen sword of Damocles in the subtle forces of the air, loosens its hold and slips slowly down into water at its base 800 feet deep. It does not crumble and topple awkwardly over as rock would; it simply separates from the rest and slides smoothly, quietly, down, down. There is an instant's pause, then a rising fountain of displaced water like a great geyser, and a little later the great mass rises to the surface, and, broken into grottos and crumbs, goes sailing down the bay to greet other ships. . . . Sometimes a great snowy mass, arched at the prow and stern, and gleaming with golden sunshine, glides slowly past like Elaine's barge floating to Camelot; sometimes one arches over like a great-lipped shell, tinged with the deepest yet clearest rose color; sometimes they are hollowed out like great grottos, full of emerald light; and again they are like tiny mountains of transparent snow, filled with superb tints of blue."

Typography, paper, and binding are all choice, but the "process" illustrations are hardly fine enough to avoid a certain air of cheapness, the only jarring "motive" in the book.

The Dog in Health and in Disease, including his origin, history, varieties, breeding, education, and general management in health, and his treatment in disease. By Wesley Mills, M.A., M.D., D.V.S., etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. vii, 407, illustrated.

WHEN dogs are wounded or stricken by disease, they are usually turned over to the veterinary surgeon without inquiry as to his qualification. Dr. Mills, himself of the profession, does not believe a knowledge of the horse and of horse medicine sufficient. He advocates special studies of the diseases of the dog, of the effects of the drugs, and, as a necessary preliminary to an understanding of abnormal conditions, a thorough acquaintance with the animal in health. His book, a consequence of his intense interest in cynology, is a comprehensive and excellent treatise, apparently the first in its particular field. Nearly half of the volume treats of origin, classification, care, training, breeding, etc.; the remainder is filled with descriptions of the diseases, diagnoses, treatments, and medicines. On the whole, the work is well done; its recommendations are modern and humane. Its publication can hardly fail to result in improving the quality and condition of our friends the dogs, and it is suited to all who are interested in them.

Subsequent editions should correct a number of faults, grammatical or other, that have escaped the author's eye in this edition. There are thirty-nine good full-page illustrations of different races; they are scattered through the entire volume without references to their text, which again bears no references to them. To specify, the figure of the Irish wolfhound is opposite page 24, the description is on page 36; neither refers to the other, and the index omits any mention of either. The list includes only the full-page illustrations and ignores as many cuts of anatomy, effects of disease, and modes of treatment. A glossary for the technical terms is necessary. "Ears small, set well back, square, with the skull lying close to head," is due to oversight in proof-reading. Something deeper is occasionally in evidence of needed revision. The discussion of hydrophobia, p. 314, states that "the period of *incubation* or latency of the disease is more variable than in case of any malady known to us. It seems to vary between a few days (ten to fifteen) and many months, if not even years." It is added on page 318 that "as all animals bitten do not become rabid, it is not necessary to kill a dog bitten by a rabid animal at once, for he may wholly escape." Without the means of determining whether the virus is latent or incubating, it would seem, from our author's testimony, that assurance of safety lies only in immediately killing any dog that is bitten.

La Jeunesse de La Fayette, 1757-1792. Par A. Bardoux. Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1892. 8vo, pp. xii, 409.

THIS volume, treating of the life of Lafayette up to the time of his flight from France, is to be followed by a second, devoted to his subsequent career. It is giving the term "youth" rather an extended signification to make it include the thirty-fifth year of a man who was married at seventeen and a major-general at nineteen. At an age when most men of his station have but just entered on an active life, Lafayette was already a conspicuous figure in the world's history; and although his claims to our respect may rest more on his virtues than on his talents, it must be admitted that, in spite of his extreme

youth during his service in the American Army, he committed hardly any indiscretion where it was so easy to commit so many. M. Bardoux is not always as clear in his historical exposition as could be wished, and his style does not make up for the defects of his method. Readers who are familiar with the history of the period will get but little from him that is new, while those who are not will have to go to other sources for a distinct and connected narrative of the events in which Lafayette bore a conspicuous part. But, with all his limitations, M. Bardoux gives us a very pleasing picture of the character of his hero. The reader feels that in Lafayette he makes the acquaintance of a man of noble traits and attractive qualities; one whose very mistakes were such as could spring only from the purest motives and the warmest impulses. Especially charming are the glimpses the author affords of the domestic life of Lafayette: of the devoted affection subsisting between him and his wife; of the bringing up and home surroundings of Mme. de Lafayette, who was married before she reached the age of fifteen, and who, all through her life, loyally stood by her husband in his public career, although she would have preferred for him a private station. The pages given to such topics are the most valuable in the book.

M. Bardoux may also justly claim to have cleared the memory of Lafayette of all the charges of duplicity made against him, on the one hand by the Royalists and on the other by the Jacobins. The fact that he incurred the hostility of these two parties is only to his honor, and certifies to the courage and honesty with which he opposed them both in what he believed to be the best interests of his country. If he had stooped to make terms with the extreme revolutionists, he could probably have made himself the foremost man in France. Of the substantial and disinterested services he rendered to our country it is hardly necessary to speak. The American people will never cease to appreciate them, and have permanently adopted him as one of their national heroes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada. 1892. Appletons.
Bacheller, Irving. The Master of Silence. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Campbell-Praed, Mrs. December Roses. Appletons.
Constantenides, Prof. M. Neohellenica. Macmillan. $1.90.
Dounic, Benè. Portraits d'Ecrivains. Paris: Paul Delaplane.
Ebers, Georg. A Thorny Path. 2 vols. Appletons.
Emerson, P. H. A Son of the Fens. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Grandgent, C. H. German and English Sounds. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Griswold, W. M. France—Germany—Switzerland: A Series of Narratives of Personal Visits to Places therein famous for Natural Beauty or Historical Association. 3 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Griswold, W. M. Travel. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Hakes, Harry. The Discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. Wilkesbarre, Pa.: Robert Baur & Son.
Hunter-Duvar, J. The Stone, Bronze and Iron Ages. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hutton, A. W., and Cohen, H. J. The Speeches and Public Addresses of W. E. Gladstone. Vol. X. 1888—1891. London: Methuen & Co.
Ingersoll, Ernest. The Canadian Guide-Book. Part II. Western Canada. Appletons.
Irwin, J. A. Hydrotheraphy at Saratoga. Cassell. 50 cents.
Jacobson, Augustus. An Ounce of Prevention. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Kipling, R., and Balestier, W. The Naulahka: A Story of West and East. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lang, Andrew. Helen of Troy. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXI. Kennett—Lambart. Macmillan. $3.75.
Macquoid, Katharine S. Appledore Farm. National Book Co.
Malot, Hector. A Story without a Moral. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
McCaleb, Thomas. Anthony Melgrave. Putnams. $1.50.
McCosh, James. Our Moral Nature: Being a Brief System of Ethics. Scribners. 75 cents.
McKendrick, Prof. J. G. Life in Motion; or, Muscle and Nerve. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Meissner, Madame de. A Tcherkesse Prince. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
Middleton, Prof. J. H. Illuminated Manuscripts in Classical and Mediæval Times: their Art and their Technique. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Missing Friends; being the Adventures of a Danish Emigrant in Queensland (1871–1880). [Adventure Series.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Oman, C. W. C. The Story of the Byzantine Empire. Putnams. $1.50.
Overland Monthly. January—June, 1892. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
Parker, G. F. The Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland. Cassell. $2.50.
Parkin, G. R. Imperial Federation. Macmillan. $1.25.
Parr, Mrs. The Squire. Cassell. $1.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. The Heart of the Gospel. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Pike, Warburton. The Barren Ground of Northern Canada. Macmillan. $2.
Pilcher, J. E. First Aid in Illness and Injury. Scribners.
Platt, Arthur. The Odyssey of Homer. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pool, Maria L. Mrs. Keats Bradford. Harpers.
Revell, W. F. Browning's Criticism of Life. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Sales, Pierre. The Price of a Coronet. Cassell. 50 cents.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. Silva of North America. Part IV. Rosaceæ—Saxifragaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Schäfer, Prof. E. A., and Thane, Prof. G. D. Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. II., Part II. Longmans, Green & Co.
Serampore Letters; being the Unpublished Correspondence of William Carey and Others with John Williams. Putnams. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 21, 1892.

The Week.

THE adverse vote in the House on the Stewart Free-Coinage Bill removes the greatest menace from the financial and business interests of the country, and takes the silver question out of the political campaign. In our opinion it does more. It points the way to a repeal of the present silver law—the so-called Sherman Act of 1890, which Mr. Sherman himself has declared to be fraught with dangers in the future so grave that he would be as glad to repeal it as he was reluctant to vote for it. That measure is now the only menace to the financial stability of the country. It calls for an expenditure of about $4,000,000 per month for the purchase of silver bullion that is not wanted even as security for Government notes. This $4,000,000 per month takes the place of so much gold, for if it were not bought by the Government, it would form a part of the exportable produce of the country, like any other article which has a foreign market and which lessens our foreign indebtedness. The Democratic platform demands the unconditional repeal of this act. It does not substitute any other silver legislation in place of it. The Republican party is not seriously in favor of the act, and would be glad to get rid of it if the Senators representing mining camps in the West were not so numerous and so vicious. The act was forced upon the party, very much against its will, during the struggle over the Force Bill two years ago. After the present political campaign is ended, there will be no reason why this so generally dreaded and detested act should not be repealed—both parties joining in the work.

It is stated that the Senate Committee on Finance does not intend to report, even with an adverse recommendation, any of the tariff bills passed by the House and referred to it. Doubtless the smothering process will be more convenient for certain Republican Senators. There is Mr. Allison, for example, who, on September 30, 1890, said:

> "If there is any faith to be placed in the iron and steel industry of our country; if there be anything in the promises, the prospects, the projects of these men, then it will turn out that when the 1st of July, 1892, shall come, we shall be producing in our own country tin plate to a very large extent. If the great iron and steel industry in the United States will not, now that they are to be protected in the production of tin, engage in that production, and compel the people of the United States to pay large and undiminished prices to monopolies in other countries, *then this tin duty will be swept from your statute books.*"

It must now be perfectly clear to the Senator that there was no faith to be placed in the "promises" of two years ago, and that the prices are not only "undiminished," but greatly increased; and therefore we shall expect him, as a member of the Finance Committee, to do his best to report to the Senate, and endeavor to pass, the House bill embodying his own promise to "sweep the tin duty from your statute books."

Senator Washburn's view of the produce markets, as outlined in his speech for the Anti-Option Bill on July 11, is unique and most interesting. The substance of his theory is that the system of short selling "practically eliminates from the commerce of the country the operation of the law of supply and demand." We gather from the Senator's further remarks that this state of affairs is best illustrated by the operations of one Pardridge, a noted Chicago speculator, who was reputed, a couple of months ago, to have cleared a million dollars through his persistent "hammering" of wheat prices. The incident is worth recalling. The gentleman in question spent several weeks in offering contracts to deliver grain at a future date, and he did not insist upon getting the highest prices for his contracts. His theory was that the farmers had a large supply on hand which they were about to bring to market, whereas the foreign buyers, having their storage houses already stocked up, were in no hurry to increase their holdings. It was his belief that when this grain arrived at the market it would find few buyers, and that the price, by the natural law of supply and demand —which, therefore, could not have been "eliminated" at this stage of the game—would decline heavily. When this decline should take place, he proposed to buy wheat at the lower figures and fulfil his contracts. The event proved his judgment to have been altogether correct. But if it had turned out that the farmers had no such amount of wheat ready for market (thus decreasing the supply), or that the English granaries had been unexpectedly emptied (thus increasing the demand), a child might guess what would have happened to the Chicago operator. This hardly looks as if the law of supply and demand had vanished altogether. The whole truth of the matter is that Senator Washburn and his allies make their impression on careless or simple-minded people only by instilling the belief that grain speculation is a kind of witchcraft, which begins by ignoring every commercial principle, and ends by trampling in pure deviltry on the neck of the unlucky farmer. Why such magicians should not, for mere love of change, try their hand at "long" speculation—Mr. Washburn says they have done nothing but sell for three years—it is impossible to conceive.

Senator Quay as the champion of morality and religion in this country is an impressive figure. Under his pious leadership, and yielding to the convincing Scripture texts which his daily study of the Bible enabled him to bring forward, the Senate voted on July 13 that the appropriation for the World's Fair should be made only on condition that the gates be closed on Sunday. It was ideally fitting that this hypocritical piece of legislation should have been fathered by the man whom the religious press of the country has freely denounced as a stench in the nostrils of honest men. While keyed up to such an unwonted pitch of virtue, the Senate also voted that no liquors should be sold on the grounds of the Fair. This was really sublime in men who were at the moment standing above a restaurant which their votes and patronage keep alive, and in which all kinds of liquors are on sale, a full price-list of wines being officially published. We have heard of cynical politicians "pandering to the better elements of society," but if any Senator thinks to strengthen himself politically by such open thrusting of the tongue into the cheek while posing as a severe moralist, he must be counting upon an extraordinary number of hypocrites among his constituency. The Senate had the grace next day to reconsider its action in regard to liquor, although it insisted upon the Quay code of morality by which the Exposition must be closed on Sunday. The excuse given for this absurd action was that a lot of petitions for Sunday closing had been received. But the theory of the framers of the Government was that the Senate was to be the branch of Congress which would not be driven into folly by popular clamor; that its members would be independent enough to stand up for what was right even if the majority of the people for the moment appeared to be on the other side. Of late years this theory has pretty much broken down, and it is to the House, rather than the Senate, that we now look for conservative action.

The most salient argument advanced on either side during the discussion of the Sunday-closing question was this passage from the speech by Senator Palmer of Illinois:

> "I understand that all the saloon-keepers in Chicago are in favor of closing this institution on the Sabbath day. I can understand why it should be so. The multitudes that will go to Chicago at that time, instead of going into the Fair and witnessing the Exhibition, being there alone, strangers, will go about the saloons and places of that sort on Sunday. I understand that there is a perfect agreement on that point, and that the whiskey-sellers are in favor of closing the Fair on the Sabbath."

The "combine" of the Sabbatarians and the saloon-keepers in favor of Sunday closing of the Fair is one of the most remarkable spectacles witnessed in this country for a long time. It ought to open the eyes of some of the good people who

signed the petitions that went to Congress. Sunday opening has been urged for the reason, among others, that it would give a great many workingmen and their families a chance to visit the Fair which they would not otherwise get. As nobody was especially interested to discover the attitude of this class of people toward the subject, few statistics have been collected. One canvass, however, has been made. The International Iron-Moulders' Union, whose headquarters are in Cincinnati, have taken a vote of the local unions upon the Sunday-opening question, and the result is three to one in favor, the vote standing 13,695 for and 4,585 against. This is doubtless a pretty fair test of the feeling among all intelligent workingmen.

The scandal of a President's seeking and securing a renomination by promises of Federal offices has been again illustrated in the case of the Charleston (S. C.) Postoffice. Mr. Harrison recently sent to the Senate the nomination of William D. Crum, a negro, as Postmaster, but has been forced to withdraw it in order to prevent its rejection. Of course, the whites of Charleston objected to Crum on the ground of his color, as they would do in the case of any negro, but they won their fight against him solely by reason of Crum's course in the Minneapolis Convention. He went there as a Harrison delegate, but scandalously ratted to Blaine, and finally voted for Harrison, in pursuance, as the anti-Harrison men claim, of a bargain, which was reduced to writing, by which he was to have the postmastership in exchange for his vote. Crum cut so bad a figure before the Senate Committee on Post-offices when questioned regarding the matter that the anti-Harrison Republicans were confident they could defeat the nomination in the Senate, and the President withdrew it rather than suffer this humiliation. The whole difficulty, it will be seen, arose from the fact that Mr. Harrison used the Federal patronage in Crum's case, as in so many others, to extort a renomination.

After much travail the Republican National Committee has found a Chairman in Montana, after eighteen other men had been passed in review. His name is Carter. Some people say he is a silver-man, others say he is not. But this is really of no importance, since he is not selected for his views on the money question. The Committee wanted somebody who could and would pull. Plenty of men were in sight who could pull if they would, some who would if they could; but nobody was discovered, after four or five weeks of anxious search, who was both willing and able, except Clarkson and Carter. The former was ruled out by the President as too much of a Blaine man. The latter has apparently been selected by the President, or at all events is satisfactory to him. Mr. Carter's concern over questions of finance will relate solely to the size of checks made payable to his Committee and the ways of placing them where they will do the most good, not to the abstruse matters of coinage and ratios and premium on gold. Yet he should be warned that it is a mistake for him to suppose that he can gratify curiosity as to his real views on free coinage by saying, as he did to a reporter on Sunday, "I am a Republican, and that is all I wish to say on that subject." The *Tribune* was at pains to point out, in its interpretation of the silver plank on June 17, that free-coinage men could stand on it with perfect ease.

The helplessness of the Governor of Idaho in the presence of the rioting miners comes as a new illustration of the political recklessness of the Republican party in admitting such States to the Union. The Governor, in his appeal to the President for help, declared that the entire available force of the Idaho National Guard numbered but 196 men, and as the rioters mustered several hundred, he naturally shrank from exposing the whole military force of a sovereign State to annihilation. The mining-camp Senators have debauched the Senate and made it a far more dangerous body than the House of Representatives. If now these new States are not going to be able to protect life and property in a case of domestic disturbance, they will be as much of a burden on the central Government as if they had remained Territories. But so long as the Republicans have gained eight or nine votes in the Senate, with which to save the protective system and imperil our financial stability, we suppose nobody has a right to complain.

As was to be expected, the demagogues of both parties are trying to win popularity by devising laws against the "Pinkerton men." One Congressman has already introduced a bill making it unlawful for any transportation company doing an inter-State business to transport any body of armed men except those engaged in the military service of the United States, or of a State or Territorial government. The Senate has before it a resolution directing an inquiry "whether any private corporation, company, or organization in the State of Pennsylvania, or other States, has attempted to employ force against any of the people of the said State, or of the United States, in violation of the Constitution of the United States." Curiously enough, this resolution exactly covers the case of the rioters at Homestead. They are confessedly members of an organization in the State of Pennsylvania, and openly avow that they have employed force against some of the people of that State and of the United States, and that they will do it again. As those against whom they employed force were using no force and breaking no law, it is evident that the members of the Amalgamated Association were employing force in violation of the Constitution of the United States.

On the other hand, it is very doubtful if the Pinkerton men sent to Homestead constitute a body of armed men in such a sense as would make it possible to prohibit their movements without violating the Constitution. The question would be whether they were united in carrying arms for any unlawful purpose or with any hostility to any established government. It would be impossible to show this, for the very object of their existence is to support the laws against the attacks of riotous mobs. It will be a very serious matter to enact a general law prohibiting the carrying of arms by a body of men, in the face of the express provision of the Constitution that the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed. To devise a statute that could not be evaded would be no easy matter, as the Pinkerton men need not enter any State as a body, or carrying their arms; but it is not well to attempt legislation of this kind, even if it is known that it will not be effective, without the very gravest consideration. There is a good deal more involved in it than the issue between the Carnegie Company and its men.

Last year's grain harvest was so unequally distributed over the world that it exercised a very singular influence on the finances of the ensuing season. Not the least important of its results was the swelling of our own grain exports to Europe to an unprecedented figure, the deficiency in Europe's harvest being necessarily made good from this country's enormous surplus. Our exports of breadstuffs during the eleven months ending May 31 showed an increase of no less than $168,000,000 over the same period in 1891. Unfortunately, our farmers and financiers have to testify that this gain was not an unmixed blessing. Europe's industrial depression, arising largely from its ruined harvest, had immediate reflection in our own markets. Probably the best thing that could happen for the general welfare would be a bountiful harvest abroad this year, which would give to Europe a chance for commercial revival. Apparently this wish is to be gratified. The protracted rains of 1891 have not visited Europe's wheat fields this year, and except for Russia, where the recuperative powers of agriculture were paralyzed by the disasters of a year ago, a plentiful harvest is indicated. At the same time the forecast of our own Agricultural Bureau for July, which is usually accepted as accurate, shows that the grain harvest of the United States, though more bountiful than the average, will fall something like 500,000,000 bushels short of last year's. Altogether, this is a cause for congratulation. A repetition of last year's 612,000,000-bushel wheat harvest and 2,000,000,000-bushel corn yield would menace the

farmers with low prices and a congestion of product such as overwhelmed the cotton trade in 1891. How much we depend, even for profitable grain prices, upon industrial prosperity abroad, the closing season has forcibly taught us.

An interesting and important question, which has occasioned a good deal of conflict between the decisions of the courts of the different States, has just been passed upon by the Supreme Court of New York. A person indicted for grand larceny under the laws of this State was arrested in Wisconsin upon requisition of the Governor of New York and brought to this State for trial, but was tried for robbery instead of grand larceny, the indictment upon which the requisition was issued having been quashed. On conviction, the prisoner appealed, upon the ground that, according to a recognized principle of international law, he could not be tried for any offence other than that alleged in the requisition. The court, however, held that the relations between the States of this Union under the Constitution were different from those of two entirely independent sovereignties. The surrender of a person charged with a crime by the authorities of one country is either an act of comity on the part of the country making the surrender, or the carrying out of a treaty obligation. As the governments of the past have been as a rule despotic in character, it became necessary, in order to prevent the persecution of political offenders, to have it understood that when a fugitive was surrendered as an act of comity he should be tried for no other offence than that upon the ground of which his surrender was claimed, and this rule has been extended to the construction of extradition treaties. But, in the view of the Supreme Court of New York, extradition between the States of the Union is not governed by these rules. It is prescribed by the supreme law of the land, and is therefore not an act of comity, nor is the Constitution to be construed as a treaty. Treaties enumerate certain specific crimes, which are few in number, while the Constitution directs extradition between the States of persons charged with any crime, and it makes no difference that the offence charged is not a crime in the State from which the surrender is demanded, provided it is a crime in the State making the demand. There was a time when there were laws in the Southern States, designed to protect the institution of slavery, the infraction of which would have been regarded elsewhere as a virtuous act, and in those days there may have been some reason for restricting the right of extradition as narrowly as possible. But those days with their evils have passed away, and it is now rather to be hoped that a decision so obviously required for the enforcement of penal legislation may not be disturbed, although there is considerable authority, including, we believe, that of Judge Cooley, against it.

Immigration more than holds its own this year, the arrivals during June having been 73,120, against 68,317 in the same month last year, and 353,961 for the first half of 1892, as against 325,307 for the first half of 1891. There has been a falling off in the arrivals from every country of the United Kingdom, the whole number of Irish immigrants during the first six months of the present year being only 34,554. Germany has sent a few thousand more this year than in the same period of last year, and the Scandinavians have also been somewhat more numerous, but most of the increase in the grand total is due to the less desirable races, the Polish contingent having grown from 16,422 to 18,297, the Austrian from 17,843 to 20,127, and the Russian from 26,467 to 37,549. On the other hand, there is an ebb in the tide from Italy, the arrivals from January 1 to June 30, 1892, being only 42,090, against 49,627 in the same months of 1891, and during the twelve months ending with June this year but 60,944, against 75,143 during the twelve months ending with June, 1891.

A bulletin just issued by the Canadian census authorities shows that the proportion of foreigners to the total population is almost the same in Canada as it is in the United States, but that while during the last decade the foreign-born inhabitants in the States have, relatively to the aggregate population, increased, in the Dominion the reverse has been the case. In 1881, 14.20 per cent. of the Canadian population were foreign-born, and in 1891 but 13.50 per cent., a decrease during the decade of .70 per cent.; while in this country, on the other hand, the proportion of foreigners to the total population has risen from 13.32 per cent. in 1808 to 14.77 per cent. in 1890, an increase of 1.45 per cent. There are now only 80,480 natives of the United States in the Dominion, an increase of but 2,730 since 1881. All the older provinces except Nova Scotia have fewer resident natives of the United States than they had ten years ago. In an address made not many years before his death, the Earl of Beaconsfield told his hearers that immigrants were pouring into Manitoba from the northwestern States of the American Union. It is an amusing commentary upon this statement to find that in Manitoba today there are only 3,063 natives of this country, and that they constitute but 2 per cent. of the total population of the Province.

The rate of natural increase is doubtless greater among the French than among the English-speaking portions of the Canadian population. On the other hand, the French element, while furnishing probably more than its proportionate share of emigrants to the States, receives little or no reinforcement from immigration. In 1891 there were but 5,377 natives of France resident in Canada, as against no less than 555,648 natives of England, Scotland, Ireland, and the United States. It is not, therefore, surprising that the proportion of the French-speaking to the total population has slightly decreased in the Dominion, as a whole, falling from 30.1 per cent. in 1881 to 29.4 per cent. in 1891, and that this decrease has taken place in every Province except New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and Quebec. It has been relatively the greatest in the new and rapidly growing western provinces. In British Columbia and Manitoba, while the English-speaking population has more than doubled during the decade, the French-speaking has remained almost stationary, and there has been an absolute decrease of that element in Ontario and the Northwest Provinces. The French Canadians are moving southward and to a less extent eastward, and hardly at all westward.

The result of the few remaining elections in England can be predicted with so much certainty as to make it safe to say that the Government will lack forty-two votes of a majority in the next Parliament, and the Ministers must therefore retire. The members will probably stand as follows: Unionist 314, and Opposition 356, but in Great Britain the Unionists are in a majority, having 292 votes to 275 opposed. It is therefore contended by the Unionists that home rule for Ireland has been rejected by those who should confer it, the Irish vote being disregarded as that of an interested party, and Ireland, moreover, being over-represented in proportion to her population. As to the popular vote, it amounts to about 2,000,000 for the Unionists and 2,200,000 opposed. But if the Irish vote were excluded, home rule would not have a majority in its favor. Moreover, owing to the fact that many Unionist seats were not contested, their vote does not represent their full strength. However this may be, the question of home rule is to be settled by Parliament, no matter how constituted, and an Irish member's vote will count for as much in making law as that of an Englishman. But these calculations indicate the policy which will probably be followed by the Unionists, namely, a resort to obstruction and dilatory proceedings, upon the plea that Parliament is not really representative, hoping that the incongruous elements of the Opposition may fall out or prove unmanageable, and so make another appeal to the country necessary. Under these circumstances everything depends upon the conduct of the Irish members, who hold the balance of power; and this being so, the unexpected is as likely to occur as anything that can be predicted before the meeting of Parliament.

THE PULPIT ON THE HOMESTEAD RIOTS.

It was inevitable that there should be a great rush of sermons on the Homestead riots on Sunday week. As many as a score were more or less fully reported in the newspapers as delivered in this city and Boston, in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and other cities. Doubtless hundreds were preached throughout the country. It is, in fact, an increasing tendency with clergymen to preach on "topics of the times." This, perhaps, results in part from their deepening sense of the rivalry with Sunday newspapers into which they are more and more brought. However that may be, it was certain in advance that the labor troubles at the Carnegie works, which had been so general a theme of conversation during the week before, would furnish a text for many sermons on Sunday.

As a preparation for their pulpit labors on that day, it is greatly to be wished that the preachers whose discourses we have seen had read and laid to heart an article in the *International Journal of Ethics* for July, entitled, "What should be the Attitude of the Pulpit to the Labor Problem?" Its author is a clergyman, Mr. W. L. Sheldon, and what he has to say is for the most part marked by extraordinary sobriety of judgment. In general, he urges the need of greater modesty on the part of clergymen in their deliverances on the various phases of the labor question. He admits that there is a great temptation to "speak with authority," and "with the same kind of an emphasis on practical affairs as in the sphere of pure religion." But he maintains that, if it is the fact, as he believes it is, that ministers are in danger of speaking from the pulpit as though they possessed "a superior judgment or insight," when in reality they are "speaking on matters they know nothing about," it is better to attempt an humbler rôle, lest even the people who now "listen to us with awe" will find out that the assumption of "wider knowledge" is baseless.

Mr. Sheldon would have the clergy stand on "a much more commonplace level." He would have them admit that they are but men, like other mortals, "waiting for guidance." He advises them, first of all, to make a more thorough study of the relations of labor and capital; to get the point of view of Socialists and Anarchists, as well as the standard writers; above all, to come into personal touch with both employers and wage-earners. This done, he thinks "the supreme work for the pulpit on the labor problem should be to explain and point out the symptoms, rather than to suggest the remedy or cure." An attitude of conciliation and sympathy is the proper one for the clergyman, and is as far as the average minister is qualified to go. If he sets himself to declaring what is just and what is unjust in social relations and in labor difficulties, he will not only fail to accomplish anything, but will soon find that he "has lost his influence for ever."

No such lowly and sensible conception of their true function controlled the tongues of most of those clergymen whose prompt sermons on the Homestead disturbances have been reported in the press. In the majority of cases they spoke as judges and dividers over their fellows, though it is little to say that their utterances were ill-considered, their awarding of blame or praise most crude or dangerous, and their proposed remedies vague and inconsequential. Some of them went great lengths in justifying the riotous strikers. Said the Rev. W. D. P. Bliss of Boston:

"Homestead has spoken to the country. It has thrilled the ranks of labor with new life, new courage, new manliness. Workmen have met and defeated the desperado hirelings of capital, and for their victory we need to thank God."

Dr. Louis A. Banks of the same city "pulled Carnegie over the coals with a vengeance." The Rev. Alfred Henry, "a prominent west-side pastor" of Chicago, "defended and upheld the locked-out millmen, and claimed that all men situated as they were would have done what they did." The Rev. C. H. Woolston of Philadelphia said:

"There has grown up a body of men in this country who believe that the mills, the factories, the mines are the auction-blocks of old, by which they oppress their workmen as they did in the slavery days. One of these said recently that he did not believe in raising the wages of his men because it would give them more idle time. He has not learned that slavery is over. Let the guns that flashed at Homestead proclaim that in this country slavery is over for white and black."

As to the causes of the difficulty, there appears to have been a great diversity of opinion. The Rev. George P. Wilson of Philadelphia thought that "commercialism" was at the bottom of it, resulting in "the alienation of classes," so that "the poor come to hate the Christ of the capitalists, whom they hate." Dr. H. C. McCook of the same city said that the outrages "were the product of our American lawlessness." The Rev. H. Z. Duhring, also of Philadelphia, declared that "organized capital, as represented by the great Carnegie Company, must be held responsible for precipitating the whole trouble." But it was reserved for the Rev. Duncan MacGregor, likewise of Philadelphia, to uncover the *fons et origo* of all, which he did in the following lucid way:

"I will tell the cause. Let it stand out clearly before the whole world. I answer, the cause is social in its nature. I answer, the dash of bullets and blood, of brooms and brushes, of wrathful women and woful sounds of curse and carnage and contagion at Homestead, was the dashing surge of a great subterranean sea—a sea wide as the civil world, a sea that chafes under all civil governments."

When we come to the question of remedies, we find equal diversity in the way of practical suggestions, and great vagueness in the religious cures brought forward. Dr. William Boyd of Newark thought that "the only solution" was for capital and labor "to realize that their relations are not antagonistic but reciprocal, and apply the golden rule." Mr. Woolston of Philadelphia was of the opinion that "the solution of all the workingmen's difficulties is in the ballot." The rhetorical Mr. MacGregor, already quoted, saw hope in the advice: "Let the iron king and the puddler stand side by side as brothers." Mr. Wilson said: "The Gospel of Christ furnishes a sufficient and the only antidote"; but if he stated what it was, the reporter did not catch it. But for the completest and most hopeless statement of the religious remedy we do not need to go beyond what was said in Homestead itself by the Rev. Mr. Thompson:

"When the world shall turn from seeking its own selfish ends, all immoral efforts of self-aggrandizement will be things of the past. We shall then indeed have 'triumphant democracy.' When Carnegie is not king, but when Christ is the acknowledged Lord of Hosts [sensation], then the lion of capital shall lie down with the lamb of labor, and there will be no Pinkertons to destroy or harm."

It would probably be unfair to judge the pulpit as a whole by such melancholy instances. We gratefully record the fact that many clergymen were silent on the riots, and thereby did a great deal to raise the reputation of their profession for intelligence. But the extracts we have cited are enough to show that the partial knowledge and the uncertainty which clergymen display in private conversation about labor troubles, do not pass into certainty and authority as soon as they mount the pulpit stairs. There can be no doubt that, as intermediaries between employers and workingmen, ministers are in a position to do a work within the power of no other class; as social theorists they are so plainly without inspired wisdom that we think it would be far better for them to take Mr. Sheldon's advice and not speak as if they had it.

WARRING PROTECTIONISTS AT HOMESTEAD.

The Homestead episode has given rise to some moralizing on the part of the protectionist press which is sound enough, as far as it goes, but which rests upon principles of much wider application than these journals recognize. They counsel the riotous workmen that they have no right to exercise any compulsion in obtaining from their employers such remuneration for their labor as they desire, or in preventing other workmen from taking their places. They have a right to obtain as high wages as possible in a free competitive market, and to enter into combination with one another for this purpose; but this right, if it exists at all, is necessarily common to all men, and its recognition implies the condemnation of practices inconsistent with it. Trade unions are, therefore, laudable institutions in so far as they assist their members in obtaining the fair market value of their labor, but they become mischievous when they are employed in depriving capitalists of the use of their property, or

in depriving workmen who are outside of the unions of their inalienable right to support themselves by laboring for whoever wishes to hire them. And what is right is also expedient, for the interests of workingmen are bound up with those of the community, and that community will be most prosperous in which capitalists are most encouraged to invest their money by the knowledge that they will be protected in the free use of it, and in which laborers are sure of obtaining employment without encountering any other hindrances than such as are involved in the natural adaptation of the supply of labor to the demand.

These principles, it is unnecessary to remind our readers, we have steadfastly endeavored to maintain, even at times when there seemed to be a pretty general disposition to ignore them. They need to be laid down, over and over again, line upon line and precept upon precept, for they are by no means intuitively apprehended by mankind, but have been evolved by a very long and painful experience of the evils of oppression, and every generation has to be educated up to them. In fact, their apprehension constitutes political education, and a community where they were universally accepted would find little practical difficulty in acting upon them. Simple as they are, they are but special cases under a more general principle—the principle that every human being is entitled to pursue happiness in his own way, subject only to such limitations as experience has shown to be indispensable to the maintenance of this right for all. This is the spirit which breathes in our Declaration of Independence, this is the principle which is formulated and applied in our Bills of Rights and in our Constitutions. It is the recognition of this principle that has given the institutions of our country their wonderful stability, and it is only by disregarding this principle that these institutions can be overthrown.

But with what consistency can protectionists preach such doctrines as this to the members of the trade unions? Why do they behold the mote that is in the laborer's eye and consider not the beam in their own? It is of the essence of the theory of protection that the free exchange of the products of labor should be restricted in order that those who have procured the restrictions may dispose of their products at enhanced prices. To accomplish this end, they resort to the very means which they condemn when resorted to by laborers, viz., compulsion. They endeavor to deprive those who would employ their capital in certain directions of the opportunity to use it as they choose, just as the Homestead laborers endeavor to regulate their employers' use of their own property. They endeavor to prevent laborers from selling their labor in a free market for the best price that it will bring, just as the trade-unionists endeavor to prevent non-union laborers from working at trades which the unionists wish to monopolize. For it is a natural right that a man should exchange the wealth that he has produced for other wealth that better satisfies his wants, whether that other wealth be produced in this country or elsewhere. It is also a natural right that a laborer should expend his strength in producing goods for exchange, without having his remuneration lessened by tolls levied upon the materials that he employs and upon the goods that are exchanged for his products. If it is justifiable for an American manufacturer to compel the farmer who sells his wheat in Liverpool to pay a tax upon the clothing or the tools that he receives in exchange, or else to pay a higher price for the protected articles, it is justifiable for the Homestead workmen to compel their employers to pay them higher wages, or else allow their works to lie idle. If it is right for American manufacturers to force their fellow-citizens to buy their wares through the means of a protective tariff, it cannot be wrong for American laborers to force the manufacturers to buy their services by excluding fellow-laborers from the competition.

It may be urged that what the manufacturers do is done in conformity to the law of the land, while the aim of the laborers is illegal. But the objection is irrelevant, for the admonitions addressed to the Homestead workmen have not been based upon legal grounds, but upon the principles of justice and expediency which we have stated above. All that we contend is, that these principles cannot be invoked by protectionists in condemnation of the course of the Homestead workmen without condemning themselves. And it must be added that in procuring the sanction of the law for the compulsory payments which they have exacted from the country, the protected manufacturers are believed by nearly if not quite a majority of its inhabitants not only to have abused the powers of government, but also to have put themselves in position to do so by the expenditure of money. It is not from devotion to the cause of good government that the Senate has come to be filled with men of great wealth representing the protected interests, and we should perhaps not now be living under the McKinley tariff had not Mr. Wanamaker obtained from these interests the $400,000 which he put in Mr. Quay's hands a few days before the last Presidential election.

There remains but one argument to which protectionists can resort. They say, and doubtless many of them sincerely believe, that the increased profits which they obtain by taxing their fellow-citizens are expended so as to promote the general welfare. The conclusive reply to this is, that the same would be true of the increased wages which trade-unions may secure by compelling their employers to pay them higher wages than non-union laborers are willing to work for. Every consideration which is appealed to by manufacturers can be appealed to with equal force by their employees. It would only be necessary for these employees to secure legislation compelling employers to hire only union laborers, in order to put them upon exactly the same footing as protected manufacturers. If law makes right, they would then occupy a position equally defensible morally. Such legislation has been adopted by the London County Council, so far as lay in its power, and recently came near passing the national assembly of France. It is most earnestly to be desired by those who have the future welfare of this country at heart that such a policy as this may never be adopted here. But if we are to escape it, with all the corruption and oppression and ruin that will attend it, the policy of protection to favored manufacturers must be definitely repudiated, for the two policies are identical in principle. The public conscience has been so long debauched by protectionist excesses that it is not easily aroused; but it would be an evil omen were the riot and bloodshed at Homestead not to awaken thoughtful men to the dangers of tolerating longer the perversion of the Government, which is maintained by all, to the pecuniary support of favored classes.

AN OBJECT-LESSON IN CURRENCY EXPANSION.

THE Treasury bulletin, showing the amount and distribution of the country's money supply at the opening of the current month, gives data for an interesting chapter of financial history. Comparison will naturally be made with the statement of the same date in 1891; for the intervening period is the Government's fiscal year, and it is the events of that period with which the Treasury officers must presently deal in making account of their stewardship.

What will first attract attention in the comparison of results is the remarkable expansion in the circulating medium. Excluding the funds held in the Treasury, the money in use in the United States has increased during the year no less than $105,632,631. This increase has been paralleled but three times in our financial history, and on each of these occasions the increase was directly traceable to the great civil convulsion of the sixties. In the fiscal year 1863, the currency expansion of nearly $261,000,000 was due wholly to the new issues of State bank notes and of Government legal tenders, the bill authorizing which was enacted immediately before the fiscal year began. In the other two years referred to, 1880 and 1881, the resumption of specie payments, followed by the conversion and heavy redemption of the old war loans, turned enormous amounts of gold out of the Treasury and into general circulation.

No convulsion, civil or other, preceded the latest movement for currency expansion. It was the result of an experiment made under no pressure of necessity, and solely in deference to an extrava

gant financial theory. It has been already observed that the increase of 1863 consisted of greenbacks, and that of 1880 and 1881 of gold. Of last year's increase in the circulating medium, over $57,000,000 was in Treasury notes based upon purchased silver bullion, $19,500,000 in silver certificates, $4,000,000 in fractional silver coin (which this Administration has used with unprecedented eagerness to pay its bills), and the rest—thanks to the accident of a rich harvest and large imports of specie during the winter—in gold. How much of a figure the gold will cut in next year's returns, if Secretary Foster is driven to the last resort of selling bonds in order to keep good his specie reserve, may readily be imagined.

There is nothing novel in the general facts thus pointed out. To the silver-coinage fanatic they are undoubtedly gratifying in themselves; for certainly we have here the "increase in money"—particularly silver money—of which there has been so much eager talk. The country's money circulation per capita, which for a decade had averaged $22.50, the supply keeping remarkably even pace with the increase in population, rose abruptly in 1891 to $23.41, and in 1892 to $24.47, and here, no doubt, the free-coinage agitator will find food for especially agreeable reflections. We cordially recommend his use of these statistics in the manufacturing districts and among the cotton-growers of the South. An application of his favorite theory to these very figures, whereby he might demonstrate that each of his hearers is by virtue of statistics 9 per cent. richer than he was in 1889, would be a practical and altogether commendable means of bringing his opponents to book. The South, through its Representatives in Congress, has been and is still pleading persistently for currency expansion, with a vague notion that if there could only be "more money to go around," the Southerner would be sure to capture a share of it. Well, here is the currency already expanded, and yet the petitioner is complaining that he has been losing money ever since 1890. If an increase of a hundred millions in the country's circulation has been attended on his part by increasing poverty, what is he to expect from further expansion?

When the farmer can rid himself of the pestiferous notion that he is bound to get his share in the new money, on a basis of numerical proportion, whether he has anything to exchange for it or not, the "silver problem" will be near its solution. The cotton-grower's stock of money steadily decreased while the Government's stock of manufactured money was as steadily increasing; and the reason was perfectly plain. The cotton markets were over-supplied, and nobody needed the planter's product badly enough to pay the planter's price for it. If the money in circulation to-day were twenty-six hundred millions instead of sixteen hundred millions, the situation would be exactly the same. The silver-miner sells his bullion to the broker, and the broker sells it to the Government, and the Government pays him in "expanded currency." Somebody makes a handsome profit out of the operation, but it is not the farmer, nor the merchant, nor the salaried employee, nor even the Government. The man who gets money which he would not otherwise have had, is the man for whose product the Government has created an artificial market. The place where the money finally reposes, at the present time, is most likely to be the great city banks, which already, in the dull business year, have more deposits than they know what to do with.

A much more profitable field of investigation for the unfortunate cotton-planter would be the conditions which regulate his along with other trades. If he would but heed the signs of the times, he might discover that violent fluctuations in the circulating medium, such as he and his representatives have been forcing upon the country, destroy confidence, paralyze industry, and bring down their first and heaviest load of calamity upon the heads of the very people in whose name the experiment was demanded.

COEDUCATION IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

THE question of the higher education of women in Germany seems about to enter upon a new stage. The Government, a few months ago, required each university to express its opinion upon the expediency of admitting women to lectures; and several, notably Göttingen, have declared themselves in favor of doing so. Prof. Herman Grimm has undertaken to speak for the University of Berlin, and he publishes his conclusions in an article in the Berlin *National-Zeitung*, which is a model of dispassionate reasoning, and is sure to attract wide attention.

He summarizes at the outset the prevailing objections to coeducation in general, which are nowhere urged more strongly than in Germany. In the first place, there is an impression that women are, from their very nature, incapable of acquiring the thorough knowledge which is expected of every boy as a matter of course.

"I myself," says Prof. Grimm, "shared this opinion without being able to account for it. Our very women believe it to be true. In other countries people think differently. In England and America there exists a mass of biographical literature bearing on the careers of men and women. There coeducation of young men and women is considered as something the expediency of which need not be demonstrated."

The German girl, it is true, is much less self-reliant than her American and English sister, but is not this very difference the result of different educational methods? A German girl is hardly ever educated with a view to her being obliged to support herself, and yet not only to the women themselves and their relatives, but to the State, is it of vital interest to educate them so as to make them self-reliant and, if necessary, self-supporting. Practically, only two avenues are open to women desiring a higher education, namely, the practice of medicine and the profession of a teacher. The need of female physicians has been so clearly demonstrated as to open for them the doors of some European universities. Can the State afford to do less for those who wish to become competent teachers?

The objections urged against the admission of women to the lectures in the philosophical faculty are twofold. There is the still lingering fear that the young men may be affected unfavorably by the presence of the women—a fear dispelled by the experience of the United States and England; and there is the belief that the supposed intellectual difference in the two sexes, or, at all events, the difference in their receptivity, would make it difficult for the teacher to adhere to one standard in addressing a mixed audience. Prof. Grimm seems disposed to accord full weight to the latter objection. A lecturer, in order to be in full *rapport* with his hearers, must address a homogeneous audience. Speaking for himself, Prof. Grimm says, he might perhaps object to the admission of women because he found it difficult to depart from his established custom in addressing young men only; and if he admitted women at all he would tell them frankly in advance that their presence would be ignored. But while, apparently, an adherent of the theory which assigns to men and women different reasoning powers, he is very far from conceding that a woman's intuitive perception can in any way be impaired by severe application to studies.

"Such an assumption," he says, "is not borne out by a single example. To restrain women on such grounds from the study of literature and art, or to lower the standard of these studies, either in form or in substance, in the case of female students, is entirely out of the question. If there is a public demand for female teachers of literature and the history of art, it would be wrong not to offer aspirants for such positions the most thorough public instruction, suitable alike to men and women. If I continue to lecture in my old way and ignore my few female listeners, it may well be hoped that my successor will be better fitted for his task. Surely, no such differences are recognized in the study of mathematics and physics."

Prof. Grimm is too great an admirer of the German universities, "perhaps the only corporate bodies whose right of self-government seems incontestable," and too jealous a guardian of the rights of the German student, to favor an enforced change to coeducation. It may be that the State will ultimately find it expedient to establish separate institutions for the instruction of women; but until that is done, it certainly seems judicious to ask the existing ones to open their doors, wherever possible, to well-qualified female applicants. "To compel university professors," he says, "to admit women, seems inconceivable, but it would seem to be equally impossible to enforce ancient restrictions concerning the admission of women, or to prevent professors from exercising their discretion in the

light of existing conditions." He illustrates his own practice in this respect as follows:

"Some time ago there called upon me an American lady, the daughter of German parents, who, as she said, had received leave of absence from her husband for the purpose of studying in Germany the history of art. She and her husband were amateur photographers, and she had thus imbibed an interest in the subject, and intended to deliver lectures on the history of art in the city where she resided and where much interest was taken in the subject. In fact, she had done so already, but she felt, in spite of a fair acquaintance with the general literature of the subject, that her lectures were a more or less mechanical reproduction of her own reading, and that it would be necessary for her to study in Europe. She had visited England, France, and Italy, and wanted now to finish her studies in Germany. She was free to confess that wherever in this country she had so far applied for instruction, she had been unable to impress the instructors with the seriousness of her aims, and she therefore requested me earnestly to give her permission to attend my lectures.

"I was most favorably impressed with the evident truthfulness of this lady, who was accompanied by her daughter, a charming girl of thirteen. Nevertheless, I could not grant her request, but I induced one of my colleagues, Prof. Frey, to give her once a week instruction in the literature of art history, which enabled her to prosecute her studies at home. Prof. Frey was highly pleased with the diligence of his pupil, who at the end of the semester returned to America to utilize her newly acquired knowledge in procuring a library devoted to art history for her native town.

"About the same time there called on me another American lady, a teacher, who also wished to attend my lectures, particularly those on German literature. She spoke as intelligently and with as much knowledge of her subject as did the other lady, and I recommended her also to a colleague of mine, who instructed her and was very well satisfied with her progress. A few days ago she again called on me, and once more asked for permission to attend my lectures. I granted the request, but I do not consider that I have established a binding precedent, and shall reserve the right of saying yes or no in each individual case."

Prof. Grimm forcibly contrasts the rather humiliating position which German women bent on intellectual pursuits occupy in their country, with the greater freedom enjoyed by women of equal intelligence elsewhere. He says that not a few literary women of his acquaintance —not writers of fiction, but scientific workers in the best sense of the word— are positively embarrassed by their position, and "fairly apologize for having done such good work." He points to the United States and England, where women have long since taken their recognized place in science, and are able to hold their own in conversation with men of eminence with a confidence born of equal opportunities and equal rights. "A German woman interested in the intellectual problems of the day involuntarily shrinks from discussing them with men, because of the depressing consciousness of her defective training." This feeling of inferiority reacts, in turn, on the men, whose domestic life suffers from the lack of common intellectual interests between them and their wives. The evil is augmented by the excessive devotion to music on the part of the women, which crowds out more profitable employments and leads to "intellectual ossification."

The old prejudice which sees in the pursuit of knowledge by woman a departure from her place in nature Prof. Grimm does not consider worthy of discussion. Women have at all times been compelled to devote their attention to business matters, and it has never been asserted that they neglected on that account their duties as wives and mothers. Is it, then, to be assumed that they will be less dutiful if devoted to science and art? Prof. Grimm lays particular stress on the important position won by women within recent years in the realm of art, owing entirely to the more adequate instruction now within their reach. He speaks with all the authority of one who is generally considered the foremost art critic in Germany when he says:

"I well remember the general status of female portrait-painting thirty years ago. A picture by a woman at once proclaimed the insufficiency of her instruction. Artists like Angelica Kauffmann and Mme. Lebrun were exceptions belonging to a remote past, whose recurrence was not to be looked for. The first artist whose work was like a man's was Rosa Bonheur. But he who traverses the Berlin art exhibitions of to-day will have to admit that perhaps the majority of all good portraits are the work of women. It is true, many of these portraits have no high artistic merit, but neither have the portraits painted by men. Formerly a portrait painted by a woman betrayed a certain want of clearness, a lack of correct modelling, as well as a vagueness of outline. These defects are still found in some; in others they have entirely disappeared, and the reason of this lies entirely in the changed instruction."

Prof. Grimm, it will be seen from this brief summary of his exhaustive essay, cannot be called an enthusiastic advocate of coeducation, but he takes a scholarly, patriotic, and humane interest in everything pertaining to the intellectual advancement of women in Germany. "Men have no right," he says, "to prohibit women from making use of public institutions where they believe they can acquire the knowledge they need; for there exists to-day a universal disinclination to be unjust." This sentiment ought to lie at the root of all discussion of the subject, and deserves to be pondered in other countries besides Germany.

TERCENTENARY OF DUBLIN UNIVERSITY.

DUBLIN, July 9, 1892.

IT is a commonplace to say that seats of learning are among the most enduring of human institutions. It will be readily admitted that any great educational institution which, like Trinity College, Dublin, has lasted, with a growing fame, for 300 years, is amply entitled to celebrate its tercentenary with appropriate honors. In the Memorial Ode which was sung at the commemoration of its first centennial anniversary, Nahum Tate, the poet-laureate of the occasion, was fain to predict for his Alma Mater, even at that day, a splendid future which

> "Should Liffey make as proud a name
> As that of Isis and of Cam";

and though this pious augury of the College bard may not as yet have been fully realized, yet it is none the less true that Trinity College, while sedulously preserving its distinctive place in the university culture of the United Kingdom, has moved steadily forward in the widening range of its studies, in the multiplication of its schools, in the increasing fame of its graduates, and in the growing number of its students.

Founded by Queen Elizabeth as a bulwark and defence of Protestantism in a land faithful to the "Old Church," and endowed with many munificent gifts by her successors and by the other patrons of learning whose names are publicly recited in Trinity Chapel on the afternoon of every first Trinity Sunday in the Church year, the College is rich to-day in its annual revenues, in its commodious halls, in its famous library, in its well-equipped astronomical observatory, and in the emoluments of its fellowships. Almost all the buildings which give it an architectural dignity are said to date from the eighteenth century. In a sumptuous memorial volume, entitled 'The Book of Trinity College, Dublin,' a copy of which has been courteously presented by the Provost and Senior Fellows to all the delegates from sister institutions in attendance at the tercentenary celebration, it is stated that during the eighteenth century "a new conception of what the country owed to the University and the University promised to fulfil, entered into men's minds. Grants of hundreds now became grants of thousands; salaries were no longer pittances but prizes; the Fellows of the College became dignitaries not only on account of their position but their wealth; and the much-tried and long-struggling College at length attained security, respect, and influence throughout the country." The curriculum of the College, from being fixed by what is known as the "statutes of Laud," and from being conducted in a purely catechetical way by oral exercises, was gradually released from its theological tether and from its cast-iron moulds, and was broadened in its scope, while being at the same time liberalized in its methods of instruction.

The earlier part of the present century marks, it is true, a period of decadence, or rather of suspended vitality, in the history of Trinity College. It was during this period that, in the dearth of her culture, she was dubbed "the Silent Sister"—a name which still clings to her in the "jocosities" of academic banter, though she has long since lived down the reproach. Certainly we cannot say that any sister in the academic family deserves to be called tongue-tied who has been the nursing mother of sons so numerous, whose words have gone out to the ends of the world. The names of but a few can be recited here. James Ussher, the learned Archbishop of Armagh, whose Old Testament Chronology still survives in some editions of the King James Bible; Henry Dodwell, the prolific writer of his day; Farquhar and Congreve, playwrights whose dramas are still read by students of English letters; Thomas Parnell, known to all by his "Hermit" and his "Hymn to Contentment"; Toplady, whose "Rock of Ages" is sung in the churches of universal Christendom; Charles Wolfe, whose lyric on the "Burial of Sir John Moore" has made the tour of the world; Thomas Moore, whose Anacreontics and "Lalla Rookh" have delighted so many men and maidens in the salad days of their youth; Sir Philip Francis, reputed by many besides Lord Macaulay as the author of the Junius Letters; the good Bishop Berkeley, whom Alexander Pope, no lavish eulogist, has praised as being adorned with "every virtue under heaven"; Bishop Magee, the redoubtable champion in his time, of the Trinitarian theology; Richard Brinsley Sheridan, orator, wit, and dramatist; the pure-hearted Lord Falkland, who fell on

an early battle-field of the Great Rebellion, "ingeminating 'Peace, peace,'" as Clarendon phrases it; orators like Plunket and Curran and Grattan; barristers and jurists like Barry Yelverton or Sir Jonah Barrington; critics of philosophy like William Archer Butler; mathematicians like Sir William Rowan Hamilton, the inventor of the Method of Quaternions, who finds, in a different branch of mathematics, a worthy successor in the present Provost of Trinity College, Dr. Salmon; novelists like Charles Lever, whose description of college life in 'Charles O'Malley' is dear to all the sons of Trinity—these and such as these shine as stars in the crown of Dublin University.

But perhaps the three greatest names which Trinity College carries on the roll of her graduates must be sought in Oliver Goldsmith, Dean Swift, and Edmund Burke. It has been said of the University of Leyden that it would have abundantly vindicated its right to be if it had produced no other alumnus than Hugo Grotius, the founder of International Law. Certainly as much may be said of the University (Dublin University and Trinity College, it need not be said, are convertible terms) which has produced an Oliver Goldsmith, whose 'Vicar of Wakefield' still maintains its classic place even in this novel-reading age, which trained the genius of a Dean Swift, in whom the melancholia of a cynic, the mocking wisdom of an Irish Democritus, and the heart of a statesman were concealed beneath the surplice of a priest, and which gave to the world an Edmund Burke, in whose writings, as Coleridge thought, the germs of all political philosophy may be found for the instruction and reproof of this living age.

We are reminded by the compilers of 'The Book of Trinity College' that Oxford has been called "The University of great movements, Cambridge, the University of great men." We are reminded, too, that Oxford has been called "the home of lost causes, and forsaken beliefs, and impossible loyalties." But for the Irish sister of these renowned seats of learning it is claimed that she has had a far different career from that of either, not only because she is younger in years, but because she has a type of culture essentially her own. The Irish College, it is frankly conceded, does not lie, like the Oxford "Queen of Romance, steeped in sentiment and whispering from her towers the last enchantments of the Middle Ages." It is admitted, even by the most loyal of her devotees, that to sentiment Trinity is a stranger. She lives in a workaday world, because she lies at the heart of a metropolis, and no one, says the writer from whom we are quoting, "who knows her history or who has breathed her keen, disillusionizing air, would conceive as possible the fostering of an intellectualism such as that of Newman under the shadow of her Greek porticos." And, it is added, "when we call to mind her position in the heart of a country misunderstood and misgoverned for centuries, we cannot but marvel that she has so serenely kept the *via media* between political, philosophical, and social extremes. At once less conservative and less radical than her sisters, a dry intellectual light has been her guide."

Such, in brief, is the venerable seat of learning which has summoned the literary and scientific world to bring to her the homage of its congratulation on the occasion of her tercentenary commemoration. And representatives of the learned world have come at her bidding from all the continents—from Africa, Australia, India, New Zealand, Russia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Germany, Holland, France, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Canada, the United States of America; and of course from England, Scotland, and Wales in still larger delegations. And the preparation which the Trinity authorities made for the entertainment and amusement of their invited guests was indeed most profuse and elaborate. From Tuesday, the 5th of July, to the close of the week, the streets of Dublin have been filled with all the pomp and pageantry of an academic festivity. Religious ceremonies, musical fêtes, garden parties, banquets, games, conferring of honorary degrees, presentation of addresses of congratulation, etc., have followed each other in quick succession.

First in the order of exercises was the formal presentation to the Provost of all the delegates who had been commissioned by learned bodies, by universities, and by colleges to bring their congratulations—each delegate being introduced by his full name, with his titles and the institution he represented. Then followed a procession of all the delegates, with their Trinity College cortège, from the College to St. Patrick's Cathedral; each delegate, with few exceptions, being arrayed in academic costume, and the whole procession marching by a route about a mile long between serried masses of observers on the sidewalks. At St. Patrick's, the "Commemoration Service" was celebrated with appropriate religious ceremonies—with processional hymns, prayers, anthems, and a sermon. The latter was delivered by the Very Rev. Henry Jellett, D.D., the Dean of St. Patrick's. The discourse was in the main a retrospect of Trinity's history—the shadows of her past being used to heighten the lights of the present; but the speaker ventured a single touch of pathos when, adverting regretfully to the pending breach between modern culture and Christianity, he wondered whether the four hundredth anniversary of the University would be celebrated in a purely secular spirit. Appropriate allusion was made to the fact that Trinity College, in commemorating her tercentenary, was also called to commemorate the centennial anniversary of that liberalizing change which, just a hundred years ago, had made her degrees accessible to Roman Catholics and Nonconformists on an equality with adherents to the Established Church. One touch of politics there was in the sermon. Dean Jellett remarked that with all the misrule to which Ireland had been subjected, no British Minister had yet dared to lay his hand on the franchises of Trinity College.

The Tercentenary Ode was written by "The Irish Poet-Laureate," Mr. G. F. Savage-Armstrong, and was set to music by Sir Robert Stewart. It was rendered before a brilliant auditory in Leinster Hall on the night of Tuesday, the 5th of July. A cricket match in the College Park—a Cambridge eleven against Dublin University—and a garden party in the Fellows' Garden, had occupied the afternoon.

At noon on Wednesday, the 6th of July, the academic conclave assembled in the Examination Hall to witness the conferring of honorary degrees. The University had been liberal in the dispensation of these honors, though it was difficult in some cases to perceive the theory on which they had been distributed. Five Americans were decorated on the occasion—Gen. Francis A. Walker receiving the degree of Doctor of Laws, Prof. Simon Newcomb the degree of Doctor of Sciences, Dr. John L. Billings the degree of Doctor of Medicine, Prof. Isaac Hollister Hall and Prof. Joseph Henry Thayer the degree of Doctor of Letters. The University showed its liberality to the New Theology by conferring honorary degrees on the Rev. Samuel Rolles Driver and on Prof. Robertson Smith, while culture was seen to be broader than creed when an eminent Unitarian like James Martineau was selected for decoration on this signal occasion. The investiture of Henry Irving with *his* degree was made the occasion of a demonstration by the undergraduates, who, after the ceremonial was ended, bore him aloft across the campus in a chair, amid an acclaim of loud huzzas, and then exacted from him the tribute of a speech.

A garden party at the Viceregal Lodge, given by the Lord Lieutenant and Lady Zetland, and a continuation of the cricket match between Trinity and Cambridge, filled up the afternoon. In the evening came the grand tercentenary banquet given by the authorities to the delegates assembled from all parts of the learned world. Like everything else provided for the occasion, the feast was sumptuous in all its appointments, and if the post-prandial speaking did not, in all cases, reach high-water mark in that difficult walk of eloquence, it was above the English average. The speeches of the Right Hon. David Plunket and of Prof. Lannelongue of Paris (in French) may be signalized for special commendation. The speech of Mr. Lecky, the historian, though good, was heard only indistinctly by the vast auditory of *convives*, about 600 in number.

But Thursday, the 7th of July, was the great if not the last day of this university feast. This was indeed the day for which all the other days of the festivity were made—the day on which the addresses of congratulation from the universities and learned bodies here represented were formally handed in to the Chancellor, the Earl of Rosse. The procession of delegates charged with these letters of felicitation was formed on the College campus at eleven o'clock in the morning, and moved through the streets, in all the many hued bravery of academic costume, to the Leinster Hall. After an address from the Provost, the representative of each college, university, and learned institution was formally called up to lay his address of congratulation on the table behind which the Chancellor was seated, who, after receiving the address, gave to each delegate a hearty handshake. The delegations were first called out according to their respective nationalities, and an address on behalf of each nationality was made by a spokesman selected for this purpose. President Gilman spoke for the American delegation, and of course spoke well. Most of these addresses were made in English. Prof. Richet of France, Prof. Gaudenzi of Italy, and Prof. Kollmann of Switzerland, however, spoke in their vernacular, but with a distinctness of articulation which rendered their speeches perfectly intelligible. Vámbéry spoke for Hungary, and spoke with an oratorical *verve* which kindled the enthusiasm of his auditors, both on the floor and in the galleries. For it should be said that the galleries were filled with ladies, who "rained influence" down on the gowned scholars as they marched one by one to the Chancellor's chair; while in the rear a throng of Trinity's lively undergraduates kept up, ever and anon, the merry jest and gibe (in which the undergraduate soul is wont to delight), as if to show that Trinity is not a "Silent Sister," in the person at least of the "babes and sucklings" whom she is now rearing for the battles of life. But not a word was said to mar the dignity of the ceremonial.

In the afternoon of the 7th a garden party was given by the Commander of the Forces and Lady Wolseley at their Kilmainham Mansion, so noted for its hospitality. Here, as at the other garden parties, the delegates received that same cordial greeting which, during the whole of this festival, has so beautifully blended social courtesy with academic formality. On the evening of the 7th the undergraduates gave a play, in one act, illustrative of college life. The play was full of crisp and pungent points, and was evidently intended, as one of the local journals phrases it, to show that college life at Trinity is not altogether "a dull, staid, and plodding business," but allows "scope for mental resource, and felicity of conception and expression which, in one direction or another, maintains the repute of Trinity as the fount of many varieties of skilful and noble literary achievement."

On Friday, the 8th of July, addresses were made to the Trinity students in the Examination Hall, by certain of the University's guests, and the whole series of pageants and revels was closed in the evening by a grand University ball in Leinster Hall. All things must have an end, and so the tercentenary celebration of Trinity College, Dublin, came to an end where a thousand hearts were beating happily under the inspiration of Terpsichore—the Muse who is sure to have her "innings" after the College Dons have had their day in court. J. C. W.

JANET'S FÉNELON.

PARIS, July 6, 1892.

I OPENED with interest a little volume by M. Paul Janet on Fénelon—a volume in Hachette's new series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français." Not that there is much to learn about Fénelon, his dispute with Bossuet, his relations with the Duc de Bourgogne, with Mme. de Maintenon. Still, though the facts are well known, Fénelon's character is very complex, and there remains in some parts a sort of mystery hanging over him. His relations with Mme. Guyon are particularly interesting, and M. Paul Janet has entered into many details on this point. He is himself a philosopher and a professor of philosophy, and he can treat with competence the theological questions which for a moment divided Bossuet and Fénelon.

We are all familiar with Fénelon's portrait. He has been well described by Saint-Simon; but whom did Saint-Simon not describe well?

"This prelate was a great thin man, well made, with a high nose, with eyes out of which fire and soul came forth like a torrent, and a physiognomy of which I have never seen the like, and which could not be forgotten, once it had been seen. It united all the contraries, and they were not at war with each other. It had gravity and *galanterie*, seriousness and gayety; it savored equally of the doctor, the bishop, and the *grand seigneur*. What emerged from it and from his whole person was thought, wit, grace, decency, and especially nobility. It required an effort to cease to look at him."

Fénelon was born at the Château de Fénelon in Périgord, August 6, 1651. He was of an old family, the Salignac de la Mothe-Fénelon. By the advice of his uncle, the Marquis of Fénelon, he entered the Seminary of Saint Sulpice. After he had ended his theological studies the Archbishop of Paris placed him at the head of a new congregation, the "New Catholics," composed of ladies recently converted from Protestantism, who were to be well maintained in their new faith. The task was an easy one for Fénelon, who was a born director of consciences. He was soon afterwards sent as a missionary to Saintonge and to Poitou, where the Protestants were to be converted, and he found himself thus for a moment mixed up with the great affair of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. We have some letters of his, written from Poitou; they bear no trace of any indignation at the revocation, of any protest against the means employed by the intendants; they show, however, a preference for persuasive means, a natural aversion to violence, "which would have for its effect innumerable sacrileges."

Fénelon's first work of importance was the book 'De l'Éducation des Filles.' It is still read with pleasure. Fénelon was more liberal than his time in the matter of the education of women, but he is so far behind our time that we need not speak much of his plans and methods. The book is more interesting to us as an indication of the great drawing which Fénelon felt towards the other sex; the way in which he speaks of women betrays a certain sort of tenderness, of delicacy, of softness, which afterwards took other expression when he came in contact with interesting women. Fénelon, as is well known, undertook the education of the Duc de Bourgogne; he turned a violent, haughty, irritable, overbearing young prince into the mildest, most docile and obedient of men. But may it not be said that he feminized him too much—more than he himself wanted at first?

The two women who had a paramount influence over Fénelon were Mme. Guyon and Mme. de Maintenon. M. Janet speaks at length of Mme. Guyon, and we are grateful to him, for the history of her relations with Fénelon is one of the most curious chapters of the intellectual and religious life of the seventeenth century in France. Who was this Mme. Guyon who made so much noise in her time? She was born at Montargis in 1640. Her education was neglected, her health was deplorable. She belonged to a good family, the La Mothe, but was married at the age of fifteen to an old and gouty man, Guyon, brutal, violent, ill-mannered. She married him two days after having seen him for the first time. She was unhappy, and threw herself for consolation into piety. She was of an hysterical disposition, and her piety was of a peculiar sort. She mortified her flesh and fell into curious trances. Bossuet, in his 'Report on Quietism,' copied some passages of Mme. Guyon's autobiography, confided to him in manuscript. We read in these extracts that she "felt like a nurse bursting with milk, like a basin of water that overflowed." These are not mere metaphors. "It was," says Bossuet, "in one of these accesses of fulness that once the Duchesse de Béthune had to help her undress, as her stays had broken open on two sides." I do not know how doctors would now explain these hysterical trances. Mme. Guyon had periods of great religious effervescence, followed by periods of dryness. She fell in with Father Lacombe and introduced him into mystical life. She goes to Geneva, and enters the convent of the "New Catholics," but stays not long. She wanders to Turin, Grenoble, Marseilles, Alexandria, Genoa, Vercelli. She returns to Paris; Father Lacombe is sent to the Bastille and she herself is shut up in a convent. By the intercession of Mme. de Miramion and of Mme. de Maintenon, who was a friend of Mme. de Miramion, she is delivered from captivity after six months. At the Duchesse de Béthune's she meets Fénelon and returns alone with him from the country to Paris. "He saw her," says Saint-Simon; "their two minds suited each other."

Fénelon introduced Mme. Guyon into the chosen circle of the Beauvilliers and Chevreuses, of Mme. de Maintenon. She read to them her book, the 'Moyen court et très facile de faire oraison.' This book was an event. What is the definition of *oraison*? It is not a prayer, it is a state of prayer, it is "an act of love," an act "of the heart," a mystical state. Let us dismiss all vocal prayers, the Lord's Prayer and others; let us feel our heart burning gently; let us abandon our individuality, give ourselves away to God, repose in Him. "Outward virtue is nothing"; the true state of *oraison* is a passive state. Imagine such ideas expressed in fine language, by a fascinating woman, in a circle of refined persons. Mme. Guyon made proselytes. It is needless to show the dangers of a doctrine which, in a religious garb, is the abolition of human liberty. The doctrine bore, in the theological world, the name of quietism; it had a few years before been formulated coarsely by the Spanish monk Molinos. Quietism was a perpetual state of love; in this state all reflection was to cease; the soul ought to become indifferent to everything—even to perpetual salvation; all external acts became useless; the quietist must abandon his free-will to God, and consequently need not resist temptation. The acts of the corporeal and sensitive part of man become strangers to the spiritual part, and the body may become the instrument of the devil while the soul is irresponsible.

The consequences of this doctrine need not be dwelt upon. Mme. Guyon's quietism did not take such a decided turn; it surrounded itself with more precautions, it was a pure mysticism; but, in reality, it ended in the abolition of human liberty. Fénelon fell under the charm of Mme. Guyon. At the bottom of the theological quarrel which arose between him and Bossuet was the old question of grace. The Church felt perplexed: it could not adopt quietism in any form; it could not condemn the mystics who had added so much to its own glory. Bossuet represented the hard common sense, the severe doctrine, which requires works; Fénelon represented unconsciously the doctrine of justification by faith. In a letter written by Fénelon to Mme. de Maintenon he says, speaking of Mme. Guyon: "I have seen her often, I have esteemed her; I have allowed illustrious persons to esteem her who had confidence in her." Fénelon refused to recognize in Mme. Guyon the principles of Molinos; it is clear, however, that Mme. Guyon's new mysticism led to quietism. We cannot be much surprised that Bossuet attacked her doctrine. I will not give even a short account of a theological war which would now be well forgotten if it were not for the famous names of Bossuet and Fénelon. Who reads now the 'Maximes des Saints,' the 'État d'Oraison'?

Rome hesitated. The question had been brought before the Pope, and the Pope was embarrassed between the two prelates who were the glory of the French Church. Fénelon's work was, however, censured in the end; he submitted with the greatest humility and wrote to the Pope: "I shall never be ashamed of being corrected by the successor of Saint Peter. I will never use the shadow of the lightest distinction in order to evade the decree." And what became of Mme. Guyon? She had been an oracle for some time, even at Saint-Cyr, where she had a cousin, Mlle. de la Maisonfort, another enthusiast, who had played the part of *Élise* in Racine's tragedy of "Esther." The whole house had become

quietist; there was no other talk but of pure love, of holy indifference; instead of doing their tasks, the sisters read the works of Mme. Guyon, the 'Moyen court,' the 'Cantique des Cantiques,' the 'Torrents.' The crisis came. Godet, the Bishop of Chartres, saw the danger; he turned Mme. Guyon out of Saint-Cyr. Mme. de Maintenon liked Fénelon, but she was afraid of the King, and Louis XIV. had very practical views and disliked the dreams of quietism. When Fénelon was made Archbishop of Cambrai, Mme. de Maintenon ceased to see him; he disappeared from her life. After his condemnation, Fénelon ceased to see Mme. Guyon; she had continued to dogmatize in Paris after her expulsion from Saint-Cyr. She was put in the hands of Bossuet, in order that he might thoroughly examine her. Bossuet tried to make her change her sentiments, but he tried in vain; however, tired of being a sort of prisoner, she signed a retractation, and thus became free again. No sooner had she recovered her liberty than she began to hold secret meetings and to preach her doctrine. She was again shut up. From Vincennes she was sent to the Bastille. She went through several inquisitions, and she answered all the questions put to her with much reserve and cleverness. By the influence of the Cardinal of Noailles she was again set free, obtained permission to retire to Touraine, and was soon forgotten. "She had lived," says Saint-Simon, "discreetly and obscurely, without making any noise. For eight or ten years she had obtained permission to live in Blois, where she died without any singularity, very devout always, very retired, and often partaking of the sacraments. She had survived her most illustrious protectors and her most intimate friends."

Mme. Guyon will always remain a problematical character. I have dwelt at some length on her, as the chapter, incomplete as it is, which M. Janet devotes to Mme. Guyon's relations with Fénelon, is by far the most original in the volume which he has written on the famous Archbishop of Cambrai. On the whole, M. Janet shows a just sympathy for Fénelon, who in our day has generally been bitterly attacked and sacrificed to Bossuet. Fénelon had what the French call "une belle âme"; he was very human, very ambitious; he considered himself a possible Richelieu or Mazarin; he thought himself fit to govern France. He was disappointed in his ambition, but he bore his fate with much dignity, and he commanded the respect of his enemies.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the editorial entitled "Four Thousand Immortals," in your issue of July 7, you say that "international courtesy and the interests of science impel us to furnish the information which Mr. Labouchere desires." Will you kindly advise one who is desirous of resting upon the best authority only, how long it has been since the American people appointed you the custodian of their courtesy in international affairs and the final arbiter in things scientific? I am impelled to ask this question by reason of several inaccurate and misleading statements contained in that editorial, which would seem to indicate that the repository of America's honor and scientific knowledge is not inerrant.

In the first place, the Annals of the American Academy are not, and, as far as I have been able to discover, have never been considered the organ of the University of Pennsylvania. Until recently, one of the associate editors, and, as I am informed, a guiding influence in the management of the Annals, was Prof. Franklin H. Giddings, of Bryn Mawr College and, during the past winter, Lecturer on Sociology in Columbia College.

In the second place, the Academy offers no chromos to its members, only the advantages which accrue from a well-equipped and wisely managed organization of men interested in the advancement of knowledge. In addition to the Annals, six numbers of which are issued a year, the Academy has sent to its members during the last eighteen months an interesting memoir of the late Judge Jameson, and an excellent translation in two parts of Meitzen's standard work on Statistics. These are the kind of chromos, I am persuaded, that are highly acceptable to all members.

It is inaccurate to call the Academy the "Philadelphia Academy," for a careful examination of its 'Hand-Book' shows a large membership in all parts of the Union; in fact, in all parts of the world. To call the organization the Philadelphia Academy would be conferring on that city an honor, an act of which the *Nation* would not be consciously guilty.

I must confess I am not familiar with so-called "touting methods," but, after three years of careful observation, I have failed to see anything on the part of the organization that is not honorable and straightforward.

Very truly yours,
Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

Philadelphia, July 12, 1892.

[We do not admit that any of the statements challenged by Mr. Woodruff are either inaccurate or misleading. We used the expression "Philadelphia Academy" because the official title, "American Academy," is both inaccurate and misleading. The enlistment of members in all parts of the Union does not make a society national when its government is purely local. Really national bodies, like the American Historical Association and the American Economic Association, have governing councils in which the chief centres of scientific activity throughout the country are represented with approximate equality. The so-called American Academy is controlled by a council composed of residents of Philadelphia and its suburbs. The prominent publicists and economists in other parts of the Union who have accepted elections to the Academy are sidetracked in an "advisory committee."

Facts of a similar character justify us in calling the *Annals* an organ of the University of Pennsylvania. In the group of Philadelphia scholars who manage the Academy, the influence of Prof. James and his associates in the University is dominant. Prof. James, as we pointed out, organized the Academy, has been its President since its foundation, and has been editor-in-chief of the *Annals* since their first appearance. To this Mr. Woodruff replies that Prof. Giddings of Bryn Mawr College was for a time an associate editor. We were perfectly aware of this fact, but we fail to see how it affects our statement. Let us ask Mr. Woodruff whether the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, for example, would cease to be an organ of Harvard University in case a Wellesley professor were for a time taken in as associate editor? In making the statement to which Mr. Woodruff objects, we carefully defined our use of the word "organ"; we said that when "the *control* of the periodical is in the hands of the professors of a single university," the periodical is an organ of that university. We adhere to this definition and to our characterization of the *Annals:* who turns the crank, his is the organ.

We pen this last sentence with some hesitation; for Mr. Woodruff's failure to understand what we meant by "chromos" argues slow apprehension of metaphorical modes of expression. We pointed out that every subscriber to the *Annals* is *ipso facto* a "Member of the American Academy," and we indicated our belief that the rapid growth of the subscription-list was chiefly due to the attractiveness of this title. That the chromo is really prized by the recipients; that they desire to frame it, so to speak, and to hang it on the wall—of this we find homely but competent evidence in the personal-items columns of rural newspapers. We have seen more than once in such sheets the announcement that such and such a fellow-townsman "has been elected a member of the American Academy of Political and Social Science," with accompanying remarks showing appreciation of the honor to the town. We have no desire to dispute the intrinsic worth of the *Annals;* we concede the interesting character of the memoir of Judge Jameson and the excellence of the translation of Meitzen; but a careful examination of these publications leaves us more than doubtful of their capacity to secure 4,000 subscribers in less than three years without the chromo.

Mr. Woodruff appears to think that if our statements are true, the methods of the Academy are dishonorable. We do not think that they merit so harsh an epithet. We do not like to see a scientific body, or a body that claims to be scientific, engaged in sending notices to Tom, Dick, and Harry that they have been severally elected "Members of the American Academy" and are expected to remit five dollars to the Treasurer. We regret the degradation of a title which has served, all over the civilized world, as a recognition of special capacity and definite achievement. We are sorry to see the red ribbon of the scientific Legion of Honor in the market. But all this, we freely concede, is a matter of sentiment; and disregard of such a sentiment by those who do not share it is hardly dishonorable. Perhaps the strongest impression left upon our minds is that of very marked cleverness very much out of place. The construction of an organization which appears to be national and is really under the control of a very few persons in one place, is an admirable piece of practical politics. The seizure and sale of something of purely sentimental value which has not previous-

ly been regarded as merchandise, is commercially a stroke of genius. But the display of such political and commercial talents by those who guard the serene heights of speculative thought, has for us the shock not merely of the unexpected, but of the incongruous.—Ed. Nation.]

NON-VOTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to offer a suggestion as to reasons of abstention from voting. To some slight extent, perhaps, pairing-off may diminish the vote: it is easier for Democratic Tom and Republican John to agree not to vote and to spend the day at home than for each to travel to the polls. A threatening development of a third party will not allow pairing.

A more powerful cause of abstention is a certainty as to the result. Examining this subject some thirty-five years ago, I noticed that in 1848 the proportion of voters to the males over twenty-one was about the same in Massachusetts and in Arkansas. I write at a summer resort and without reference-books; I say from memory that in each State the voters were about one-half of the adult males. Contrast the States. One was Northern, the other Southern; one Eastern, the other Western; one an old community, the other recent; one dense in population, the other sparse; one manufacturing, the other agricultural; one under the town system of local government, the other having no unit less than the county; one highly intelligent, with schools, the other then very illiterate; the one a free State, the other a slave State. The notable element of resemblance is the other point of opposition, namely, one was certainly a Whig State, the other a Democratic State. Hence the Democrats of Massachusetts and the Whigs of Arkansas had like motives for indifference and inactivity; they would have motives for voting in those political units of territory only in which they might elect their local officers. The general result was certain in each State. Samuel Willard.

Harbor Springs, Mich., July 14, 1892.

THE POPE AND THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of June 16, "G. K." expresses surprise that the Pope's letter to the French cardinals, bidding them accept the present republican form of government, should have called out such editorial comment as appeared in your issue of May 26. "G. K." writes: "Now, Leo has given no other instructions to the French clergy than all his predecessors have done." If there is any difference between the letter and the spirit, there is a very profound difference between what the Pope has just now done and what his predecessors did. The significance of the present Pope's new attitude is not at all in his recognition of a given *form* of government, but in his so daring alliance with modern democracy that "revolutionary" is scarcely too strong a word to apply to his action.

It is doubtful if any modern event has more significance than this bold change which the spirit of the Pope's letter implies. Leroy-Beaulieu, in his articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, expresses this by saying that we have at last "un pape des prolétaires." The only possible classification of popes has been with princes and monarchs. No one will think in future of so classifying Leo XIII. He is as distinctly setting his face toward the Demos as his predecessors turned theirs away from it. The difference between the present Pope and Pius IX. is hardly less than that between Cardinal Manning and the Church official who preceded him. When the leading Catholic economist (Prof. Jannet) wrote, three years ago, "Democracy has triumphed, and our only duty is to recognize the fact," he was severely criticised by Catholics who were fighting for the monarchy. The strain put upon the French cardinals was intense, simply because it was felt that monarchic government had received at the Pope's hand so deadly a blow. This was clearly seen by one of the subtlest of French writers (De Vogüé) as early as 1887. In 1884, a writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* could say: "At the risk of making a scandal, we predict a republican evolution within the papacy." The author finds Lamennais's hopeless prayer, "Abandonner les rois pour les peuples," wholly true of the present Pontiff. A Catholic member of the Institute has just said that the real meaning of the Pope's utterance is, "Acceptez le régime populaire et la royauté du suffrage universel; ne vous faites pas scrupule de jouer 'La Marseillaise,' ou de marquer vos maisons du R. F."

Future events must determine whether the Pope has, in all this, shown a "high degree of political wisdom," which "G. K." doubts. It seems, however, very wide of the fact to see in it merely "the old, well-known policy of the Vatican," etc.

John Graham Brooks.

Freiburg, Baden, July 1, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "G. K." (No. 1407) has a correct, if incomplete, notion of the drift of papal policy in the relations of the Church with governments which do not recognize its authority and supremacy over all other forms of religion. To those who follow the transactions between the Pope and the French Republic from as near as we are, and step by step, it needs no demonstration that the Pope, in recommending Catholics to accept the Republic, has some ulterior object beyond that of the support of the established Government, for the sake of good government or civil tranquillity. In continual and to a certain extent confidential relations with some of the most liberal of the Roman clergy, I have abundant opportunity to form an opinion which is perhaps as clear and safe as an outsider can obtain, and I have heard from some of the most candid and right-minded of my Catholic friends their own opinion, that the dominant, not to say the sole, motive of Leo XIII., in urging with such vigor and persistence the frank and entire submission of the Catholics of France to the present republican régime, is simply the expectation that the Republic will, when the collision between France and Italy which looms in a remote, it may be, but very certain future, comes, recompense the Papacy by the restoration of Rome to the head of the Church.

I do not think that any well-informed Catholic in Rome, or who has much to do with Rome, has any doubt that this is the fact, and I have heard some of the best and most devoted friends of the Pontiff lament that he is sacrificing the influence of the Church in Italy, and risking a schism in France, for the phantom of a temporal power which has always been a mockery, for it has only changed the protection of the Papacy from one shoulder to another; the demonstration of the absolute dependence of the ecclesiastical Government on an outside military force having long ago been made *ad nauseam*. The present Ministry of the Republic may inwardly repudiate the intention sincerely, but it has never dared openly and officially to say to the Pope, "We refuse to entertain and encourage the project of restoring Rome to the rule of the Church." To do so would put an end at once to the pressure of the Pope on French Catholics to rally to the Republic, but it would put an end also to the assurance of the moral aid of the Church being given to France when the great European war comes on for which France is arming and concentrating her strength. The question is already very earnestly debated among serious Catholics who recognize that the interests of their religion are not at stake in the present dispensation in Italy, and that the attitude of the official Church is preparing an immense apostasy when the step is taken for which the Pope is preparing. A considerable element of the French Church consider that the Pope is asking them to sacrifice their profoundest political convictions to the feud with Italy and the hope of the temporal rule, in which they have no interest whatever; and in France, but much more in Italy, the division among Catholics caused by this policy is already very pronounced.

The part of the clergy which most cordially detests modern reforms, *i. e.*, the ultra-conservative Italian members of the hierarchy, and the entire body of the Jesuits, under whose influence the present Pope has been almost since he became Pope, are favorable to carrying on the war with Italy to the bitter end. The liberal element (which is not lacking) deprecates the present state of hostilities; but as no ecclesiastic dares openly revolt against the dictum of his Holiness, even when it is not a question of dogma, the opposition is silent. A friend of Cardinal Lavigerie, to whom the policy of that Eminence is familiar, said to me that the meaning of his programme was simply the conversion of Catholics into supporters of the Republic, and the legal instalment of good Catholics in the Government instead of the atheists and Freemasons who now control it —or, as he expressed it, "getting possession of the Republic, after which it is easy to make it what we like." The basis for this electoral operation is the indisputable fact that the large majority of the voters of France is with the agricultural population, almost without an exception under the absolute influence of the clergy; and if these could be united intelligently, there is no question that they would return a Chamber of Deputies ready for what the Church may demand, *i. e.*, the abolition of the military service for the clergy, the restoration of the schools and hospitals to the confraternities, and the abolition of all laws which favor Protestants and heretics politically.

Fortunately, priests make very bad politicians, and the organization which should bring this majority into power has never been formed, owing to the divisions among the French Catholics and the antagonisms of the parties, which hope each to use the Church for its own restoration to power. The extent of the wisdom of the Pope is in seeing that these divisions are irreconcilable, and that if the Church is to rule France, it must do so through the Republic, as the present rulers are doing; but he would, if practicable, gladly do so through the monarchy. Nobody doubts that a considerable number of French Royalist Catholics are satisfied that the Pope is sacrificing

their convictions and hopes to his temporal ambitions. I have the most satisfactory proof; but they are helpless, for religion and royalty are so united with them that they cannot rebel against the only basis for the divine right of kings. If, therefore, the Republic as at present regulated should finally decline to restore to the Pope his temporal power, the chance remains that the converted Republic may; and a Catholic Republic in France, as the guardian of the rights of the Church, is even better than an absolute sovereign in the same place. These are the reasons why the Pope is republican in France.

These things are the open secrets of Rome—rarely publicly admitted, often *pro forma* denied, but never honestly disputed by any one in the ecclesiastical sphere, and, to my personal knowledge, over and over again asserted by those who have access to the best sources of information in the Vatican. I have the best reason to say that even in the College of Cardinals there is a great deal of difference of opinion as to the soundness of the policy of Leo XIII., and these differences of opinion will have a great deal to do with the election of the next Pope, and possibly with the relations of the Papacy to the French Republic; and the ecclesiastical world in this part of Europe is by no means satisfied of the Pope's worldly wisdom. Judged by the results to be looked for, without any spiritual illumination, it seems to some of us, lookers on, to be doomed to a dilemma of disaster. The alliance with France as against the Triple Alliance, "three against three," makes the Papacy sharer in the victory, but also in the defeat. Now the victory means the division of Europe between Orthodox Russia and the present form of Republic in France, the dissolution of Italy and of Germany as an Empire, the utter prostration of Catholic Austria, and the extension of Russian control and the Orthodox religion over the entire Slavonic country, including Constantinople, and eventually the Holy Land; and, as reflex consequence, the revolt of patriotic German and Italian Catholics from Rome—in short, a series of disasters to the real Church of Rome, which has no political existence and can depend on no government. The other alternative of a defeat in this European struggle means the humiliation of the Papacy, confirmation of its expulsion from Rome, the prostration of France, the Church's eldest daughter and only political protector, and, when the heat of the conflict has passed, the grave demonstration of a moral blunder and the humiliation of a defeat due to want even of common worldly wisdom; the most flagrant impeachment of Papal infallibility or divine guidance, which still remains to its advantage in the common mind of the masses of the Catholic populations. Of the two horns of the dilemma, victory will gore the Church most deeply. But to one or the other of these alternatives the present policy of Leo XIII. dooms him. That there are wise and earnest Catholic churchmen who see these possibilities, my ears are witness; they are not concoctions of a heretic brain, for I hear them discussed by good Catholics in the once papal city.

X.

Rome, June 30, 1892.

THE RACE OF THE LANGUAGES IN EGYPT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You may be interested to know that a unique competition is in progress in old Egypt, and that the study of the English language in the schools is more and more sought by the scholars in the studies of election. English is now taught in thirty-seven out of a total of forty-four schools; and though there are only five schools where the official languages are Arabic and English, compared to sixteen schools where boys are taught in Arabic and French, there are now a score of schools where there are French and English masters in addition to the native teachers. At the age of nine, boys can practically decide whether they will learn French or English. French has been the chief foreign language ever since the First Napoleon's time, and most Egyptians of consequence are familiar with it; and but few, till quite recently, knew English. In fact, Egypt has virtually been intellectually occupied by France. But a change seems to be imminent, and ere long the relative positions of these two speeches may be reversed, in spite of the efforts of the society in France formed with the object of propagating French thought and literature in Egypt, and which watches the English propaganda with anxiously jealous eyes.

This society has, however, confined itself principally to the Copts, for the reason that from among this people spring most of the commercial class. A year or so ago, some fifty Englishmen in Egypt subscribed a fund of nearly nine hundred dollars for the purpose of offering prizes to the boys in the Government schools, including the Medical College in Cairo. The idea took so well that 1,312 pupils this year competed, from 23 Government schools in the country, for 123 prizes; a prize or two being offered to every class learning English. In some cases the examination was very severe, and it is stated that 1,074 candidates gained more than half-marks, while 533 of them actually obtained 75 per cent. The credit of this work and the rapidly accruing results, so much commented and exulted upon by English journals, are mainly due to the efforts of the recently brought-out staff of English teachers, who are doing their utmost to make the language popular. Probably the material prosperity of the country following in the wake of the British control, and the disappearance of the brutal taxgatherers of former régimes, are more or less connected with the progress and popularity of the work. There is no difficulty on the part of the students, but the movement has unfortunately aroused the active jealousy of the French, who do not seem to understand that there is nothing to prevent their offering similar prizes for proficiency in their own language.

It has long been said that the lowly Egyptian was incapable of change or rapid mental improvement such as is now actually going on. That this people can be formed into fairly good fighting material, as demonstrated by recent trials, is another shock to the upholders of the old order of things. All this signifies that ordinary humanity, wherever found, is readily impressible to the higher impulses, and that old Egypt still retains the germs of a better civilization than has been vouchsafed her these last nine centuries. C. A. Siegfried.

Newport, R. I.

MURAL DECORATION OF EGYPTIAN TOMBS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An artist friend, failing to find, after long and earnest search in a large reference library, any answer to the question which had suggested itself to him, of how the ancient Egyptian artists secured light to execute their mural paintings in dark tombs, applied to Mr. H. Villiers Stuart, author of 'Nile Gleanings,' with the result enclosed. Perhaps others may be interested in the question also. X.

Madison, Wis., July 8, 1892.

Dear Sir: I have just had the pleasure to receive your letter of May 12. You ask, "By what light did the ancient Egyptian artists execute the wall paintings in their lightless, rock-hewn tombs?" The same question has often occurred to me. Of course they were executed by artificial light, but the only appliances for artificial light that have been discovered are terra-cotta oil lamps of small size. These were fed with olive oil, and yielded each much the same volume of light as the modern wax candle. I have often picked up broken specimens of such lamps in the tombs. By this dim light they managed to sculpture the bas-reliefs and also to color them.

In the tombs of the kings, not only are acres of wall covered with minutely detailed paintings, but the ceilings also. It must have been ruinous to the artists' eyes as well as most laborious. But kings and feudal nobles gave the command, and their slaves had to find means to carry out their masters' commands, or woe be to them. Such temples as Abou Simbel, and such tombs as those of the Kings, penetrate the very bowels of the mountains, and were of course absolutely lightless.

Yours very truly,
H. Villiers Stuart of Dromana.

16 Queen's Gate, South Kensington, S. W., London, June 1, 1892.

Notes.

The valuable compilation, by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, of 'Pamphlets on the Constitution of the United States Published during its Discussion by the People,' is to be followed by a companion volume of 'Essays on the Constitution,' published at the same period. Among the better known of the essayists are James Sullivan, Elbridge Gerry, Oliver Ellsworth, Roger Sherman, George Clinton, Alexander Hamilton, Hugh Williamson, and Charles Pinckney. Their medium was the public press of the several States. Mr. Ford's address is 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N.Y. We take this opportunity to notice his reprint, from the Boston Public Library's Bulletin, of his own "Some Materials for a Bibliography of the Official Publications of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789." It makes a handsome volume with a page in double columns, of which one is blank, to admit of insertions.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'An Englishman in Paris,' consisting of personal reminiscences during the reigns of Louis Philippe and Louis Napoleon. These have a distinct literary flavor.

Ginn & Co. have in press Hugo's 'Les Misérables,' condensed and edited for school use by Prof. F. C. de Sumichrast of Harvard; and a 'German Grammar for High Schools and Colleges,' by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan.

The publishers of *Puck* announce that within the present year they will issue a limited edition (to be sold by subscription only) of 'Cartoons from *Puck*,' by Joseph Keppler, "being a choice selection of the most noteworthy of Mr. Keppler's cartoons that have appeared in *Puck* from 1877 to 1892." Mr. H. C. Bunner will provide explanatory and historical notes. Keppler & Schwartzmann will also issue Mr. Bunner's humorous story, 'The Runaway Browns,' now appearing weekly in *Puck*, as soon as it is concluded in that publication.

A. R. Keller Co., Philadelphia, correct ou statement that their newly published Life of Mr. Blaine was meant to be a campaign bio-

graphy. "We made arrangements," they say, "to issue this work as far back as February, when no one supposed, in face of the letter Mr. Blaine had written to Chairman Clarkson, that there was any possibility of his being a candidate, or that his name would even be mentioned in the Convention."

Two years ago an edition of the 'Speeches and Public Addresses of the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M. P.,' was undertaken, with his consent and with his assistance for the knotty places, by A. W. Hutton and H. J. Cohen. Methuen & Co., London, have just issued the tenth and concluding volume of this selection from the utterances of sixty years. It covers the years 1888-1891, and its contents illustrate very happily the many-sidedness of this statesman's mind. The Irish Question, in various phases, is a frequent theme. The Disestablishment of the Church of Scotland was the subject of approbatory remarks in the House on April 24, 1890, and Mr. Gladstone has just felt at the polls the ecclesiastical resentment caused by his support of that measure; and not unexpectedly, for, being menaced with it, he said: "I shall be most happy to answer to the electors of Mid Lothian for my conduct" in respect to a certain protest from that quarter against Disestablishment. Mr. Gladstone also spoke at the Eisteddfod, at Wrexham, Wales, in 1888; on the State of Agriculture in England, at the Hawarden Flower Show, in the same year; on the Workman and his Opportunities, in 1889; on Free Trade and the McKinley Act, in 1890; on the Channel Tunnel—most sensibly—in 1888; on the Homeric Artemis, at Eton, in 1891; and on the Future of the Liberal Party, in Newcastle (whose electors have just disappointed him), in 1891. We may also mention his obituary tribute to John Bright in the House, in 1889—generous, if not specially felicitous; and a short speech in French in Paris, in 1889. There is a frontispiece portrait of the orator, who has already gone far towards supplying material for an eleventh volume.

Jack Ketch and Captain Kidd are among the disreputable personages who figure in the thirty-first volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan). A light reputation might also be predicated of Pepys' flame, Mrs. Knipp. John Knox has the honor of the longest article—twenty pages. Eight are given to Charles Kingsley, whose sympathetic biographer is Leslie Stephen, with praise for his "first-hand descriptions of the nature that he loved" as unsurpassed, and for his "Andromeda" as "perhaps the best example of the English hexameter." Mr. Stephen, who does not generally blink things, and deals impartially with the Newman controversy, passes over Kingsley's heated defence of Gov. Eyre for his Jamaica hangings. Mr. Stephen also contributes the brief notice of Kinglake, the historian. Canon Ainger of right tells the story of Charles Lamb in some six pages. The publisher and Shaksperian editor Charles Knight receives honorable mention. To his inventiveness as a journalist we owe perhaps the first instance of the practice of summarizing articles in the magazines, and the device of "patent insides" for country papers. Mr. W. H. G. Kingston, the writer of juvenile novels, fills less than a page of this Dictionary; but the list of his works requires nine and a half pages in the Catalogue of the British Museum, we are told.

Mr. W. M. Griswold's original guide-book called 'Travel,' published by the author at Cambridge, Mass., has attained to No. 107 in its series of carefully selected, sometimes abridged, and generally annotated descriptions of visits to sundry European places. One volume, bearing the name 'Travel,' is a miscellaneous assortment, but others are formed out of related groups and labelled 'France,' 'Germany,' 'Switzerland,' and have a very practical utility for all intending visitors to those countries. Each description has its number. Thus, the Rev. Harry Jones's "Interlaken to Aosta" is No. 106, and in the course of it there is mention of the Wengern Alp, whereupon Mr. Griswold claps on the number 15 in superior figures to show that by turning to No. 15 we shall learn all about that alp. Moreover, Mr. Griswold contrives to maintain his phonetic propaganda, printing, "hī snōs," "ōnce," "thēy," "chief," "brōt," "twilit," "ēarlier," and other diacritic novelties. Finally, each volume has an index to the whole 107 pieces.

The annual revision of 'Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada' has been much more extensive than usual for the current volume for 1892, which has been enlarged by forty pages, and has suffered a minute overhauling. As might be expected, Chicago furnishes a good example of changes having special reference to the coming World's Fair. With new maps there are also new illustrations, the discarded ones, however, being sometimes missed, as in the case of Boston, and the style of production being too heterogeneous. The Appletons have also brought out Part II. of their "Canadian Guide-book," uniform with Prof. Roberts's 'Eastern Canada and Newfoundland.' Mr. Ernest Ingersoll is the compiler of 'Western Canada,' and betrays his customary skill as a writer and book-maker. The guide-book possesses a high quality from a literary point of view, and is well illustrated.

The late J. J. Weiss, one of the most brilliant of the *normaliens*, although not as prominent as About and Prévost-Paradol, as M. Taine and M. Sarcey, was for a while the dramatic critic of the *Débats*, writing the regular weekly article every Monday. Under the general title of "Trois Années de Théâtre," four volumes of these articles are to be published, of which the first has just appeared, 'Autour de la Comédie-Française' (Paris: Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). The best pages of this are devoted to a comparison of Molière and Plautus, an analysis of Émile Augier, and a eulogy of Regnard. The other volumes are to be called 'À propos de Théâtre,' 'Le Drame Historique et le Drame Passionel,' and 'Les Théâtres Parisiens.'

On the 7th of June the seal of the University of Oxford was affixed in Convocation to an indenture of agreement with Mr. Charles Drury Fortnum. Mr. Fortnum agrees (1) to add the remainder of his valuable collections to those portions of them already in Ashmole's Museum, and with them to give his library; (2) to give £10,000 subject to the payment of an annuity during his life, but otherwise to be used under the name of "The Fortnum Trust Fund" for the increase of the Ashmolean Museum and of the salary of its keeper. The University agrees (1) to assume certain pecuniary responsibilities in the administration of "The Fortnum Trust Fund," and (2) to expend £15,000 upon building an extension of the University Galleries, to be called "The Ashmolean Museum," and to house the old collections of Tradescant and Ashmole as well as those of Mr. Fortnum, together with everything now contained in Ashmole's ancient building. This vacated space, being contiguous to the Bodleian Library, is to be handed over to Bodley's Librarian. The more modern Randolph and Taylor buildings, a part of which is known as "The University Galleries," taken together with the new Ashmolean, will form a Museum of Art and Archæology worthy of the marked revival of those studies which began under Ruskin and is in progress under Professors Herkomer and Gardner. It is thought that no Oxford benefaction since the gift of the Douce collections has been equal in importance to this of Mr. Fortnum, seconded as it is by a considerable pecuniary sacrifice on the part of the University.

The approaching sale of the unrivalled "Lord Spencer's" Library—*en bloc* if a purchaser can be found—has prompted the New York house of Mitchell's to propose a syndicate of American book-collectors for that purpose, "the books to be brought to New York and put up for auction either among the members of the syndicate or to the public."

The Danish Statistical Bureau recently published a monograph containing interesting comparisons of the increase in population in the different parts of Denmark during the years 1801, 1840, 1860, 1880, and 1890. From this it appears that since the beginning of the century Copenhagen has grown from 100,975 to 312,859. The greatest increase has been since 1860, when the population more than doubled. In 1801, the second largest town was Odense, with 5,782 inhabitants. In 1880 it was outstripped by Aarhus, which at present has a little over 33,000. Since 1860 Aarhus has more than trebled. The smallest towns in Denmark are Mariager and Aarkirkeby, which have grown from 414 and 455 respectively to 761 and 957. The greatest growth is that of Frederiksberg, a suburb of Copenhagen. It has risen from 1,172 to 46,954—a growth similar both in cause and extent to that of the upper part of New York city.

The newly published Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society for 1891 contains a sketch of a former Democratic Senator from that State, Mahlon Dickerson, with extracts from autograph letters. One of these, to Lewis Cass (November 19, 1840), after the election of Harrison, comments on the mistaken Democratic attempt to force down the Sub-Treasury Bill at an extra session. "Those who deserted our ranks were considered as Federalists, not worthy of our attention, and the system of proscription was followed up with greater vigor than ever, in order that the party might be made *perfectly pure. It is indeed made very pure, but inconveniently small.*" We used, amid the early proscription of Mugwumps, to make precisely the same observation to our friends the Republicans—as our files will bear witness. Mr. Dickerson, a firm protectionist, favored "a perfectly reciprocal commerce—not with one nation, but with all nations—and that by legislation, not by negotiation. . . . The House of Representatives of the people should never submit to any infringement of their constitutional powers to regulate commerce."

The *Civil-Service Record* of Boston and the *Civil-Service Reformer* of Baltimore have wisely been consolidated under a title which implies permanence, *Good Government*. It will be edited in Washington, and issued simultaneously in that city and in New York. Mr. F. E. Leupp of Washington, a journalist of large experience and entire sympathy with the cause, will conduct the new journal, which will receive the cordial support of the leaders of the civil-service-reform movement.

Two or three years ago a French critic mildly complained of the enormous crop of memoirs and letters that the centenary of the Revolution had brought out. He could not go into the country for a Sunday, he said, without finding on his table when he came back half-

a-dozen new volumes of them pressing for notice. The harvest seems even now to be far from its end. Among the more recent additions to it the souvenirs of M. de Viel-Castel are noteworthy. These are appearing in a rather fragmentary sort of way in the *Correspondance*, under the care of the Duc de Broglie. The latest portion published relates to the year 1818, when M. de Viel-Castel had just entered as an attaché the depot of the Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The director of the depot was then the Comte d'Hauterive, of whose pernicious revolutionary activity in the United States Washington had at an earlier day complained to the Committee of Public Safety. Viel-Castel gives a somewhat minute and life-like portrait of this worthy, which will be of a certain interest to students of American history. There are also in the picture some extremely pretty touches of observation which make a wider appeal.

—In the *Bookman* for July, the anonymous writer of the striking series of papers on "The Carlyles and a Segment of their Circle" arrives at Emerson's second visit, and gives us some lifelike traits of both guest and host. "Carlyle, still full of Cromwell, resented with needless heat Emerson's refusal to fall down and worship the Puritan hero"; and the American, on his part, said that "Carlyle's heart is as large as the world, but he is growing morbid." He was most impressed by Carlyle's conversation, which he compared to sculpture, and thought more marvellous than his books. Going to breakfast with the writer of these "Recollections," Emerson took along photographs of his wife and children, saying apropos of the former: "If any of our family are saved, it will be through her merits." Referring to Carlyle's hot denunciations of authorship, Emerson said: "If Mr. Carlyle can show me any better employment than literature, I shall be happy to betake myself to it." Emerson gave a dinner-party to his Manchester friends before quitting that city, at which were present some from northern and midland counties with whom he had long corresponded on high matters—"a strange collection of mystics, poets, prose-rhapsodists, editors, schoolmasters, ex-Unitarian ministers, and cultivated manufacturers." One of the guests, a vegetarian, found a dinner of herbs considerately prepared for his special consumption. "After the prandial and post-prandial babblement, our host gave a serene close to the evening by reading to us his lecture on Plato." In the brilliant London society where Emerson found all doors open to him, he appears to have sat for the most part, as he did at those gatherings made memorable by Lowell, "Listening with eyes averse." Indeed, so abashed was he at the thought of giving lectures in London that his friends had to resort to the innocent ruse of getting up a formal request to him, signed by several notabilities, in order to force him to the platform. The original of this memorial has lately been turned up in Forster's papers. After the first lecture, Carlyle sallied forth to Emerson's quarters on a visit of congratulation, but was able to deliver himself of no other compliment than that the lecture was "very Emersonian." "Moonshine," it will be remembered, he called it in private. However, before Emerson left England, Carlyle spoke of his lectures as "intellectual sonatas," and said that he was "a beautiful figure among those talking Yankees," and the ideal of an American gentleman.

—The paper closes with a hitherto unnoticed memorial of his intimacy with Emerson, in the shape of an article on "Indian Meal," published in *Fraser's Magazine* for May, 1849, and signed "C." Carlyle wished, like Cobbett, to see Indian corn introduced in those days of potato-disease, and got Lord Ashburton to have Emerson's sample ground by his own millers and prepared by his own French cook. Of the result thus reached, Carlyle declared that it was meal "sweet among the sweetest, fit for the cook's art under all manner of conditions," on which a grown man could be "supported wholesomely, and even agreeably, at the rate of little more than a penny a day." On the strength of these good tidings, he bade "the disconsolate Malthusian fling his 'geometrical series' into the corner, assist wisely in the Free-Trade movement, and dry up his tears." There is no doubt that the article is Carlyle's, though not included in any edition of his writings; he told the writer in the *Bookman* that he had sent the article in the first instance to the *Times*, but that the editor returned it.

—We announced, not long ago, the impending publication of a great number of Rousseau's unpublished letters, enough to make a very considerable volume, which has now appeared in Paris, thanks to M. Henri de Rothschild, who procured the curious collection, and to M. Léo Claretie, who very agreeably introduces it to the public. It consists of a correspondence, running through the years between 1762 and 1773, between Jean-Jacques and Mme. Boy de La Tour, who was one of his most faithful friends and benefactors. She was in the way of performing for him all sorts of small commissions at Lyons, and it is to these errands that Rousseau's letters almost exclusively relate. They have no literary interest or value whatsoever. But, for the modern biographer, and perhaps also for the modern reader, they will be of interest, for Rousseau was extremely minute and circumstantial in giving his commissions, and one can easily reconstruct him out of them in his habit as he lived. Ample information is furnished as to what he ate and drank, and how he dressed, and of what shape his nightcaps were, and how he warmed his room, and what sort of candles he burned. Prices, too, of all sorts of things, some of them hopelessly out of fashion now, are carefully set down. One can find what barracan was by the yard in the years just before our Revolution, and camlet, and taffeta, and many another stuff. None of this new information, as will be seen, is of high importance, but it has its own humble place. Many will value it more highly than M. Émile Faguet does, who notices the book in the *Revue Bleue*. He calls it an "interview of Jean-Jacques by Rousseau," and lets it go at that.

—"One must be a barbarian not to know the name of Nicolò Bettoni," said Victor Cousin in 1832, on being introduced to this Italian publisher, whose imprint was, in fact, bestowed on five million volumes, and whose active career in this capacity covered the thirty years from 1806 to 1836. He was a writer, too, of many things besides prospectuses; and though not of the first rank as a stylist, he was a sufficiently weighty polemic, and in common discourse he was extremely plausible and persuasive. For half a century he was notorious both in Italy and in France, where he ended his days in wretchedness; but his name has now quite slipped out of the biographical dictionaries. It has been the pious work of Signor Piero Barbèra, the present head of the well-known Florentine house, to revive the memory of his fellow-countryman and publisher, as he had already done in the 'Ricordi biografici di Vincenzo Batelli, tipografo fiorentino,' and the 'Ricordi biografici di David Passigli, tipografo-editore.' He has accordingly produced a charming sketch of one hundred pages, entitled, 'Nicolò Bettoni: Avventure di un editore' (Florence: Barbèra), followed by bibliographical lists of Bettoni's writings and publications. This restless and speculative genius was the founder of five printing establishments, and conducted four at one time—in Brescia, Padua, Milan, and Portogruaro, his birthplace. He gave a great development to the popular subscription "Library"—of classical authors, of Italian writers, of international masterpieces, of iconography, etc.—and invented the scheme of increasing his subscribers by promises of prize drawings if the number exceeded a certain figure or figures. This brought him into trouble in France, where he sought to introduce a method frowned upon by the native publishers. While not a master of the details of the printing business, preferring the rôle of general manager and over-sanguine *impresario*, he was nevertheless a precursor of the rotary press, having invented a cylinder for giving the requisite impression to forms moved forwards and backwards on a horizontal carriage. He was apt to overestimate the public reception of his enterprises, but he suffered his greatest losses from the unfaithfulness of his employees. The most salient episode in the story is the quarrel with Ugo Foscolo, which is candidly set forth by Signor Barbèra with great impartiality and delicacy. Like Foscolo, Bettoni was of the circle of the Countess Teotochi Albrizzi ("cara Isabella"), of whom our Italian correspondent discoursed lately in these columns.

—To those whose memory goes back twenty or thirty years it is interesting to note the rapid multiplication of the means of illustrating classical study in the school-room. For the few poor woodcuts that were supposed to adorn the school-books of a former generation, we have a profusion of reproductions—sometimes of the highest order of excellence—and the office of the picture, the engraving, is everywhere recognized. Twenty years ago, to give a practical instance, a primer was projected which should show under *equus* a horse as the Romans saw him, under *aratrum* a plough as the Italians used it; but the project was rejected by the publishers as fanciful. Now Comenius and the 'Orbis Pictus' have come to their rights again, and there is no end of illustrated school-books of Greek and Latin. And yet this does not satisfy the pedagogic soul, and the other day an Austrian teacher complained that the map or atlas form of illustration was too cumbrous and too costly for the average school-boy, and advised his fellow-teachers to do as he had done, and to make a collection of the illustrations sent out at Christmas and New Year in publishers' sample-sheets. It seems that in an incredibly short time the experimenter had brought together hundreds of admirable illustrations, which, pasted on stiff cardboard, could circulate freely from hand to hand; and they cost nothing. Doubtless we are on the eve of the leaflet system as applied to illustration, perhaps are in the thick of it. Meantime, it is our business to welcome the American edition of Engelmann and Anderson's 'Pictorial Atlas to Homer,' published by B. Westermann & Co.—one of those international enterprises with which Kiepert's atlases have made us familiar. By changing the letter-press to suit

the locality, the same illustrations may be made to serve the whole world of schoolboys; and the curious investigator of the next century may well ask the question whether this community of text-books has not contributed powerfully to the levelling of the nations. As each nationality has its pet verses of Scripture, so each nationality might well be supposed to dwell with favor on some special side or scene of a universal classic such as Homer; and it is evident that if this thing goes on, we shall all be forced into the common German mould.

—Still, we must not grumble at so good a thing as Engelmann and Anderson's 'Pictorial Atlas.' The value of the work is incontestable, and the plan worthy of all acceptance; although, as the chief editor anticipates, some scholars may think that the scheme of giving un-Homeric details of Homeric myths in the interest of mythological study is a stretch of the proper purpose of the book, which is, after all, to show what a hold Homer had on antique civilization. Of course it does not undertake to illustrate the Homeric world as the Homeric singer saw it. That could not be done, even if we had more remains of the period than we have, for the poet's eyes had a light that does not come from Assyrian or Egyptian art. But we are sorry to note that an evil fate seems to have presided over the transfer of the German letter-press to English. "Herald" appears unchanged as "herold"; our old friends the enemies of the Pygmies are changed from "cranes" to "storks"; and in trying to identify the Pygmies we find ourselves introduced to a lot of "niggers" who look unconventional in this undress. "Labor" is represented by "travail pain"; the "Laestrygonians" are syncopated into "Laestrygians"; and in the Greek text there is a liberal sprinkling of false accents. But, for all that, the book is a welcome addition to our school-apparatus for Homer, and may be cordially recommended.

—Schmeltz's *Internationales Archiv für Ethnographie* (Leyden, Band V., Heft I.) contains an exceedingly interesting and exhaustive article of nearly twenty pages "On Ancient Mexican Shields," by Zelia Nuttall, with three plates of more than sixty colored illustrations. Mrs. Nuttall is recognized by scholars in both hemispheres as an authority in this branch of research, and has honestly attained this high position by the thoroughness of her philological and archæological equipment and the remarkable acuteness and conscientiousness of her investigations. The same qualities which characterized her former monographs, "Standard or Head-dress? An Historical Essay on a Relic of Ancient Mexico," and "The Atlatl or Spear-thrower of the Ancient Mexicans," distinguish also in an eminent degree the paper now before us. It is a careful and comprehensive study based upon original sources, comprising early chronicles, old inventories of gifts sent by the Spanish conquerors to Charles V. and other personages, specimens of native Mexican art in ethnographical museums, and a dozen codices, and not only constitutes a valuable contribution to the special subject discussed, but also throws welcome light on portions of the still obscure and imperfectly explored province of Aztec civilization. The author begins with war-shields, of which there was a great variety according to different grades of the service. As the Aztecs waged wars chiefly for the purpose of procuring human victims for sacrifice, the aim of the soldier was not to kill, but to capture as many of the enemy as possible, and it was for such bloodless deeds of valor that he was most sure of rapid promotion. He entered the army, so to speak, as a blank sheet, on which he was to inscribe in hieroglyphic colors and characters the history of his military career. "His face and body were unpainted, his clothing was plain white, and his shield was a simple one of interwoven strips of bamboo cane"; but with every batch of prisoners he brought in, he was permitted to add some new ornament to his costume and to stain his skin with some bright pigment, until he became a gaudily painted warrior, with gorgeous shield, golden nose-crescent (*yacametze*), and other conspicuous insignia of exalted rank. Mention is also made of an oblong shield, which covered its bearer from head to foot, but which, when he was obliged to run, he could roll up and carry under his arm like an umbrella or a water-proof cloak.

—It was, however, the second class of shields, designed only for display at religious feasts and dances and on other gala days, on which the Aztec lavished his greatest artistic skill and barbaric wealth of decoration. Nearly all the shields sent by Cortez to Charles V. as "gifts to be distributed to churches, monasteries, and private individuals," were of this kind. The majority of them have doubtless perished and are known to us only from brief descriptions recorded in Spanish inventories or from pictorial representations in ancient Mexican manuscripts in which they are borne by various deities. A most interesting relic of this sort was recently discovered by Mrs. Nuttall at Ambras Castle, near Innsbruck, and recognized by her as identical with the "shield of red feathers, on its field a blue dragon of coarse mosaic work, garnished with gold-leaf," described in the inventory of 1596. This shield has been at Ambras for more than three centuries, and is in a marvellous state of preservation. "The feathers of which the mosaic work is composed are still fresh in color and have escaped the ravages of moths. Only a few pieces of the gold ornamentation are missing." Another interesting discovery recently made by Mrs. Nuttall we have already reported, viz., an ancient Mexican manuscript preserved in the Biblioteca Nazionale of Florence under the Spanish title: 'Libro de la vida que los Yndios antiguamente hazian, y supersticiones y malos ritos que tenian y guardavan,' rich in colored designs which serve to illustrate the text and are exceedingly valuable from an artistic point of view. Mrs. Nuttall is now having this entire codex photographically and chromolithographically reproduced in facsimile and will publish it at her own expense, with notes and introduction and an English translation of the text. The edition of this unique work will be limited to 200 copies, which may be purchased from the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard University. We may add that Mrs. Nuttall has been appointed Honorary Special Assistant in charge of the Mexican Department at the Chicago Exposition, and that she is having made for this department copies of some of the most important ancient Mexican manuscripts and antiquities now existing in European libraries and museums.

CONWAY'S PAINE.

The Life of Thomas Paine, with a History of his Literary, Political, and Religious Career in America, France, and England. By Moncure Daniel Conway. To which is added a sketch of Paine by William Cobbett, hitherto unpublished. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892. 2 vols, 8vo.

It is a remarkable fact that Mr. Conway's Life of Paine is the first biography of the famous heretic worthy to be so called. The attempts of Cheetham and "Oldys" and Rickman were mere sketches—the two former worthless because of their malicious enmity; the last th testimony of a faithful friend, but devoid of any literary merit and of any critical temper or research. Meantime, Paine has been equally the victim of such fulsome eulogy as that of Col. Ingersoll and the most ignorant depreciation. Even the gentlemen and scholars from whom something different was to be expected have allowed themselves to go with the prevailing falsehoods and to better their instructions, as where Mr. McMaster, in his first volume, anticipates by ten years Paine's theological reputation, and attributes to it the disfavor shown his economical opinions; and Mr. Roosevelt, in his Life of Gouverneur Morris, calls Paine a "filthy little atheist," when five minutes' reading in the 'Age of Reason' would have informed him that Paine was as little of an atheist as any one in the wide range of notoriety, even the most orthodox. With such things possible it was high time that Paine should have a good biographer, one who would extenuate nothing, nor set down aught in malice, but present the man in physical and intellectual and moral habit as he was. If Mr. Conway has not done this in each particular, it is evidently from no lack of generosity in his disposition. It is very certain that he has set down naught in malice; that he has extenuated nothing, some, if not many, of his readers will be less confident. His investigation may have been judicial, but there is too much of advocacy in the manner of his book to produce the best effect on those who will come to it with a prejudice against Paine or in his favor. The latter would be more readily confirmed in their opinion by a more studious appearance of impartiality, and the former would yield something of their prejudice to such an appearance which they will probably withhold from Mr. Conway's steady stream of adulation,

> "Shining on, shining on, by no shadow made tender."

If this indication is too absolute, the only deduction to be made from it is with reference to Paine's personal habits. Cheetham, a miserable partisan journalist, charged Paine with gross intemperance, with licentiousness, and with extreme contempt for the proverbial belief that cleanliness is next to godliness. These charges have had the widest currency, and Mr. Conway has felt it incumbent on him to investigate them thoroughly, and in the main he has succeeded in refuting them.

> "Still to be neat, still to be dressed
> As you were going to a feast,"

was not felt to be necessary a century ago so generally as now. The republican and literary affectation was in the opposite direction. Paine would seem to have been so much tidier than Dr. Johnson, whose "clean-shirt days" were epochs for his friends, as to have been always careful in his dress and toilet; if not in his extreme old age and poverty and broken health, it were cruel to say much of this. Add to those disabilities neglect and wounded vanity and a broken heart, and if he had been as hard a drinker as the Long Island parsons opposite his farm at New Rochelle, it would have been more pitiful than strange. But, though the reports and rumors are conflicting, and it is not easy to strike the balance with complete assurance, Mr. Conway's

judgment that Paine's temperance was exceptional for his time seems sound enough. That there was a time, in 1793, after the arrest of the Girondins, of whose party Paine had been, and before his own imprisonment, when he took to brandy violently, in order to "forget his sorrows, and remember his miseries no more," Mr. Conway makes no denial. Whether his argument for the limitation of the term of this excess is accepted or rejected will depend a good deal on the theology of his reader. It is that no besotted person could have written the 'Age of Reason.' Granted; but might not its fifty pages have been produced in the lucid intervals of a period of extreme excess? To repel the charge of licentiousness was a much easier matter; for this charge was confined to his relations with Madame Bonneville, who followed him to this country with her children, and was the object of his generous charity. When carefully considered, the evidence would seem to show that in an adulterous generation Paine was superior to the vice that smirched some of the most distinguished men.

Mr. Conway is deserving of much credit for the patience with which he has burrowed in contemporary records, in collateral biography, and in the hearsays and traditions that have seemed to promise some illumination of his long and painful way. He has brought many valuable and interesting things to light. The contemporary testimonies to the dignity of Paine's character, the graciousness of his behavior, and the value of his services which are brought together, are such as might have made a man less naturally vain extremely proud, while they completely overwhelm the counter-testimonies of his religious and political opponents. And yet there is a haunting afterthought that will not be dismissed. It is, Why, when Paine did so much and was so much, was he not more? After he came back to America in 1802, with Federalist and theological animosity both against him and continually strengthening each other, it was not strange that he became a doubtful friend for the most friendly. But long before that we are constrained to wonder whether there was not lacking something of solidity in him; whether his talent was not so much more evident than his character that even those who valued him most highly could not take him quite so seriously as he took himself.

He took himself very seriously indeed, and Mr. Conway does not take him a whit less so. Paine's self-consciousness was intense and his vanity extreme. Not content with a prodigal use of the first person singular, he has much to say of "Thomas Paine" and "Common-Sense," a synonym of which he never tired. Speaking of the reason which God had given him, he adds, "And I gratefully know that God has given me a large share of that divine gift." The proverb that the vain are never proud had in Paine's case the amplest illustration. A little pride would have saved him from a good deal of chagrin. Mr. Conway has only praise for his generosity in giving up the profits of one publication after another, but we could go with him much more heartily if afterwards he had not insisted on his gratuitous services and made himself the pensioner of this and that bounty, like the daughters of the horse-leech, for ever crying "Give." It was a true bill, that of Gouverneur Morris, when he found him supremely lacking in that common sense to which he laid a special claim. He had plenty of it in dealing with "soft money" and other aspects of concrete politics; he had very little in managing his own affairs. His cosmopolitan sympathies made him "a man without a country," and without the stability or adaptability which insures practical success. The brilliant talents which in our time would have made seven cities claim him as the editor of as many leading journals, left him a century ago a writer of pamphlets, and of letters in which he made a present of his opinions to some who valued them and some who did not, but who paid as little for them in the one case as in the other. While estimated by himself and many other generous spirits as a Universal Enlightener and Reformer, it is evident that to many others he appeared to be a mere adventurer. There is a golden mean between these two extremes, but it is not hit by Mr. Conway in his estimation of Paine's character and work. The epithets he heaps upon him—"this founder of republics," etc.—and the grandiose way in which he speaks of him throughout, though they may please and satisfy a multitude of Paine's adherents who needed no addition to their confidence in his supremacy, will have a tendency to make him seem absurd to those who come to Mr. Conway's book with any proper sense of relative values in the history of great events. Paine was one of the greatest of his kind, not exceeded by any of these in the picturesqueness or the tragedy of his career; but his kind was not that of Cavour and Stein and Deák; it was that of Cobbett and Defoe. He was one of the greatest of the pamphleteers, and in America his pamphlets were half-battles in "the times that tried men's souls."

This happy phrase is one of several of Paine's phrases that are now in daily use, and one of many that he coined on which his image and superscription were as unmistakable. He was a maker of phrases and he loved the things that he had made. We know this by the way he fondles them, repeating them as affectionately as does Tennyson the phrases that he loves. But his strength as a writer was not more in special phrases than in the even tenor of his style. Jeffrey's wonder as to where Macaulay picked up that style is even more pertinent of Paine. A single pamphlet, printed in 1772, was his only public writing before he came to America with Franklin's modest recommendation in his pocket, and but little else. There was in that no hint of 'Common Sense,' nor even of the best articles which he wrote before that for the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. As for the theory that he was the author of the 'Letters of Junius,' Mr. Conway mentions it respectfully, and disposes of it effectually in a dozen lines. It would have been enough to say that, were there a hint of Paine's style in Junius, it would have been as impossible for him to keep a secret so flattering to his vanity as for him to "get himself crucified and rise in three days," as Talleyrand advised one of his set to do if he would found a new religion. As we should expect, the author of this theory, Mr. W. H. Burr, also maintains the Baconian authorship of Shakspere. That Paine wrote the Declaration of Independence is another item of Mr. Burr's belief that somebody else wrote everything. Mr. Conway entertains so much of this suggestion as pertains to the rejected anti-slavery clause. "There can be little doubt," he says, "that this was written by Paine, or by some one who had Paine's anti-slavery essay before him." He then quotes Paine's words and the rejected clause in parallel columns, proving that the resemblance was not remarkable, and then continues, "Thus did Paine try to lay at the corner the stone which the builders rejected and which afterwards ground their descendants to powder." This passage from the indefinite to the definite, from the uncertain to the certain, is one of many such in Mr. Conway's book. Another is where Paine returns to England, and to his mother in her ninety-first year. "As she lived to be ninety-four, it may be that he sat beside her in the Quaker meeting-house." This on page 230, vol. i., and on p. 232: "While in America the States were discussing the Constitution proposed by the Convention, Paine sat in the silent meeting at Thetford, dreaming of the Parliament of Man and federation of the world." In general, Mr. Conway uses the Quaker antecedents of Paine for a great deal more than they are worth; but far more questionable is his finding of the root of Elias Hicks in Paine for no better reason than that his cousin, Willett Hicks, was kind to Paine in his last days, and was one of the half-dozen people who followed him to his lonely grave. There is a good deal of vague surmise in Mr. Conway's book, even where it is least admissible, as in the charge against Gouverneur Morris. He makes it plain enough that Morris was jealous of Paine's influence in France, and inimical to him; also, that his hostility kept Paine in prison for ten months, as his friendly disposition would have prevented his going there at all. This is bad enough. That Morris was at the bottom of a "conspiracy" against Paine, which resulted in his imprisonment as an Englishman, should have more evidence than Mr. Conway furnishes to be confidently received. Paine's sense of Washington's unkindness during his imprisonment and afterwards is one of the most distressing features of his history. Before expressing itself in the abusive public letter which, after the 'Age of Reason,' has most hurt his fame, it expressed itself in a private letter for a reply to which he waited long in vain. It is one of Mr. Conway's many guesses, and one of the most attractive, that Timothy Pickering, then Washington's Secretary of State, suppressed this letter.

Paine had done much good service with his pen, and in various clerical positions, in the years following the war, when in 1787 he went to England with the plans of an iron bridge which he had invented. The flattering reference to his invention which Mr. Conway quotes from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' is from the eighth edition, and in the ninth it is withdrawn, along with the credit given to Paine for the bridge at Wearmouth; but of Paine's right to be accounted one of the pioneers upon this line there is no doubt. Paine's English friends were creditable both to his mind and heart; William Blake, called "Pictor Ignotus," was one of the more intimate, and to his sagacity Paine was indebted for his escape from England in 1792, when he added fuel to his 'Rights of Man' with an inflammatory speech. Mr. Conway's summary of that famous pamphlet, Part II., is not flattering to Paine's ability as a political philosopher—there is hardly an item of the summary that would be accepted by a careful publicist of our own time—but its strength was in its definitions only in a subordinate degree. That it made a tremendous stir and scare in England there can be no doubt, and Paine did not get off a day too soon. In France his intimacies for the most part were with the best men of the Convention, and Condorcet was his closest friend. Mr. Conway infers that Paine had much to do with Condorcet in shaping the constitution which the Girondists wanted, while the Mountain preferred chronic revolution. It was Paine's preference for law to revolution, and his anxiety to save the life of the King, that

made him an object of suspicion to the revolutionary party. His inability to speak French must have been a serious bar to his enjoyment of society, and have kept him in imperfect touch with men and things. When the Girondists were arrested, Paine absented himself from the meetings of the Convention, but he was not thrown into prison until December 28, 1793. There, by a happy accident, he escaped the guillotine, but a fever brought him nigh to death, and he came out November 6, 1794, a physical wreck, to enter the family of Minister Monroe, where, tenderly cared for, he gradually regained his health.

The first part of his 'Age of Reason' was written just before he went to prison, and the second part during his confinement. Mr. Conway is not a little embarrassed in dealing with Paine's religious character, for he wishes to be sympathetic and he finds it difficult to be so. There never was, in fact, a doughtier advocate than Paine of that natural religion which is Mr. Conway's pet aversion. In his religious writings Paine stood for the religiousness of science as he stood for nothing else. That men should imitate the goodness of God as it is revealed in nature, is the sum and substance of his doctrine of religion. But to Mr. Conway, nature, especially inorganic nature, is simply devilish, and he does his best to wring from Paine a testimony favorable to his own opinion, but with no appreciable result. He chooses to call Paine a Theist, though the words Theist and Deist are generally supposed to connote different ideas, and Paine was as representative a Deist as any of his time; his God a mechanical creator, not an immanent life. Mr. Conway does not exaggerate the religiousness of Paine's theological writings. They were written to vindicate the character of God from what he considered the most hateful misrepresentations. For Jesus also he had only honest reverence. We look in vain to Mr. Conway for any adequate indication of the defects of Paine's criticism of the Bible. His negative results have very generally been justified by subsequent criticism and multiplied a hundred fold. As a zephyr to a tornado is the destructive force of his criticism of the Old Testament prophecies to that of Kuenen's 'Prophets and Prophecy in Israel.' But of the moral dignity of the prophets he had no appreciation, and he had as little of the ethical and spiritual qualities of the Psalms, the Gospels, and the Epistles, and of the processes by which the writings of the Old and New Testaments came to be accepted and revered with but a little of the pious fraud in which he finds well-nigh their whole account. It is, unfortunate, but it is true, that what has attracted to Paine a great majority of his followers has been, not his religiousness, but his negative assault on Christian superstition; and this has been because this negative assault is altogether his most characteristic note. The other is a still, small voice; this is the earthquake, the whirlwind, and the fire.

But if Paine's religion was something more than Mr. Conway's love and service of humanity, it was also and preëminently this. With less insistence than upon some other things, our author shows in almost every chapter of his book that Paine was one of the most humane of men, one of the most benevolent and beneficent. It was no accident that one of his first writings in America was a brave assault on slavery, nor that he opposed the execution of Louis, and all barbarous punishments. And the reformer was not a mockery of the man. In all his personal relations he was affectionate and tender, a lover of little children, a helper of the unfortunate. Had his education been equal to his talents, he would have done much better work. The imperfections of his knowledge were, however, less than the imperfections of his taste. It is one of the unconscious humors of Mr. Conway's book that he represents him as a poet who suppressed the sacred fire, for he was utterly prosaic, and never more so than when he "dropped into poetry." This defect entered into his interpretation of the Hebrew and Christian Scriptures, which is marked by the baldest literalism throughout. When every abatement has been made, Paine's humanity was so large and pure that nothing could be sadder than the sense of ingratitude and desertion which overwhelmed him at the last.

ROYCE'S SPIRIT OF MODERN PHILOSOPHY.

The Spirit of Modern Philosophy: An Essay in the Form of Lectures. By Josiah Royce, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xv, 519.

MINDS trained to careful and exact thought are frequently repelled by the looseness and vagueness of what currently passes by the indefinite name of philosophy. In the history of thought, the separate sciences have one by one split off and differentiated into circumscribed and systematized bodies of generalized knowledge, taking little account of the opinions of individual thinkers except in so far as they may be appropriated by others and recognized as of value quite apart from the authority of the individual formulating them. A truth once proved becomes detached from its historical setting, forgets its own father, and stands solely on its merits. The fact that Descartes was the discoverer of a method of combining algebra and geometry is of small interest to the mathematician. Kepler's laws are called Kepler's only for convenience, and the student of mechanics does not care a straw for the authority of Kepler, nor does he enter into any curious inquiry as to the causes in the character and environment of this thinker which led to their formulation. Verification takes the place of an appeal to authority, and a clear line is drawn between science and the history of science; the latter being regarded as a department of historical study, and a science only in the sense in which history in general is a science. Few students think it necessary to look into it.

In recent times psychology and ethics seem to have made some progress upon this road. Discussion has become more impersonal, more scientific in method, less given to seeking authorities and threatening with consequences. Philosophy, as it is generally taught both in America and in Europe, is still literature, biography, or history, rather than an independent discipline embodying a systematic doctrine. It may be sufficiently interesting to know that Kant ate one meal a day, that Hegel wrote dreary love-letters, that Schopenhauer was a generally offensive character and quarrelled with his mother. But what have these things to do with the correctness of the distinction between phenomena and noumena, the theory of universals, or the doctrine of the "World as Will"? It is quite possible that Socrates would have had less confidence in the moral order of the universe had he been afflicted with intestinal indigestion, but that purely personal fact should have little significance to one weighing the objective value of his doctrine. However, the general public wants literature and biography when it attends lectures on philosophy, and Prof. Royce has prudently sugared a pill which the plain man finds it difficult to swallow unless disguised.

It is not merely in the historical part of his book (Lect. II. to IX.) that Prof. Royce shows a tendency to regard philosophy rather as literature than as science. He reveals throughout a literary horror of being found uninteresting, and in his introductory lecture (p. 23) he makes a frank confession of his feeling. He says:

"I love the variety of the philosophers, as I love the variety of the thoughtful looks which light up earnest young faces. I love all these because they express passion, wonder, truth. But alas for me if ever I have for professional reasons to study a book behind whose technical subtleties I can catch no glimpse of the manly heart of its author. His conclusions may be sound. I shall then hate him only the more for that. Error may be dull if it chooses; but there is no artistic blasphemy equal to so placing the harp of truth as to make it sound harsh and wooden when you strike it fairly. Philosophical books I have read with whose doctrines, as doctrines, I have even been forced in great measure to agree; and yet, so lifeless, so bloodless, were their authors, so reptilian were the cold and slowly writhing sentences in which their thought was expressed, that I have laid down such volumes with a sense of disgrace and rebellion, 'bitterly ashamed,' as a friend of mine has expressed the same feeling in my hearing—'bitterly ashamed to find myself living in a universe whose truth could possibly be made so inefficacious and uninteresting.' "

The type of mind illustrated in this confession is not attracted by a philosophy whose only merit is its clearness and evidence. It is attracted rather by an appeal to emotion. The attentive reader will find throughout the book constant traces of this leaning on the part of the author, and he will do well to keep it in view in weighing the final chapters, which contain Prof. Royce's positive contribution to philosophy.

The sketch of the history of modern thought as represented in Spinoza, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, and Schopenhauer is charming reading. The style is clear—though it would be still clearer if a trifle less diffuse—and no little art is shown in the selection of incidents and doctrines. The writer is in evident sympathy with the men he discusses, and possesses in a high degree the historic sense which sees a man in his context and seizes his meaning fairly. The connection of the successive systems is well brought out. There is much biographical detail which has little to do with philosophy, but these lectures were delivered before popular audiences, and popular audiences must be entertained much as Epicurus is said to have entertained his followers and enlivened the tedium of scholastic labors. On the whole, we are of the opinion that these popular lectures may profitably be read even by those who have an acquaintance with the original authors, for along with the exposition there goes a running commentary of criticism which reveals more or less clearly the standpoint of the lecturer. He appears to have been influenced greatly by Hegel and Schopenhauer, though most, perhaps, by the latter. Indeed, the doctrine of the "World as Will" needs little modification to express fairly his philosophic faith.

Prof. Royce's own doctrine, embodied in the last four lectures in the book, must be judged on its merits as an attempt at a body of consistent reasoning founded on evidence. Its literary expression and artistic form, its appeal to "passion and wonder," its revelation of "the

manly heart of its author," must all be set aside as quite extraneous to the question at issue, which is simply and solely the consistency of the doctrine and the cogency of the reasons for accepting it. Any literary embellishment other than that which conduces to perfect clearness is rather objectionable than otherwise. A multitude of words and illustrations may conceal looseness and inexactitude in reasoning, and, indeed, they constantly have precisely this result. Prof. Royce himself appeals to such a treatment of his reasonings as we conceive to be the proper one in maintaining (p. 435) that his doctrine is "the outcome of a rigid logical analysis."

This, however, we cannot allow it to be. The doctrine, briefly stated, is as follows: The one indubitable fact is the existence of an Infinite Self, a Logos or World-mind (p. 345). That it exists is clear (1) because Idealism has shown that real things are nothing more nor less than ideas, or "possibilities of experience"; but a mere "possibility" as such is nothing, and a world of "possible" experience, in so far as it is real, must be a world of actual experience to some self (p. 367). If, then, there be a real world, it has all the while existed as ideal and mental even before it became known to the particular mind with which we conceive it as coming into connection (p. 368). (2.) But there is such a real world, for when I *think of* an object, when I *mean* it, I do not merely have in mind an idea resembling it, for I aim at the object, I pick it out, I already in some measure possess it. The object is then already present in essence to my hidden self (p. 370). As truth consists in knowledge of the conformity of a cognition to its object, that alone can know a truth which includes within itself both idea and object. This inclusive knower is the Infinite Self (p. 374). With this I am in essence identical (p. 371), it is my larger self (p. 372), and this larger self alone is (p. 379). It includes all reality, and we know other finite minds because we are one with them in its unity (p. 409).

This doctrine is supposed to give us freedom and content with the system of things. All our volitions in the world of sense are determined, but since the Logos in a *timeless choice* elected that things should be as they are, and we are in essence identical with him, we are free as partaking in his timeless choice (p. 433). And though the existence of evil cannot be denied, we may rest content with the world in the reflection that the Logos would have chosen a better world had he been dissatisfied with this one (p. 439).

As one may readily see, the reasoning which endeavors to establish the existence of the Infinite Self is loose and inconsequent, and the consolation to be derived from the doctrine more than dubious. Prof. Royce constantly distinguishes between ideas and the objects supposed to correspond to them, and he as constantly makes his point by overlooking this distinction. He sets out to search for "something yonder that corresponds in fact to this series of experiences in us" (p. 360). He expects to find this something a system of ideas "outside of our minds, but not outside of every mind" (p. 360). He seeks for a reality that our minds "resemble" (p. 361), and of which our experience is only the "copy" (p. 360). This reality exists before it becomes known to the particular mind we conceive as coming into connection with it (p. 368). Thus the reality is one thing, and the experience in this particular mind quite another. The problem is to pass from the experience to the reality.

This clear line between our ideas and what is supposed to correspond to them is promptly rubbed out in the assumption that when I *think of* an object, when I *mean* it, the object itself is already present to me (p. 370). True, it is admitted that the object is present only to the "hidden self." But since I, the self to which consciousness testifies, have only the thought of the object, the "copy," the personal "experience," I must surely give some reason for assuming the existence of the object other than the presence of the copy in me. Otherwise the existence of the object itself is by no means established. And as the "larger self" is "hidden," and is assumed merely as a something that shall include my "copy" and the object corresponding to my "copy," its existence goes under a cloud with that of the object. In short, Prof. Royce's "larger self" is simply a receptacle for smuggled objects—objects brought in free of duty because they are declared strictly identical with certain objects on the free list which yet he has carefully distinguished from them.

Individual minds Prof. Royce calls "bits" or "parts" of the Logos (pp. 373, 410, 412, 416, 437, *et passim*), and nevertheless he describes them as "in essence" identical with it (pp. 368, 371, *et passim*). This vague expression may cover a multitude of logical sins. Strictly speaking, they can be identical only with the particular bit they happen to be, and no one of them can in any exact sense be identical with any other. It is a mere playing with words to explain their knowledge of each other as arising from the fact that they are "in essence" identical.

And as to their participation in the "timeless choice" of the Logos, it is enough to say that, according to this doctrine, they never have had, have not now, and never will have any chance to choose at all. Any choice they may make in the lack of time that is left is too unlike what in psychology we know as choice to give any great degree of satisfaction. It would conduce to clearness to give this timeless performance some other name.

Men, Mines and Animals in South Africa. By Lord Randolph S. Churchill, M. P. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xv, 337. Map and illustrations.

Lord Randolph Churchill's letters to the *Daily Graphic* could be dismissed in a few words as a lively but superficial account of familiar scenes, hardly worthy of preservation in book form, but for one reason: his purpose in undertaking this journey to Mashonaland was not that of a mere holiday traveller, but to inquire into the nature and extent of the agricultural resources and mineral wealth of this newly acquired territory. Regarded in this light, his letters have some importance, and can hardly fail to influence in a degree the present fortunes of the British South African Company. The earlier letters give his impressions of Cape Town, Kimberley, and the Transvaal, through which he passed on his way north. This State is described in the most glowing terms, as having a soil of "astonishing fertility," a genial climate, and, possibly, "the greatest gold-field of the world," to say nothing of its silver and coal mines. But all this potential wealth is rendered almost nugatory through the stubborn opposition of the ruling caste to its development. The Boer, according to Lord Randolph, "never plants a tree, never digs a well, never makes a road, never grows a blade of corn." The personification of useless idleness, he "drags out the most degraded and ignoble existence ever experienced by a race with any pretence to civilization." Although all the capital invested in the land is foreign and under foreign direction, although the inhabitants of his largest and most prosperous town, Johannesburg, are mainly English, and though more than three-fourths of his land is now owned by foreigners, the Boer insolently denies "all political and even municipal rights to persons residing in the Transvaal other than of Dutch birth." These are strong assertions, but other travellers tell substantially the same story, and the time is probably near at hand when, as Lord Randolph not obscurely hints, the Englishmen of the Transvaal "will impatiently jerk from their shoulders the government of the Boers."

Mashonaland proved in nearly every respect a disappointment, the greater because of its contrast to the coveted territory of the Boers. As regards its agricultural resources, our author's testimony is that "on the low veldt, where the soil is of extraordinary fertility, fever and horse sickness afflict human beings and exterminate stock; on the high veldt, where neither of these evils extensively prevails, the soil is barren and worthless." With respect to the value of its mines his conclusion, mainly the result of the investigations of an American mining expert whom he took with him for this purpose, is that gold has not yet been discovered in paying quantities—in other words, that the mines have been apparently exhausted by the prehistoric gold-hunters, the massive ruins of whose fortress-temples are still to be found in this region. Possibly the great contrast to the Transvaal, with its fertile soil, healthy climate, and rich mines, has colored somewhat too darkly the author's views, but the truth seems to be that the "hinterland" must first be filled up before Zambesia can greatly attract the European emigrant. Still, it should be said that there were some encouraging indications. During the two months in which he was at Fort Salisbury, the principal settlement, Lord Randolph observed "a noteworthy increase in the size and a marked improvement in the character of the township. Tents and wagon dwellings had rapidly given place to well-constructed huts, and these latter were being to a considerable extent supplanted by buildings of brick, of which material a fair quality is being manufactured here." Virgin gold-reefs which have escaped the quest of the Phœnician or Arabian miners, may also be discovered at any time, as well as other mineral wealth.

There are excellent descriptions of camp and wagon-life while crossing the veldt, and many readers will enjoy the account of the author's numerous and sometimes exciting experiences in hunting. Though the great game is getting scarce, lions, ostriches, and elands are still occasionally to be found, while the smaller antelope are plentiful in some districts. The pictures which originally appeared in the *Daily Graphic* have been reproduced in this volume, but, with a few exceptions, they can hardly be said to add to its attractiveness. A good index and an admirably clear map of all South Africa south of the Zambesi add materially to the value of the reprint as a book for reference.

Marriage and Disease: A Study of Heredity and the more Important Family Degenerations. By S. A. K. Strahan, M. D., Barrister-at-Law, etc., etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. Pp. 313.

It is consistent with the double profession of

medicine and of law, which the author avows upon the title-page, that the medico-legal aspects of this book should suggest at once its limitations and its aims. Far from being a critically scientific study of heredity in general, or of the evidence in regard to the transmission of acquired characteristics, it is the purpose of the book simply to give a useful statement of the manner in which disease is handed down from generation to generation, and of the ways in which nature may be assisted or thwarted in the endeavor to perpetuate the normal man. Fortified by numerous quotations from standard works, the author is content to take for granted many things actually in dispute. His purpose is not controversial, but descriptive and educational. The five so-called "laws" of heredity are admittedly arbitrary divisions of one great principle—useful chiefly for descriptive purposes, and capable of being extended or contracted to suit the style of exposition. And here, as in other parts of the discussion, the author's canons of exposition do not forbid the introduction of personal conviction in the absence of more positive proof. In short, the hope embodied in the treatise, with constant and more or less unskilful reiteration, is the not unfamiliar one that man may learn to apply to the improvement of his own species the principles of generative selection which he has already learned to apply to the beasts that perish. It is admitted that marriage and the "choice of partners" is at present largely a matter of blind instinct; but this blindness—at all events the excuse of ignorance—it is the duty of science to remove. To those unfortunates in whom the taint of disease is irremediable, it should say: Refrain from perpetuating your misery in offspring; to that larger class whose heritage may be purified, it should point out the remedy; to those whose pedigree is pure, it should teach the way of guarding the precious legacy and transmitting it unimpaired. Nay, more:

"Nowadays, when the maniac, the melancholiac, and the would-be suicide of yesterday, the imbecile, the epileptic, and the habitual drunkard are married and given in marriage, the suffering has become so terrible, the contamination of the race so great, and the care of the useless offspring so heavy a charge upon the community, that if some effort be not made voluntarily to stay this curse upon the land, the Legislature must be called upon to interfere."

Obviously this is but a restatement of the familiar paradox of the survival of the unfittest, under the régime of sympathy that is the outcome of the humane and moral sentiments by which we measure the advance of civilization. In the "primitive and natural" condition of society, the unfit pays the penalty of his inability to adapt himself to his environment; in our philanthropic wisdom we adapt the environment to the unfit, and aid him by every device known to science to propagate his kind. Unquestionably there is a tendency to darken the picture. Statistics of disease would be lugubrious at best; but when to hereditary transmission of certain disorders there is liberally added the "transmutability of diatheses," it is easy to prove all the rest. Everything is reduced to the convenient common denominator of a "degenerate condition," which may manifest itself in one generation as gout and in the next as rheumatism, in one as habitual drunkenness, in another as epilepsy, and again as insanity, idiocy, or instinctive criminality, and so on through the category of alleged transmutations, so that it is not difficult to gratify the author's predilection for detecting hereditary "predisposition" for all the protean forms of disease.

When all qualifications are made, however, it must be admitted that the problem is grave and the need of enlightenment very great. It is a matter of regret, therefore, that the author could not have couched his instruction in more dignified and persuasive terms. Doubtless it may be urged that there is precedent for the somewhat hysterical rehearsal of Lecky's famous arraignment of legislation for refusal to provide proper sanitary measures for the repression of the disease spread by prostitution; but in the denunciation of the "canting blockheads" and "puling sentimentalists" who excuse selfish or ignorant disregard of the laws of heredity, the author's language shows none of the persuasive eloquence of understatement. There is, rather, a certain hortatory petulance, which sometimes comes from habitual treatment of all the world as a sick man.

Each chapter, after rehearsing in language suited to popular comprehension the gruesome characteristics of some such disease as cancer, scrofula, phthisis, epilepsy or gout, closes with the crucial inquiry as to who should marry. General rules borrowed from the stock fancier's manual are suggested as to the disastrous results of breeding "in and in" where the contracting families are tainted with allied forms of disease, and the beneficent results of "crossings"; but the gist of the whole matter for people contemplating matrimony is, "Consult your family physician." Indeed, it is no disparagement to say that this is probably the best advice to give such sensitive and conscientious people as may contemplate reading the book. Susceptible people, unfamiliar with the exaggerated effect produced upon the imagination by the massing of rather ghastly pathological details, are prone to make uncomfortably personal applications of imperfect knowledge.

Villainage in England: Essays in English Mediæval History. By Paul Vinogradoff, Professor in the University of Moscow. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

Not long ago it was common for philosophers to maintain that man was originally a pure and enlightened being, and that what we call progress as revealed in history was a struggle to return to the primordial state of blessedness. The grounds of this theory were largely Biblical, but not altogether so, for the belief in former *Saturnia regna* seems to have been almost universal, and the speculations of Rousseau were acceptable to many who rejected the Christian theology. It was in harmony with this tendency that many students of social institutions declared that in the mark or Teutonic village-community individual liberty existed in a high degree of perfection, and that the serfdom of feudal times represented a period of degradation. This view was supported by such an extensive array of evidence, and was upon many accounts so agreeable to the spirit of the present age, that it came to be regarded as certainly demonstrated, and it is hardly necessary to say that it plays an important part in the theories of the reformers of land tenure.

The researches of certain scholars, notably Mr. Seebohm and M. Fustel de Coulanges, have recently disturbed this somewhat too complacent unanimity as to the degree to which freedom prevailed among our Teutonic ancestors. Facts have been disclosed giving support to the view that during the feudal period there was much acquisition of rights by the subject population. Some rights were lost, but others were gained; and it has been plausibly argued that villains are to be regarded, not as the degraded offspring of freemen, but as the partly emancipated descendants of slaves. It is true that Tacitus drew an edifying picture of the free Teuton; but he is by no means silent as to the unfree members of the community, and some modern scholars have certainly failed to make room in their reconstructed villages for this important part of the population. Human bondage was an almost universal institution in early times, and slaves were at least as valuable to the primitive agriculturist as cattle are to the farmer of the present day. When a conquest was made, no doubt great numbers of the conquered were slain; but great numbers also were enslaved, and it is not to be supposed that the Anglo-Saxons either extinguished the existing inhabitants of Britain, or admitted them to an equal social position with themselves.

It seems evident, therefore, that the last word has by no means yet been said upon this subject, and that much more study is required before positive conclusions can be formulated. The work now before us is a good example of what should be done in this direction. The author is thoroughly modest; he does not profess to have achieved great results, and he manifests the most careful regard for the results obtained by other laborers in the same field. He exhibits in his introductory chapter a thorough knowledge of the progress that has been made in these investigations and a correct appreciation of the positions taken by the several investigators. In fact, this introduction is an admirable presentation of the history of our progress in this department of research, and to have written it establishes the competency of the author to further this progress. It is satisfactory to know, although we do not require other assurance of the author's capacity than the work itself, that he has been assisted by the friendly counsel of such men as Pollock, Maitland, and Seebohm, and we may add that his style seldom suggests that the writer is not an educated Englishman. In spite of this, he apologizes gracefully in his preface for presuming to explore this field, reminding us that to a Russian it is one of peculiar interest, the existence of serfdom in his country having ended but yesterday, while the village community is still flourishing.

As to the results reached by Prof. Vinogradoff, we can only say in general that they are such as he adduces evidence for. His work has lain among the records, and he cites his authorities for all his statements, but attempts no brilliant generalizations. He produces his effect by a thousand little touches, every one by itself trifling, but effective through cumulation. He displays nothing of the historical imagination which makes Seebohm's work so telling and distinguishes, though to a less degree, that of Gomme. Nor does he, as we hoped might have been possible, throw any light upon English problems from Russian analogies. His book, therefore, appeals only to specialists, and it would be futile to attempt here to consider the multitudinous details which it elaborates. In general, it may be said, he maintains that the status of the villain was better than has been supposed; that he was a free man as regarded every one except his lord, and as against him the law gave the villain much protection. Even in the thirteenth century, "we come across remnants of a state of things in which one portion at least of the servile class had civil rights as well as duties in regard to the lord." When status was in question, the presumption was in favor of freedom, and "however complete the lord's

power over the serf may have been, it was entirely bound up with the manorial organization."

Much stress is laid upon the existence of tenant-rights in manors in ancient demesne, it being fairly inferable that these rights survived from the Saxon period. A careful examination of the theories of the lawyers leads to the distinction of three elements in villainage. "Legal theory and political disabilities would fain make it all but slavery; the manorial system ensures it something of the character of the Roman *colonatus;* there is a stock of freedom in it which speaks of Saxon tradition." More emphatic is the statement that the administrative constitution of hundred and county is derived from a social system which did not recognize the feudal opposition between freeholder and villain, and that in short the villain population was, to a large extent, originally free. Prof. Vinogradoff considers that this position may be maintained in spite of the fact that the communities mentioned in Domesday are described as almost entirely peopled by villains. The villains of Domesday, in his view, include customary freeholders. The discrimination of this third class, between freeholders and villains, is perhaps as important as anything suggested by this author.

In the intermixture of strips in the open fields evidence is found of the communal origin of property, the allotment being intended to equalize shares. The system became rigid from the manorial administration, which used it in the adjustment of labor and rent. Rights of common have a similar origin. In general, so far as any controlling theory is adopted, Prof. Vinogradoff's view is that the manorial structure was imposed upon the village community, in which freemen were to a greater or less degree an element. No satisfactory explanation is offered of the appearance of the lord of the manor, or of the origin of the manor, a link that should be supplied to make the theory complete. But the treatment of details is very elaborate, and the results go far to support the author's conclusions. More than this, upon such an obscure and controverted subject, we do not think it necessary to say.

The Early Days of My Episcopate. By the Right Rev. William Ingraham Kip, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of California. Thomas Whittaker. 1892.

THE title of this volume does not indicate that part of it which secures for it a certain lively interest. The early days of Bishop Kip's Episcopate will find few to care for them; the early days of California which coincided with them will find many more. The book was written in 1859 and 1860, with the intention of bequeathing the MS. to the author's family; but, having lived so long as to become, as it were, his own posterity, he has yielded to the solicitation of friends and printed it without alteration or addition. He would have done well, after the manner of Dana in the edition of 'Two Years before the Mast' published in his later life, to write a supplementary chapter giving a comparative view of the old life and the new.

Dr. Kip was appointed a Missionary Bishop of California in 1853, and sailed for Aspinwall on December 20, and, as men note the most unimportant circumstances on occasions of first-rate importance, he notes that one of those who came to see him off was the Rev. J. H. Hanson, who brought him 'The Lost Prince,' which came out that very day—an attempt to show that Eleazer Williams was Louis XVII. The trip to California was extended over forty days and diversified by the wreck of the magnificent coastwise steamer the *Golden Gate* in the harbor of San Diego, a wreck having no tragic implications, but all the more preposterous ones of the wreck of the *Royal George.* The general account of the trip, and especially that part of it which relates to crossing the Isthmus, would be pleasant reading on a through car from New York to San Francisco, such as the traveller may now enjoy—if gaining, also losing, much.

Bishop Kip remained in California till 1857, when he came East to be made a Diocesan Bishop and returned invested with his new office, to spend the remainder of his life in the work of his bishopric. The chapters of his book detail his first attempts to establish the services of his Church in different places, and there is a pervading humor in their incongruity with the social setting. Some confusion of the point of view is occasioned by transitions from a contemporary journal to the final reminiscence. A few dates would help to a better understanding: we would know, for example, more exactly when the population of San Francisco numbered 30,000 males and 5,000 females. The fabulous prices of various articles will interest the younger generation and for older people bring back the old surprise. Apples at five dollars apiece in 1854 were singularly unprophetic of the fruit-raising California of to-day. Rents and household service were almost as exorbitant—cooks from seventy to one hundred dollars a month and nurses at five dollars a day. A good deal of the local color, it must be confessed, is blood-red. Gentlemen were indicated as "the man who killed ——— in a duel" or "who shot ——— last winter"; and these little histories did not affect injuriously one's social or political standing. The theory that morals vary more in character than in amount is strengthened by some recent echoes of life in San Francisco that have floated hither. Their burden is that handsome houses there are now indicated as sheltering this or that form of conjugal infelicity or irregularity. In Southern California the people "had no doubt the Church could be established under very favorable circumstances. They wanted something which did not preach Nebraska or Kansas, slavery or anti-slavery," etc. These are the most familiar words in a volume which deals exclusively with the circumstances of an almost forgotten episode of Western civilization.

The Atlantic Ferry. By Arthur J. Maginnis. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THIS book is somewhat similar in its scope to the volume recently published by the Scribners upon 'Ocean Steamships,' but much less popular and attractive in its treatment of the subject as well as in its text and illustrations. It contains, however, considerable matter which is both useful and interesting, and fulfils with a certain degree of success the author's intention to produce a handy and simple book of reference for those engaged in the Atlantic service; and to a less extent it may be consulted by the "thousands of passengers who are ever passing to and fro on the great Ferry."

The first chapter gives a history of the early steam navigation of the North Atlantic, with a reference at the beginning of the chapter to the famous lines of sailing packets from New York to Liverpool antedating the steamers. One of these vessels, the *Dreadnought,* leads the sailing record by a passage of only nine days and seventeen hours from New York to Queenstown. After the narration contained in this chapter of the occasional and irregular steamers which first crossed the Atlantic, the author proceeds to give in seven chapters an historical account of the various companies and lines that were formed and operated to cross the Atlantic regularly with steamers of increased speed and capacity. He begins with the Cunard line, passes next to the Collins line, and ends with the lines that sail from the ports of the Continent.

Other chapters of the book are devoted to the workings of an Atlantic steamship line on shore and afloat, to the advance in the construction of the vessels, and to the development of the various methods of steam propulsion. Brief notice is also taken of some of the men who have designed, built, and managed the steamships of the transatlantic lines. In the case of the Cunard line, the author recalls a notable event in Boston history by printing a graphic relation of the sailing of the *Britannia* from Boston harbor in 1844, when the harbor was frozen with ice seven feet thick at the wharves and two feet in thickness for a distance of seven miles. The story of the cutting of the channel and of the scenes accompanying the departure of the mail steamer is still told with gratification by the older watermen of Boston harbor. The Cunard line, notwithstanding the fact that its steamers are just now eclipsed by the express steamers of the Inman and White Star lines, has maintained its general preëminence among the Atlantic lines, and the two new steamers being built for this company will lead the merchant fleets of the world in size and speed as well as in cost and elegance. The plan pursued by the British Admiralty in giving a special subvention to a limited number of Atlantic liners constructed in accordance with their requirements for service as armed cruisers in time of war, is both wise and economical. It allows a larger proportion of the annual expenditure to be used for vessels required in the line of battle. It gives a tangible return for the money invested by the Government, and is of mutual benefit to the Government and to the steamship company. In its nature it is unlike a postal subsidy, shipping bounty, or mileage subvention.

The author has drawn so largely from his scrap-book in making this volume that it is suggestive at times of padding; but he has also incorporated a number of original diagrams and statistical tables which will be useful and interesting to those desirous of studying the development of the noble vessels that ferry across the Atlantic.

The Science of Nutrition, etc. By Edward Atkinson and Others. Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan & Co. 1892.

THOUGH this volume contains essays on food-values and dietaries in keeping with its title, its chief interest lies in its description of Mr. Atkinson's invention, the Aladdin oven. Impressed by the elaborate unsuitability to its purpose of the ordinary kitchen range, he some years ago began experimenting with various other methods of cooking, and has at last satisfied himself by the substitution of a paper box for the iron box that we now try to bake in. From the non-conducting character of the oven walls, there results a surprising economy of fuel, so that almost or quite all the cooking for a family of moderate size may be done with one central-draft lamp. This seems less astonishing when we remember that the heat of the lamp is strictly confined to its own

work, cooking food, very little escaping to raise the temperature of the kitchen and the temper of the cook to their ordinary "summer heat." Economy of food as well as fuel, it is affirmed, attends the use of the Aladdin oven, since the cheaper meats, grains, and vegetables are so improved in taste and digestibility by long cooking at moderate temperatures as to be really better than more expensive kinds of food cooked in the common way. This long, slow cooking is just what cannot be managed in our fickle ranges without close watching, but the Aladdin oven, it seems, may be left to itself for hours at a time in perfect assurance that all will be well. It is even said that the family may sleep care-free while their breakfast cooks all night. The use of a thermometer to determine the heat of the oven and of accurate time-schedules promises to put the art of cooking on an exact and scientific basis, and will leave to the ridicule they deserve such ancient devices of oven-testing as "holding your hand in while you count thirty," and other trials by ordeal. In fact, the regulation kitchen range, however expensive and complicated, is shown to be merely a concession to barbarism—a clumsy, uncertain, wasteful device, likely to cook imperfectly even with intelligent care, and too often serving out at one time those two unappetizing dishes, singed beefsteak and barbecued cook.

The Aladdin oven, though in its nature especially fitted to bless the poor, will probably fail when put into the hands of coarse and ignorant women either in their own homes or in well-to-do kitchens where they rule the roast, as the greater exactness possible and necessary in using it will be anything but a recommendation to those who value luck as an excuse for their own shortcomings. Its greatest success should be scored in thrifty homes of the middle class. There are plenty of people who are poor enough and at the same time intelligent enough to welcome such an invention when once tried. The frugal housewife who used to sigh over her receipts beginning, "A pair of full-grown but fat and tender chickens" will smile, perhaps, with incredulity, to read one of Mr. Atkinson's: "Order the toughest old gander that can be found in the market," etc.; but she will be sure to feel a real satisfaction on learning how to make such unpromising material not only eatable but good. Whether we conclude that Mr. Atkinson has completely solved the kitchen problem or not, we must admit that the Aladdin oven marks a long step in the right direction of applying science in the very department of our household economy where it has been most ignored.

The Anglo-Saxon Towns and Their Polity. Inaugural Dissertation for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Berne. By George Emory Fellows. [Genehmigt von der Facultät auf Antrag der Herrn Prof. Dr. Woker und Prof. Dr. Hidber.] Berne: Michel & Büchler. 8vo, pp. 88.

THIS is a remarkable little book. It is devoid of logical sequence in the arrangement of the matter; it exhibits ignorance of English history and of the very rudiments of historical method, as well as crudeness of thought; it teems with misstatements; its English (including spelling and punctuation) is wretched. In fact, not a page of the book is free from slovenly errors.

In enumerating eighteen titles on p. 7, the author makes about twenty mistakes. He evidently thinks that "Rerum Brittanicarum (*sic*) Medii Aevi Scriptores" is the title of a single treatise (pp. 7, 23, 27). This is like referring to Rolls Series, p. 30. He cites the Anglo-Saxon laws in a similar unscholarly way, thus betraying lack of familiarity with them, or gross negligence. Such references as Ethelred, section 6, are almost meaningless when we consider that there are eight collections of Ethelred's laws, each divided into chapters, and, in some cases, subsections. Dr. Fellows often cites other sources and secondary authorities with even less accuracy.

But these are trifling flaws compared with the chief defects of the book. In the narrow field of Anglo-Saxon municipal history the literature is not extensive, and can be mastered in a very short time. Dr. Fellows has not done this. He misrepresents Thompson's views regarding the early history of English boroughs (pp. 9, 20). The latter believed in their Germanic origin, not in their derivation from the Romans. With Coote, the chief exponent of the Roman theory, Dr. Fellows shows no acquaintance. The "earliest formal treatise" on English boroughs was written, he says, "some time previous to 1688." "When we consider that this author wrote during the reign of James II. . . . strong suspicion must fall upon his theory" (p. 5). Brady wrote his treatise in 1690. Merewether and Stephens, commonly regarded as the best authorities on English municipal history, are constantly cited as "Mereweather and Stevens." Dr. Fellows has great faith in Blackstone as an historical authority. What the latter says about Anglo-Saxon institutions is accepted without hesitation. Smollett, Hume, Nathaniel Bacon, Squire, and other ancients are also resurrected, and turned to account. On the other hand, the author's knowledge of the best modern writers is exemplified by his statements, that "Seebohm believes free Ceorls gradually tended towards serfdom" (p. 26), and that "*all* (*sic*) the authorities upon English history" agree regarding the total obliteration of Roman-British civilization by the Anglo-Saxons (p. 11).

A fundamental error of the work is the failure to regard township and borough as two distinct institutions. With some difficulty the reader ascertains, in chapter i., that the book is really intended as a treatise on towns in the sense of boroughs. On page 14 we find this lucid definition: "Primarily we may perhaps consider a collection of people living in close proximity in permanent dwellings as a town." The following admirably illustrates the author's knowledge of English constitutional history and his method of treatment:

"In the Anglo-Saxon laws the terms town, borough, village, wic, city, hundred, shire, and tything may be seen to be used indiscriminately by different Kings. At the time of the Norman conquest *all* towns and cities were indiscriminately known as *boroughs*. If then we concern ourselves to collect and collate facts relating to usages and government of *towns* [the italics throughout are the author's], we are entitled to consider those relating to any of the above names as characteristic of an Anglo-Saxon town" (p. 14).

The remarkable canon of historical criticism enunciated in the last sentence is followed in the succeeding chapters; township, borough, hundred, shire, and their respective officers, are all jumbled together. To prove a proposition regarding boroughs, any Anglo-Saxon law suffices, even though it refers only to township, hundred, or shire. In like manner burh = borough is confused with burh = castle, and also with borh = surety (pp. 45, 70).

Here are some sample bits of the tattered garb in which the author clothes his ideas:

"Money was paid . . . by weigth (*sic*) when quality was unnoticed and as weighed and burnt when both fineness and weight were tested" (p. 41). "In Charter Rolls No. 64 and of Henry I. to Beverly in 1121, Cities are called upon in 1297 in Laws of 26th Edward I., to send members to Parliament in capacity of boroughs, here the city is called a borough" (p. 15). "No greater evidence of the independence and strength of the towns is found than during the Danish invasion. When the king, Earls, and the forces could not stand successfully against them, it happened frequently that the townsmen drove them away" (p. 87). "What then is the meaning of the term used for people, burg-waru? papu = waru = man" (p. 27). "The Reeve in the Latin version is prefect = Lord, and derived from frith = a peace, it being his special duty to preserve the peace" (p. 38).

What Dr. Fellows calls the "etomological connection" (p. 31) is not clear in these last two quotations. As to typographical errors, they are so common that the reader becomes hardened even to such as this: "Vigfussun and Powells, Corpus Porticum Bosiale" (p. 31)

L'Instruction Publique en France et en Italie au Dix-neuvième Siècle. Par Charles Dejob. Paris: A. Colin & Cie. 12mo, pp. 455.

NEITHER the subject-matter of the four monographs collected by M. Dejob in this volume nor his dreary manner of treating it will attract any but a very limited audience. The first essay is on the boarding-schools for girls established in Italy during the French domination under Napoleon. In Italy the Emperor's interference in education would seem to have been more beneficial than at home. Perhaps this was due to the circumstance that almost any change would have been an improvement. According to M. Dejob, the schooling of girls in Italy, even among the higher classes, was deplorably backward at the beginning of this century. One of the most radical changes made under the French influence was in taking the management of the schools out of the hands of the religious orders. In this one respect at least Napoleon was fully half a century ahead of his time. The internal economy of the schools, however, remained more or less monastic.

In his second essay M. Dejob gives an account of the public courses of lectures established in Paris during the French Revolution, and which, under the names of lyceums and athenæums, flourished, in a more or less languid fashion, until about 1849. They found imitators in other countries, and may perhaps be considered to have given its original impulse to the American lec ure system, which at one time occupied so great a share of the public attention. This attempt to give oral instruction to adults had among ourselves, at least latterly, more of a practical, money-making character, and mixed more entertainment with less instruction, although even the Paris Athénée did not disdain to appeal to the more frivolous element by such devices as music, social receptions, etc.

Construction Details, prepared for the use of students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston. By F. W. Chandler. Boston: Heliotype Printing Co.

SOME years ago Prof. Ware printed for the use of the architectural students at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology a series of plates to show the details of construction which are employed in ordinary building.

Prof. Chandler has done the same thing with greater minuteness and completeness in the portfolio of Construction Details which he has just published through the Heliotype Printing Co. of Boston. The general methods of building construction that are in use are not difficult to learn or to teach; but their details are multitudinous, and are in practice acquired but slowly and tediously in the routine of office work, and often slighted in courses of instruction, in which, naturally, the chief attention is reserved for the more difficult branches of an architect's training. It follows that a good many students get into practice without learning them thoroughly, and even, we suspect, a good many architects get to the end of it without finding out such small matters as how the furrings are set for lathing into the corners of a frame house, or how the nailing of the ends of floor-boards is provided for, or a window-sill is made windtight and water-tight. These and the rest of the ordinary methods of good building in wood and masonry, and many that are better than ordinary, are shown with admirable clearness and precision in Prof. Chandler's twenty-five folio plates. The multitude of devices which are more or less used is, of course, too great to be given in any course, and many could only be mentioned to condemn them; but all the usual problems are here solved by methods that agree with the best American practice.

It would do no harm to the cause of popular education if the notes which illuminate the plates were more orthodox in spelling, and if even the preface were more generous in the use of the definite article.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Rev. Joseph. The Churches of Mattatuck. New Haven: Price, Lee & Adkins Co.
Ball, W. W. R. Mathematical Recreations and Problems. 2d ed. Macmillan. $2.25.
Clemens, W. M. Mark Twain: his Life and Work. San Francisco: Clemens Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Curry, George. Merrill's English History for School and Home Use. Charles E Merrill & Co.
Dorland, W. A. N. A Cluster of Pearls for Christian Endeavor Workers. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1892.

The Week.

It is very much to be regretted that the House of Representatives, which is controlled by Democrats, should have passed a bill empowering the President to lay an embargo upon Canadian vessels passing through the St. Mary's Falls Canal. Whether there is any ground for an embargo at all we do not undertake to say, but if there is, it ought not to be left to the discretion of the Executive. One of the most objectionable features of the McKinley Act was that empowering the President to levy or remove duties in his discretion; and the dangerous character of the power was shown at once by the results of imposing a duty upon Venezuelan coffee, which caused an exportation of gold that we were ill prepared to meet. No doubt it will annoy the Canadian Government to have President Harrison forbid vessels owned by its subjects to pass through our canal, and it will no doubt injure the owners of these vessels. But it is well to consider that there may be other results brought about besides the gratification of spite, and that the sudden stoppage of an artery of commerce will have serious effects upon the market prices of grain and the rates of transportation. It is conceivable that a President of broad views and enlightened mind might exercise a discretion of this kind wisely and with advantage to the country, but such an executive would be the last to consent to be charged with such a power. As to President Harrison, it will scarcely be contended that he has displayed either a judicial disposition or a generous spirit in his international bickerings, and he has already written a most intemperate message upon the subject about which he is now empowered to exercise his discretion. The bill, which was passed in the Senate as it came from the House, "without explanation or discussion," is humorously entitled an act "to enforce reciprocal relations with Canada."

The objection was raised that this bill might be regarded as abrogating the treaty with Canada by virtue of which our vessels are permitted to navigate the St. Lawrence and to use the Canadian canals. To this, Mr. Blount of the Committee on Foreign Affairs rejoined that he did not know whether it would or not. Apparently he cared as little as he knew; and to the suggestion that it might be disastrous to American interests to annul a treaty upon which our navigation of the St. Lawrence depended, he replied that we could deal with that question when it arose. It would certainly be an awkward question to deal with now, for the interruption of this commerce would produce a convulsion in the grain markets of the world, and could scarcely fail to be disastrous to the farmers of the West.

The only ground for criticism upon the appointment of Mr. George Shiras, jr., of Pittsburgh to the vacant place on the Supreme bench is the fact that he has never had any judicial experience. There is a strong feeling that a seat in the highest court should come as the reward of proved capacity for such service on a lower bench. At the same time experience has shown that lawyers who have never had judicial experience often take the first rank when they are suddenly elevated to high judicial position. A notable illustration is Justice Gray of the United States Supreme Court, who was made Chief Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court without any previous service on the bench. Mr. Shiras is well known to his profession, and highly esteemed for the qualities which go to make a good judge. His appointment gives Pennsylvania a representative in the highest court for the first time since the retirement of Judge Strong on a pension in 1880. Mr. Shiras could not have had a more favorable introduction to a nation unfamiliar with his name than was furnished by Don Cameron's attempt to defeat his confirmation. There can be no stronger recommendation of a Pennsylvanian for the bench than the fact that one or other of the Pennsylvania Senators—they are emphatically "two of a kind"—does not like his nomination. Opposition from such a source is in itself a tribute to character.

It is a source of peculiar gratification that the most telling of all blows dealt at the Anti-Option Bill should have come from the representative of a cotton State. If, as now begins to seem probable, the Hatch Bill is to be speedily buried, the credit will be in no small measure due to Senator White of Louisiana, whose lucid argument of last Friday, all the more weighty because of his acknowledged familiarity with cotton production, left scarcely a shred to Senator Washburn's tissue of misstatements and fallacies. It is very possible, however, that the example of independence and honesty offered by the Louisiana Senator was more effective even than his explicit arguments. The measure never had a moment's chance of passing on its merits. The discussion in the House, hampered though it was by the preposterous application of the five-minute rule, was almost absurdly one-sided; but the speeches against the bill were shots fired in the air. Mr. Hatch merely invoked the farming interest, and every Representative with a farming constituency came meekly up to swell the bill's majority.

The Congressional Committee which conducted the inquiry into the affairs of the Pension Office has presented two reports to Congress, one from the majority, recommending "that Commissioner of Pensions Green B. Raum should be removed from office by the President," and the other from the minority, stating that the investigation exculpated Mr. Raum from all blame and showed that the efficiency of his bureau was of a high order. A sample of the defence is the statement that no evidence can be found to show that Raum, in his actions as Commissioner of Pensions, ever favored George E. Lemon, the claim agent, and that his relations with Lemon were perfectly proper. Even if the former assertion is true—and the evidence points the other way—does that excuse Raum? It is an admitted fact that Raum had as an endorser for his note of $12,000 this claim agent, who has a larger business than any other before the Pension Office. That it is not easy for Raum to borrow money is shown by the fact, brought out in the investigation, that John W. Thompson, President of the National Metropolitan Bank of Washington, and one of the most substantial business men of the city, refused to lend him $500 without an endorser. To attempt to explain this refusal on the ground of private enmity is absurd. Raum went to him as president of a bank, and Thompson refused to let him have the money because his credit was not good. It was palpably Lemon's interest to accommodate Raum, and it was palpably improper for Raum to be under obligations to Lemon. The episode by itself shows a moral obtuseness on Raum's part inconsistent with the qualities necessary for the proper administration of a bureau which disburses such enormous sums of money as the Pension Office distributes each year. It must be observed, too, that Lemon, whose testimony would have been so valuable, found it convenient to spend the winter in Europe, and his return a few days ago and the probable early adjournment of Congress are coincidences that it would be interesting to have explained.

The President's son comes badly out of the investigation into the Yellowstone Park scandal. Nothing criminal is charged against him, but many things highly indelicate and improper. It is plainly in evidence that he has hung about the departments to get appointments and contracts for personal friends. His function as an influential go-between was so clearly recognized by the "promoters" who wanted to oust the old contractor that they set apart $5,000 in stock for his benefit as only a natural reward for his services. The reluctant witness through whom this fact was brought out

said that he "did not know whether Mr. Harrison rendered the service or not, nor whether the stock was requested by him [the witness] to be issued for services or as a gift." Afterwards, he testified, the President's son "deprecated the issuing of it to him or for him." This affair would not be so bad in itself did it not come as the culmination of a long series of acts on the part of young Mr. Harrison by which he has assumed to have a mighty official influence and to be ready to use it for personal and political ends. He comes honestly by his willingness to use the public service for the good of his family, but he has shown a bumptiousness and pushing for notoriety which are all his own.

A difficulty occurred in the hall of the House of Representatives one day last week resulting from the attempt of one Devlin, who calls himself "Executive Committee of the Knights of Labor," to instruct Judge Oates, Chairman of the House Committee investigating the Homestead troubles, how he should conduct the investigation. This attempt was not particularly successful or encouraging to a repetition of the same, and it resulted in the ejection of Devlin from the hall. Now Mr. Devlin has given his version of the affair to a representative of the United Press, and it confirms substantially the report as first published. The difficulty arose in this way: Devlin wanted to interrogate the Pinkertons at great length regarding the sending of their men to Homestead, and also as to the business carried on by the Pinkertons both now and heretofore. These questions covered a vast deal of ground and called for statistical information which could not be given off-hand. They also involved abstruse questions of law. They were presented on typewritten paper. The Committee consented to adopt the questions as a part of the examination, and then took an adjournment in order that the members might go into the House and vote on a pending bill, the written questions being turned over to the Pinkertons for answer. Now it appears from the statement of Devlin that his grievance consisted in the fact that the Pinkertons were allowed time to prepare their answer. His idea of the fitness of things was that the Pinkertons should have this long string of questions put to them suddenly, so that they might be thrown into confusion if possible—not being ready with an answer in every case. This grievance so weighed upon Devlin's sensitive nature that when the Committee met again, he accused Judge Oates of purposely making an adjournment in order to give the Pinkertons time to prepare their answers. That was not true, and Devlin's impudence in making such a charge led to his being called a liar. It seems never to have occurred to him that it would have been a perfectly proper thing for the Committee to give the Pinkertons time to prepare truthful and intelligible answers, and to adjourn for that express purpose.

The reply of the Pinkertons to the various charges and the violent abuse heaped upon them since the Homestead rioters unlawfully attacked and wilfully murdered several of their number, has been published. It shows that they were, at all the stages of the Homestead proceedings, pursuing a lawful calling, by lawful means, and that they were attacked by the rioters before they had even taken up the arms and ammunition that had been sent in boxes for their defence against attack. Yet for two weeks past the public ear has been filled with outcries against the Pinkertons as though they were a tribe of barbarian invaders intent upon sacking peaceful homes. A Senator of the United States, who is also a lawyer, has charged upon them the crime of treason, which consists only in levying war against the United States or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. The whole question involved in the employment of the Pinkertons is whether the owners of property have a right to protect it. Everybody knows that the Pinkertons are employed as watchmen only in cases where the public authority is dilatory in affording protection. People whose property is in danger of attack and who are prevented by violence from having access to it, would always prefer to have public rather than private guards to protect them. The cost of the former is paid by the whole community, while that of the latter falls on the individuals who hire them. Moreover, the public guards, being in overwhelming force, are seldom resisted, while the Pinkertons are always resisted, and sometimes, as in the present case, overpowered and infamously maltreated. The affair at Homestead teaches the lesson very clearly that the way to abolish the Pinkertons is to abolish the need of them.

The attempt to assassinate Mr. Frick is a natural result of the attitude taken by the Homestead strikers. His assailant appears to be one of those "cranks" whose mental weakness makes them the easy prey of the preachers of anarchy, and whose love of notoriety is quite as strong as any desire to help the cause of "Labor." There seems no ground for supposing that the Homestead men had any direct connection with his crime, but the leaders who organized the attack upon the Pinkertons three weeks ago, and who have never expressed any regret for the act, are morally responsible for Berkman's performance. The leaders of the strike attacked the watchmen sent by the manager of the mills, and killed as many of them as they could; he simply tried to kill the manager who sent the watchmen. If it was right to murder the Pinkertons—and nobody among the strikers, from O'Donnell down, has ever admitted that it was wrong—it was right and logical to try to kill the employer of the Pinkertons.

The weakness of the strikers' position has never been so fully exposed as in the pronunciamiento of the "Advisory Board" which appeared almost simultaneously with the attempt to murder Mr. Frick. "Capital" has never presented so one-sided and illogical a claim as this declaration of "Labor" that all the obligations in the relation of employer and employee are on the part of the former; that, while the employer cannot hold the employee in his service an hour longer than the latter is satisfied, the workingman has the right to demand continuous employment at wages which he himself fixes. All that is necessary to show the fatal weakness of such an assumption is that people shall stop and think about it, and Berkman has made this certain. It is easy to talk about arbitration of labor disputes, but there can be no arbitration when one side takes such a position as this and declares that it will never abandon it. If the Carnegie firm had announced that the condition precedent to any arrangement was an agreement by their employees to remain permanently in their service, the workingmen would have rejected the proposition as absurd and the public would have sustained the men in refusing it. In like manner the employer must reject the proposition that the workingman has a right to remain continuously in his service while owing a higher allegiance to the Amalgamated Association or any other authority, and the public will sustain him. The real trouble at Homestead is that the Almagamated Association has become an intolerable tyranny. Mr. Carnegie himself has more than once yielded to unreasonable demands from it, when other employers, less anxious to curry favor, were ready to stand out against it, O'Donnell and his associates evidently thought they needed only to "put on the screws" and they could extort what they wanted once more. Mr. Frick recognized that the time had at last come when there must be a change, or else the management of the mills must be turned over to O'Donnell & Co.

Among the new men who have made a mark in the present Congress there is not one who takes a higher rank than Mr. Michael D. Harter of Ohio. Mr. Harter is a business man and a manufacturer who unites practical knowledge with theoretical training, and who in addition has first-rate debating powers and undaunted courage. Such men are rare everywhere. When found, they ought to be kept in Congress or promoted to higher positions. Mr. Harter has been gerrymandered into a strong Republican district, but he is not going to pass out of public life without a fight. It is to be hoped that the people of the new Fourteenth District will have some

local pride in a Representative who has taken so honorable and praiseworthy a position as Mr. Harter occupies, having achieved a national reputation in a brief space of time and without adventitious aids, by sheer force of ability and with an eye single to public interests.

News comes from Georgia that the third-party people propose to make a dead set at Speaker Crisp, and, if possible, prevent his reëlection to Congress. His district is said to be greatly tinctured by the doctrines of the People's party, and a strong candidate has been named against him. Congressman Watson, the Alliance leader from Georgia, announces his intention to stump the Third District against Mr. Crisp, and to fight him at every point. All this is interesting as showing that the Speaker, in his efforts to conciliate the crazy sentiment of his own district and State, has really accomplished nothing except to bring his party into the greatest peril. He has simply been one of the many members of this Congress who have preferred to sacrifice the party to their own supposed interests, his position as Speaker making his example especially conspicuous and pernicious, just as it has made his disregard of the general party interest the more inexcusable. If he has now learned the old lesson that political lunacy can never be placated by half-way concessions, but must be fought and crushed from the start and all the way through, his experience w ll be of some value to him and probably to the country.

The Treasury's report of gold exports and imports for the fiscal year (to June 30, 1892) shows, somewhat contrary to the general belief, that we have received from abroad during that period within $500,000 as much gold as we have sent out. As the annual gold product of our mines averages about $33,000,000, and the annual consumption of gold in the arts about $14,000,000, it follows that there is something like $18,000,000 more gold in the country now than there was a year ago. In seven out of the fourteen years since 1878, we have imported more gold than we have exported, and our net gold import balance for the whole period is fully $100,000,000. But it may be profitable to notice that the greater part of our net imports of gold came in 1880 and 1881. These were the years of specie resumption and the reinvestment of European funds in American securities. They were preëminently the years of foreign confidence in the stability of our national finance; a confidence due to the wise measure of resumption, and attended, not alone by the investment of Europe's money in our enterprises, but by the depositing on this side of large credit balances for use in either our loan or security markets. The recent phenomenon of our gold exports has brought into relief one impressive fact, that the juggling and tinkering with our currency at Washington has done much to destroy this confidence, and to encourage foreign creditors in drawing out and carrying off their American balances the moment they can discount their bills receivable on the exchange market. People are in the habit of calling these exports abnormal. On the contrary, they are as normal as the usual action of any cautious depositor whose bankers have been distinguishing themselves by financial recklessness.

The prospectus of a Divinity School just founded at Boulder, Col., reveals a novelty worth attention. The School is to be non-sectarian, not only in the sense of being under the control of no particular denomination, but also in the actual representation and coöperation of representatives of several different denominations in its direction and teaching. Of the Faculty so far as chosen, two are Baptists, two Episcopalians, and one is from each of the following churches: Congregationalist, Disciple, Presbyterian, Unitarian, and Universalist. Such a union of diverse elements for the work of theological education is probably unexampled in this country or any other, and must be taken as a striking proof of the decay of the sectarian spirit. Its occurrence in the West makes it all the more notable, as denominational prejudices are always strongest in a new country.

The London *Lancet* publishes the proceedings and debate which took place at a meeting of the Society for the Study of Inebriety, on the subject of the Bichloride of Gold Cure, the headquarters of which are at Dwight, Ill., and the high priest of which is Dr. Keeley. The chairman of the meeting said that a project was on foot to start the bichloride of gold business in England on a large scale, a syndicate having been formed to raise £150,000 as a working capital. The Society had thus been induced to look into the subject. The first thing done was to procure a bottle of the Keeley remedy and analyze it. The analysis showed that it contained no gold and no chlorides. It consisted of water 61 per cent., sugar 6 per cent., alcohol 27 per cent., together with some mineral salts, principally lime. The whole decoction was a liquor as intoxicating as port or sherry. Dr. Usher of Melbourne, Australia, described a visit that he made to Dr. Keeley's sanatorium at Dwight. He said that Dr. Keeley seemed very uneasy while he (Usher) was asking questions concerning his remedy and mode of treatment, and referred him to his "chemist," who was a boy in the Doctor's employ. The meeting adopted a resolution declaring that any so-called "cures" for inebriety the composition of which is not disclosed, are unfit to be commended by honorable members of the medical profession; also, that the contents of the bottle that had been analyzed, and which purported to be bichloride of gold, were unfit for the medical treatment of inebriates and should be unreservedly condemned.

In the Buenos Ayres *Standard* of May 31 is published a copy of a letter addressed on December 24, 1891, to the United States Minister in the Argentine Republic by the Minister for Foreign Affairs of that country. It relates to the question of reciprocal trade, and is a reply to various notes and verbal communications of our Minister on that subject. The point of the answer is, that the Argentine Government cannot afford to surrender any of its customs revenues unless the United States should offer the equivalent of a free market for Argentine wool, and that, if a duty is laid on Argentine hides, under the terms of the McKinley Bill, retaliation will be made in the shape of an extra duty on American lumber. A highly significant fact is brought out in the letter:

"Your Excellency intimates," writes the Foreign Affairs Minister, "that, should these negotiations not be accepted, President Harrison will enforce the McKinley Act, suspend the free importation of Argentine hides, and enforce the duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem."

If the President authorized such a threat, then he has violated the law by not fulfilling it. Section 3 of the McKinley Bill says that "whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied" that duties which "he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable" are levied by another government on our exports, "he shall have the power and *it shall be his duty* to suspend," etc. Now, it is clear that the process of "satisfying" and "deeming" which the law contemplates as going on in the President's mind, must have been completed at the time he made the threat above recorded. If so, it was his sworn "duty" to go ahead and enforce the law regardless of threats of counter-retaliation, and without the fear of New England shoe-manufacturers before his eyes.

Brazil has been having her own troubles from riots and insurrections, and the President has had to call out the troops on several occasions and declare martial law. His exercise of discretion in that way has been called in question in some quarters, and a bill has been introduced by one Congressman to make it unlawful for the military to be called out to suppress a riot unless the rioters shall number 10,000. There may be a suggestion here for our own labor-legislators. We presume that such a provision would be entirely acceptable to the riotous miners in Idaho, or to the Homestead strikers. Indeed, we suppose that strikers who were anywhere trying by force to prevent other men from working would be ready to certify their numbers to the Governor, if such a law were passed, and to guarantee them to be less than 10,000. To make the law perfect, however, it would be necessary to provide that no more than 5,000 troops should ever be brought against the 10,000 rioters.

MR. CLEVELAND IN NEW YORK.

THE official Democratic notification ceremonies in the Madison Square Garden on Wednesday evening of last week mark an innovation in campaign methods, the custom hitherto having been for a committee appointed by the National Convention to meet the candidate in his home or office. Politicians of both parties have awaited the result of this new departure with no little curiosity, as upon its success or failure may depend the practice of both parties in future. We think the general conclusion will be that it was a great success. There is a certain appropriateness in allowing the masses to witness a ceremony of so much significance, instead of restricting the attendance to the few party leaders who are all that can be admitted to the ordinary parlor or office. As regards the partisan aspect of the affair, it must materially help in giving the Democratic campaign a good start. It demonstrated more conclusively than ever the hold which Mr. Cleveland has won upon the masses of the people—the hold by means of which he secured two-thirds of the delegates to the National Convention, despite the best-laid schemes of the professional politicians of his party. It showed that this hold was especially strong in New York city, where the opposition of the professional politicians to his nomination was most pronounced. The truth is, that there is no place where Mr. Cleveland is stronger among the business classes and the laboring men than in the metropolis, as the election returns of this city next November will conclusively demonstrate.

Mr. Cleveland's speech was appropriate to the occasion—dignified, forcible, and frank, like all of his utterances. The Democratic platform declares that "the Federal Government has no constitutional power to impose and collect tariff duties except for purposes of revenue only." Mr. Cleveland, in his speech, touched upon this subject in the following words:

> "We oppose earnestly and stubbornly the theory upon which our opponents seek to justify and uphold existing tariff laws. We need not base our attacks upon questions of constitutional permission or legislative power. We denounce this theory upon the highest possible grounds when we contend that in present conditions its operation is unjust, and that laws enacted in accordance with it are inequitable and unfair."

The Republican newspapers are seeking to turn the tariff discussion on the question of constitutionality, as though, if it were once proved that a tariff for other purposes than revenue was constitutional, the battle was already won. We think that Mr. Cleveland has taken the right position on this question, and that it is not in any way out of harmony with the platform of his party.

A question somewhat similar has been raised in the discussion of the Anti-Option Bill now pending in the Senate. This bill purposes to drive out of business certain persons engaged in a lawful trade—*i. e.*, those who buy and sell grain, cotton, and provisions for future delivery, by imposing upon them a special tax. This tax is intentionally put so high that it will not yield any revenue. To whatever extent it produces an income to the Government it will fail of its purpose, which is to prevent option trading altogether.

Now, this bill is assailed as unconstitutional, and justly so, for if it be constitutional to extinguish one trade or calling by law, any other may be uprooted in the same way whenever a majority can be found to apply the axe to it. Our Constitution was preëminently designed to protect the rights of the minority. The many can always protect themselves, but the few require the safeguards of the fundamental law. This Anti-Option Bill is certainly unconstitutional in the sense that it violates the spirit of the Constitution and invades private rights in a dangerous and outrageous manner. Yet the Supreme Court held in a parallel case that the judicial power could not inquire into the intentions of Congress in imposing a tax, and that if injustice had been done, the only remedy was in an appeal to the legislative power which had inflicted it. This was in the case involving the 10 per cent. tax on State banknotes. The court held the tax to be not unconstitutional. Therefore, it is constitutional, according to the decision of the highest tribunal, and every citizen is concluded by it so far as his overt acts are concerned. But is anybody concluded by it as regards his opinions and his political action? Clearly not. Everybody is at liberty to say that he considers the tax on State banknotes, and the tax on oleomargarine, and the proposed tax on option trading unconstitutional.

We find the highest authority for this view in the celebrated debate between Lincoln and Douglas. Mr. Lincoln held that the Dred Scott decision, although pronounced by our highest judicial tribunal, was not binding upon the minds and consciences of the people. A large part of his argument in that Senatorial campaign was directed to the point that the public ought not to acquiesce in that decision, but ought to protest against it and vote against it at every opportunity. He admitted that as an inhabitant of the United States he was bound to submit to all its laws as interpreted by its courts. He would not resist the officers of the courts, however mistaken and erroneous he might think their rulings to be, but he would not allow them to bind his conscience or his political action. Douglas denounced Mr. Lincoln's position and accused him of inciting rebellion against law and Constitution, but Mr. Lincoln overthrew him completely by showing that he (Douglas) endorsed and stood upon a political platform which declared that Congress had no constitutional power to charter a United States bank, whereas the Supreme Court had previously decided that Congress had that power.

From these examples, which ought to be current coin in Republican circles, it may be seen that no inconsistency can be charged upon those who hold that a tariff levied for other purposes than revenue is unconstitutional, even though there be an unbroken line of judicial decisions to the contrary. Of course the courts will not give a decision which would bring the functions of government to an end by stopping the collection of taxes. All that need be said by anybody is, that in his political action he holds certain opinions; and that while submitting to the laws, he seeks to make his opinions prevail in the affairs of government. That is every man's right, and civil liberty rests upon the constant exercise of it.

Mr. Cleveland said nothing on the silver question, for the very good reason that there was no occasion for saying anything. There is no issue between the candidates of the two parties on this question, and everybody recognizes that there is none. The strongest advocates of free coinage in the Democratic party admit that there is no hope for it if Mr. Cleveland is elected, and the strongest opponents of it among Republicans confess that there is no danger of such legislation in case of his success. Since the defeat of the Free-Coinage Bill in the House, nobody takes any further interest in the question as a practical matter, and it is relegated to the limbo of dead issues for this campaign.

CUSTOM-HOUSE STATISTICS.

WE are now sailing so very close to the wind in the matter of our gold reserve that it is not a little disquieting to read, in a note contributed by Mr. G. O. Virtue to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, that the official returns of gold shipments are of questionable accuracy. In the case of Italy, Prof. Ferraris pointed out that the figures returned by the railway and steamship companies and the banks in 1885 showed imports of the precious metals 15 per cent., and exports 38 per cent., greater than the amounts returned by the custom-houses. In 1886 the discrepancy in the case of imports was only 7 per cent., but in the case of exports it was 82 per cent. A comparison of the French and English statistics for the fourteen years from 1871 to 1884, made by Soetbeer, showed that the French account of what was received differed from the English account of what was sent, on the average, by 25,000,000 francs, while the corresponding difference in England was 44,000,000. In our own case the Director of the Mint declares his belief that a great deal of gold is brought into the country of which the Custom-house knows nothing, although his reasoning is not very satisfactory. Mr. Virtue goes somewhat deeper into the matter, and has compared our exports and imports of gold for the last five years to and from England with the corresponding returns made in that country. Of course these tables ought to balance as closely as the opposite sides of an account in book-

keeping by double entry, for they purport to record the same transactions, with no difference except in name, as the value of gold is the same wherever it is.

Instead of this being the case, we find that the most inexplicable discrepancies exist. Our figures show that during these five years the United States shipped $76,249,990 to England, while the English figures show that during that time they received from the United States only $73,613,850, so that $2,635,940 was lost on the voyage. On the other hand, the English claim to have sent over here $28,672,187, while we acknowledge the receipt of only $19,997,138. This is the amount of variation for the term of five years, but the variations during shorter periods, which are usually taken by financial journals for purposes of comparison, are both great and numerous. Thus, the English statistics show that from June to October, 1887, over $8,000,000 was sent to the United States, while our statistics show the arrival of only $4,000,000. Mr. Virtue has done well to call attention to this comparison, but he would have rendered the financial world a much greater service if he had gone to the bottom of the matter and stated the manner in which the precious metals are actually transferred from one country to another, and exactly how, when, by whom, and to whom returns of these transactions are made. When we have this information, and when the Treasury and the banks discriminate precisely in their returns between the various kinds of currency which they hold, we shall know where we stand financially much better than at present.

It is, unfortunately, by no means the case that Custom-house figures concerning the movements of the precious metals are peculiarly untrustworthy. On the contrary, as these metals are seldom subject to duty, there is less reason for undervaluing them than other merchandise, while the simplicity of their nature prevents uncertainty as to their price. It is not surprising, therefore, that discrepancies exist between the Custom-house returns of imports and exports of different countries to such an extent as to justify the old reproach that nothing lies like figures. At the time of the economic rupture between France and Italy, both the representatives of the Governments and the financial publications were for some time unable to reconcile the accounts of the trade between these countries that were furnished by their respective customs authorities, owing to different methods of classifying certain articles. Every country, it may be said, has its own methods of book-keeping as well as of levying duties, and before any trustworthy inferences can be drawn from comparing the returns of different countries it is necessary for the statistician to familiarize himself with numerous details.

The delusive character of the Custom-house figures even of a single country is illustrated by the *Économiste Français* in the case of French exports of linen yarns. According to the report of the Custom-house, there were exported of these goods to Belgium over 8,000,000 kilogrammes, to England 1,775,000, and to Spain but 5,300. It is plain that the statesman who undertakes to regulate trade on principles of reciprocity would consider the trade with Spain of very little consequence, and that with England as of much less importance than that with Belgium. But, as a matter of fact, a great part of the export to Belgium is really to England, the goods being merely transmitted by Belgian railways, and the same is true of the Spanish trade, large quantities of these goods, after undergoing further processes of manufacture, passing back from Belgium through France on their way to the Spanish market.

The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce at Lyons has recently published a book upon the French exports of silk which affords additional illustration of this uncertainty. These exports amounted in 1859 to 499,000,000 francs, but in 1861 they fell to 333,000,000, while the imports increased. Naturally the French protectionists cried out that the silk trade was ruined by the free trade of the Cobden-Chevalier treaty, and the coincidence was sufficiently startling to justify their alarm. But the explanation of the reduced figures was easily supplied. In fact, there was an actual reduction of silk exports, for the distress occasioned in this country by the outbreak of the civil war reduced our imports of silk from 111,000,000 francs (their average value from 1855 to 1859) to 25,000,000 francs in 1861. But at the same time there was a change in the mode of valuation at the Custom-house, the net weight being taken as a basis instead of the gross as formerly. When we consider that ribbons were commonly wound upon blocks of wood, it is not surprising that the valuation of this wood as silk had caused the export of ribbons from France to be returned by the Custom-house as greater than that of the entire product of St.-Étienne.

The book to which we have referred contains many other illustrations of the pitfalls in the way of those who would reason from official figures, which it is unnecessary for us to quote. There is nothing that is more generally handed over to Government than the collection of statistics, and there is probably no part of its work which it does so ill. It is not very satisfactory for private persons to do work for themselves when they have paid the Government their money to do it for them, but we apprehend that chambers of commerce will eventually have to make the procuring of accurate information a more prominent part of their work if they are to preserve their usefulness. When it is considered that a statistical investigation, to be of value, must be conducted with the same rigid regard to the rules of inductive logic as a chemical research, the folly of reasoning closely from figures gathered by a professional politician, like the present Superintendent of the Census, is evident enough. So far as the quantity of statistics goes, no government ever furnished them to its subjects with greater liberality than our own, but no amount of misinformation can outweigh a single grain of truth. Quality is the desideratum in figures, not quantity.

THE DOUBTFUL FARM VOTE.

EIGHT farm organizations have become more or less merged in the present "People's party," all or nearly all of which have positively denounced the high-tariff policy of the Republican party. That circumstance alone makes clear the direction in which the prevailing farm unrest, especially at the West, is moving. We know, too, perfectly well what uneasiness the farm movement is giving the Republican leaders, and what hope to the Democrats in States which up to a very few years ago were reckoned stanch in their devotion to the Republican party. We cannot now say positively how those States will turn next November, but we can indicate, by aid of the census and recent election returns, how slight are the forces needed, when they act on the immense farm vote, to shift the balance of power in many of them. In the whole nation very nearly one-half of our 12,000,000 voters come from the "unprotected" farm.

Using the ratios of occupation as derived from the census of 1880, and applying them to the large vote thrown at the last election for President (except as to South Dakota) in each of the nine States named, we obtain approximately the following table:

	Whole vote.	Farm vote.
Illinois	747,686	367,004
Indiana	536,949	303,270
Iowa	404,140	251,566
Kansas	334,035	225,910
Michigan	476,273	215,994
Minnesota	263,306	151,698
Nebraska	202,632	128,430
South Dakota	77,607	41,035
Wisconsin	354,614	185,464
Total	3,397,242	1,870,371

In obtaining the table by carrying out the ratios for occupation, we have ignored some of the smaller fractions, and in the case of South Dakota have taken the vote at the State election of 1890, deriving the farm vote from the farm ratio of occupation for 1880 in the old Territory of Dakota. If the comparison could be made for the nine States on the basis of the vote and occupations of 1892 and 1890 respectively, the change would be little if any against the farmer, the growth of cities and large towns in States like Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and of the two large cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis being largely offset by the numerical increase of the farm vote in Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota. It will be seen that in

every one of the nine States, except Illinois and Michigan, there is a clear majority of the farm voters, their majority in the nine States being 343,500, and their ratio to voters in other occupations being more than 18 to 15. In most of the nine States cited the farm discontent is pretty active, and in several of them the Alliance has been exceedingly strong, two of them being now represented by members of that body in the Federal Senate. In all of the nine States, moreover, the farms, as a rule, are so far from factory towns, and the States themselves so remote from the East, that even the high-tariff "proximity" sophism as to the neighboring factory and farm loses, not its strength, for it has none, but all its speciousness as a campaign weapon.

Let us take the record of these nine States in detail. The State of Illinois, on the basis of the Republican plurality of four years ago, would require a change of only about 1 farm vote in 33 farm votes to give her electoral vote for Cleveland. Since 1888 she has gone Democratic and chosen a Democratic Senator. Indiana needs a change of 1 farm vote in about 258 on the basis of the vote of 1888, and since then has gone Democratic by 19,579 plurality. One farm vote changed in about 16 would give Iowa to Cleveland on the 1888 vote, and twice since then she has chosen a Democratic Governor. Kansas would need a change of about 1 farm vote in 11, but since 1888 her Democrats and Farmers' Alliance men combined have outvoted the Republicans by an immense majority. Michigan, under her new plan, will probably divide her electoral vote about evenly between Cleveland and Harrison. A change of 1 farm vote in about 8 would give Minnesota to the Democrats on the basis of the last Presidential election, and since then the Democrats and Alliance men united have run ahead of the Republicans some 55,000 votes. In South Dakota the situation is much the same, and Wisconsin needs a change of but 1 farm vote in about 18 to give Cleveland a plurality, reckoning on her last Presidential vote. Since then she has chosen a Democratic Governor by 28,320 plurality, and also a Democratic United States Senator.

Certain other disturbing forces cloud the result this year in these nine most distinctive farm States. For one thing, it will be noticed that the farm discontent, which used to appeal to the State Legislature for redress, has, during the past four years, turned as never before to the Federal Government, an awakening to the nature of the tariff abuse being one prominent incident of the change. Add other facts, mechanical, economic, and sentimental, such as "fusions," the silver heresy, the discontent of the Blaine men, secret-ballot laws, and we can understand why, for the first time since the civil war, the Republican strongholds of the West and Northwest—saying nothing of Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island—are beginning to shake. Their fall may not come this year, and, as a mere question of political chances, New York may still hold her old place as the "pivotal" State. It remains true, nevertheless, that never, for many years, has the situation in the group of "farm States" been such as to create and to justify greater Republican anxiety. This is the case whether the Alliance men hold their strength, or whether, as seems far more likely, their organization fails and its voting elements drift to the party of tariff reform.

WHAT HOME RULE HAS COST THE LIBERALS.

THE general election of 1885 was the last before Mr. Gladstone made home rule for Ireland a part of the Liberal programme. The contest of 1886 did not show with certainty what the mature judgment of the country upon the new policy would be, although it proved beyond question that at first sight the voters did not like it. As a consequence of its adoption, a Liberal and Nationalist majority of more than half a million in the votes polled in 1885 was turned into a minority in 1886. The Liberals lost nearly half the English, a third of the Scotch, and a seventh of the Welsh seats they had carried only eight months before. In the House of Commons a Unionist majority of 120 replaced a Liberal and Nationalist one of 168. Still, it was quite possible to argue, as the Home-Rulers have argued, that many of these losses might have been due merely to the confusion and hesitation among the Liberal voters naturally resulting from so sudden and radical a change of front and the secession of so many prominent party leaders. It was not improbable that when the people had become familiar with the Irish side of the question, and when the dissatisfied Liberals had learned from experience that, as political conditions actually were, the only choice left them was between home rule and a Tory Government, they would decide to waive such objections to an Irish Parliament as they still had, and to support the nominees of their old party. It is therefore in the results of the election of 1892 rather than in those of 1886 that the effect of Mr. Gladstone's Irish proposals upon the relative strength and distribution of parties can most profitably be studied.

In making comparisons between 1885 and 1892 it must of course be borne in mind that under any circumstances a good many changes will take place in seven years. Subordinate and local questions always obscure to a greater or less extent the real verdict upon the main issue. The desire of a portion of the workingmen for an eight-hour law, the general disorganization and disturbance following the great strikes in the north of England, the stimulus which the discussion of local grievances in the London County Council has given to radicalism in the metropolitan constituencies, the fear of disestablishment among the voters of the Kirk of Scotland, and the desire for it among Welsh Nonconformists, have all doubtless played their part in attracting or repelling votes. For six years, however, home rule has been the burden of nine political speeches out of ten. The newspapers have discussed it in its every aspect. During the late campaign all the prominent leaders on each side did their best to keep it to the front, and probably the sense of the country has been taken upon it as accurately as the sense of the country ever is or can be taken upon anything.

Comparing 1885 and 1892, it is obvious that the adoption of the home-rule policy has cost the British Liberals much. Allowing for the uncontested constituencies, the Unionist gain in the popular vote has been between 350,000 and 400,000 votes. The Liberals have lost votes (although not always seats) in every portion of Great Britain except in Wales and in the northwestern and in one or two of the eastern counties of England. The Liberals now carry fifty-eight less British seats than in 1885, and, among British members, are in a minority of fifteen instead of having as formerly a majority of no less than 101. These are, of course, net losses. As the bye-elections indicated, there are a number of former Conservative constituencies in which the Liberals have gained strength in the last seven years. In some of these, in which the Irish vote is a considerable factor, the increase has been due to the home-rule issue. In others, where social or economic questions have interested the working-class, it has been rather in spite than because of its position on Irish government that the Liberal party has made votes. Whatever the cause, however, the Liberals have this year returned their candidates for one Welsh, three Scotch, and thirty-seven English constituencies in which Conservatives were successful in 1885. On the other hand, Conservatives and Unionists win fourteen Scotch and eighty-five English seats for which Liberals sat in the Parliament of 1885.

The gains and losses have been very unevenly distributed geographically. In Wales, which has national aspirations of its own, the Liberals have lost nothing by taking up the cause of home rule. They have even somewhat increased their popular majority, and have taken from the Conservatives one of the three seats carried by the latter seven years ago. In Cumberland, Westmorland, and Lancashire, making up the northwestern corner of England, the Liberals have gained thirteen Tory and have lost but eight Liberal seats. In the eastern and northeastern counties, although the Liberals are on the whole considerably the losers in the popular vote, they hold their own fairly well in seats, their net losses being but five. In London the Unionist majority in the popular vote, thanks principally to the increased Conservative poll in the

outlying portions of the Metropolitan district, is somewhat greater; but, exclusive of the University, which Sir John Lubbock carries over to the Unionists, they elect one member less, suffering a net loss of three seats on the south or Surrey side of the Thames, and making a net gain of but two in Middlesex. Outside of London, the southeastern counties sent but 12 Liberals, as against 63 Tories in 1885, and they now send but 8, against 67 Unionists. On the whole, however, the Liberal strength in England, except in those counties which lie south of the Mersey and west of a line passing through Warwickshire, has not been very seriously impaired. In 1885, exclusive of the counties referred to, the Liberals elected 166 members and the Conservatives 179. In 1892 the numbers stand: Liberals 159, Unionists 186. These portions of England return more than half the entire House and about three-fifths of the British members, and in them the net Liberal loss since 1885 has been but seven seats.

It is in the Western Midlands, in the West and Southwest of England, and in Scotland that the great changes have taken place. From the Mersey to the Channel and from the borders of Derbyshire to Land's End there were returned in 1885 78 Liberals and 37 Conservatives. In 1892 the Liberals lost 46, or more than four-sevenths, of the seats they carried in the earlier year, while winning but six seats from the Conservatives. In other words, the position of parties in the West and Southwest of England is now reversed. The Unionists have 77 members and the Liberals but 38. More than two-thirds of the entire Unionist net gains have been made in this portion of England, although it returns only about a fifth of the British members. Mr. Chamberlain's influence is evidently as strong as or stronger than ever. In his home counties of Warwickshire and Staffordshire the Liberals in 1885, when he was the hope of the Radicals and the dread of the Tories, carried twenty-six out of the thirty-one seats. Now they get but eight, or one less than they saved from the deluge of 1886. In Birmingham itself and in some of the neighboring constituencies more than half of the entire Liberal vote has followed Mr. Chamberlain into the Unionist party. In that neighborhood the resulting change of political strength is as great as would be required to make Vermont a Democratic or New York city a Republican stronghold.

In Scotland, too, although the overturning, when compared with 1885, is by no means proportionately as great as it was in the Birmingham region, the Liberal losses are at once very heavy and very significant. They have lost 14 of the 62 seats held by them in 1885, and have captured but three of those which returned Tories in the last-named year. The changes in the relative strength of the votes polled by the Liberals and their opponents is, however, the most significant result of the Scotch polling. In 1885 the Liberal predominance in most parts of Scotland was overwhelming. Exclusive of the Universities, there are seventy Scottish seats. Of these in 1885 the Conservatives did not contest thirteen at all, and in each of fifteen others the Liberals had more majority than the Conservatives had votes. Now this is all changed. There was a Conservative or a Unionist candidate for every seat in Scotland, and in but six of the whole number were the Liberals able to poll two votes for one. Comparing the vote in the constituencies contested by Conservatives in 1885 and by Conservatives or Unionists in 1892, it appears that the Liberal vote fell from 241,093 to 216,404, while the Unionist rose from 151,691 to 182,551, thus cutting the Liberal majority of nearly 90,000 in 1885 down to less than 35,000 in 1892. The Liberal losses in particular constituencies were proportionately still greater; and, curiously enough, with the single exception of West Aberdeenshire, the greatest numerical loss was sustained by Mr. Gladstone himself in Midlothian. Scotland, of course, is still a Liberal stronghold, and that party elects more than two-thirds of the total members for the kingdom; but the party has now, as it formerly had not, a more or less well-organized foe in nearly every constituency, and in future the Scottish Liberals, if they wish to hold the seats to which they are entitled, must abandon the running of two or more Liberal candidates for the same place—an amusement to which they have been much given in the past.

The chief interest in the Irish elections of course turned on the showing the Parnellites might be able to make. The result proves that in the greater part of Ireland they are without strength. In Dublin city and county they poll two votes to their rivals' one, and carry four out of the six seats, the other two falling to the Unionists, who also gain three more seats in Ulster. Outside of Dublin the Parnellites elect members only in Waterford city, Clare, Roscommon, and Galway, and usually by majorities small as compared with those by which, as a rule, their nominees (when they had them at all) were beaten. An analysis of the returns reveals the fact that while there are Protestant Home-Rulers, a number of whom have seats in Parliament, every one of them has been elected almost exclusively by Catholic voters, for every one of the sixteen constituencies in which the Protestants are in a majority of the population return Unionists. Among the wealthier and professional classes there are probably a considerable number of Catholic Unionists, yet Nationalists of one faction or the other will sit for eighty out of the eighty-five constituencies in which Catholics are more numerous than Protestants. In three of the five exceptions, the Catholic majority of the population is so small that it is not improbable that there may be a Protestant majority among the registered electors, while the election of Unionists for the St. Stephen's Green Division of Dublin city, and for the South Division of Dublin County, was in the former case certainly, and in the latter probably, due entirely to the factional fight which divided the home-rule electors.

PROHIBITION IN MAINE.

PORTLAND, MAINE, July 7, 1892.

A WEEK'S sojourn in this, the principal city of Maine, has given me an opportunity to study the working of the Prohibitory Law.

This law has been on the statute book of Maine for the last forty years (except that I believe it was repealed for two years shortly after its first enactment), and has constantly been amended in the direction of greater severity, so that it would seem that the most fanatical prohibitionist could ask for nothing more in the way of legislation, unless, indeed, the sale of liquor should be punished with death. The punishment for the sale of a single glass of liquor, even for the first offence, is fine *and* imprisonment for thirty days, the court having no power to modify this part of the punishment. There is an absolute prohibition upon the manufacture of intoxicating liquor for sale, upon the taking of orders for the sale of liquor by men travelling from place to place, upon the transportation of liquors with intent that they shall be sold by any person or to aid in their sale, and upon their sale in any form except by public authority; and all these prohibitions are enforced by the most severe penalties. Whoever sells liquors in any building, and the same are there drank (*sic*), is guilty of keeping a drinking-house and is to be fined $100 and costs, *and* imprisoned sixty days; and this, apparently, for a single sale. Liquors kept for unlawful sale are contraband and are to be seized and destroyed. Magistrates are to issue search-warrants to search not only places but persons, for liquor. All places where liquor is sold and "all places of *resort* where intoxicating liquors are kept, sold, given away, drank [*sic*], or dispensed in any manner not provided for by law, are common nuisances." The statute does not say "*public* resort," and was undoubtedly intended to hit the case of private clubs, but I cannot learn that an attempt has ever been made to apply it to them. The statute is quite long and is full of the most drastic provisions for its more perfect enforcement. Where it is enforced, not only can no liquor be sold for drinking purposes, but no druggist can even keep alcohol for sale for any purpose whatever.

But as the Legislature realized that intoxicating liquors might be needed for "medicinal mechanical, and manufacturing purposes," a State Commissioner is appointed to purchase such liquors and sell them to the various towns. Each town may (not must) buy liquors of such commissioner and appoint an agent to sell them, but only to residents of the town and only for the purposes above mentioned. And this is the only way to get liquor open to the general public.

It will be noted, however, that the prohibitions of the statute are all upon the sale, and not upon the use, of intoxicants. An attempt to prohibit the drinking of liquor by its lawful owner would be too great an infringement of personal liberty even for a Maine Legislature, and would probably be held unconstitutional by the courts. And so any man except

t e very poor can order his liquor from Boston, have it sent him by express, and use it in his own family as he chooses.

Mr. Woodbury, a prominent banker of Portland, stated, in a paper published in 1881, that after inquiry at express offices and similar places, he should estimate the amount spent by Portland for liquor in a year at $378,000. It must be more than that now. Portland has grown considerably in the last ten years, and has now a population of about 40,000.

In the country towns, or some of them, where public sentiment supports it, the law seems to have accomplished its object fairly well. In such towns a generation has grown up without any acquaintance with a public bar or a saloon; and this, in the case of a young man carefully brought up, is a good deal. But in the cities the law has notoriously been either evaded or openly disregarded, and public sentiment has been openly in favor of a very lax enforcement of the law. The hotels all had bars for the sale of liquor, although these were sometimes in the third story instead of the first, and in a room with a number on the door instead of without one. This was the case in Portland until two years ago, when Cumberland County, in which Portland is, elected a sheriff who has been making an honest and courageous attempt to enforce the law, and has absolutely suppressed the open sale of liquor. No reputable hotel-keeper or druggist now dares to keep it on sale, with the penalty of imprisonment staring him in the face.

But has this action of the sheriff stopped the illegal sale of liquor and diminished drunkenness? All sorts and conditions of men (except the veteran Neal Dow, the author of the law) to whom I spoke on the subject, agree that it has not. The police reports show plenty of arrests for drunkenness, but these arrests are no sort of indication of the amount of public drunkenness that exists. One of the policemen whose beat is in the lower part of the city, told me that he did not arrest one per cent. of the "cross-legged drunks" that he met; in fact, that he arrested no one for drunkenness unless the offender were *very* disorderly as well. The city officials would have no time for anything else if they were to arrest all the drunken men. On the occasion of the one visit I made to Portland's fine park, at ten o'clock one morning, I saw under a tree by the side of the little lake around which nurses and children were paddling in boats, a man lying dead-drunk. The park-keeper told me this was a very common sight, and that every morning he picked up a lot of empty bottles.

The action of the sheriff has entirely changed the character of the liquor traffic. It is now largely conducted by men called pocket-peddlers—men who stand on the street corners with a bottle in one pocket and a glass in the other, and will sell you a drink in a doorway or a horse-shed. It has also changed the character of the liquor sold. Good liquor is not to be had by the average man. One of the principal of the illicit beverages is a deadly compound called "split," composed of alcohol and water.

My own experience may be of interest. Securing a young man who knew the town as a guide, I started out in the business part of the town at noon one day to see what could be got. We visited three stores or shops where legitimate business of some kind was being carried on. In the first we could get nothing to drink because the proprietor was at his dinner and the assistant could not leave his post. In the second we bought and drank a bottle of lager (vile stuff it was). In the third we asked if we could get a couple of cases of lager next day if we wanted it, and were told we could. (Lager is expressly declared by the statute to be an intoxicating liquor.) Then we walked through two or three streets near the wharves and spoke to two or three knots of men on street corners or in doorways, and soon found a man who sold us, for thirty-five cents, a half-pint flask of (so-called) whiskey out of his pocket. I did not venture to taste this, as my guide assured me that it was liquid poison. All this was in the space of about half an hour. We looked for a pocket-peddler, but did not find one, it being the wrong time of the day. My guide told me that in the afternoon or evening we could find them readily.

Heretofore the question of prohibition has not generally been a political question, in the sense that the two great parties have taken opposite sides upon it; but the liquor-sellers and their hangers-on, needing that the officers of the law should wink at their breach of it, have generally attached themselves to the party in power in their locality, and so the Republican party, being in power in most towns in Maine, has generally controlled the liquor vote. But the present Republican sheriff of Cumberland County, refusing to wink at violations of the law, has driven the liquor vote solidly over to the Democratic party. And not only the liquor vote but an immense number of other citizens who, like Sergeant Stebbins, are "in favor of the law but agin' its enforcement" (and it is astonishing how many of these there are), will vote the same way. The sentiment is very generally expressed that the sheriff, the sworn officer of the law, has done very wrong in enforcing the law so strictly. The two principal papers of the town, the *Press* and the *Argus*, are carrying on quite a heated controversy on the subject. The *Press* (Republican) says that the sheriff is to be commended for so faithfully performing his sworn duty. The *Argus* (Democratic) says (July 5): "In driving out of the city the sale of beer and ale, Sheriff Cram brought in the sale of 'split' by bottle-peddlers, and made hundreds of our young men form that worst of all habits—the habit of providing themselves with a private bottle of whiskey." Both papers undoubtedly speak the truth.

The city election last March threw the entire city government into the hands of the Democratic party, and it seems to be generally conceded that the county election next September will go the same way—all on account of Sheriff Cram's enforcement of the law. How the law fares at the hands of those who are not in sympathy with it may be seen by a visit to the City Liquor Agency, established under the provisions of the law of which I have spoken. I stepped into the place one afternoon, and found two men behind a counter filling bottles as fast as possible. Large printed signs informed me that liquor was to be sold only to residents of Portland, and only for medicinal, mechanical, or manufacturing purposes; and that any false representation was punishable by a penalty of $20. Men *and women* were pressing up to the counter faster than they could be served, so that they had to stand *en queue*. As some man, looking remarkably like the ordinary bar-room loafer of other States, would approach the counter, the following dialogue would be had:

Agent—What do you want?
Customer—Pint o' whiskey.
Agent—Bourbon or rye?
Customer—Bourbon.
Agent—Medicine?
Customer—Yes.
Agent—What's your name?

Customer gives a name and address, which are believed to be fictitious in the majority of instances.

Agent—Fifty cents.

While this conversation was going on, the agent would be filling the bottle, to save time, and at the end he would jot down, with pencil, the name and address on a sheet of paper lying on the counter. I stayed there several minutes, and saw a number of customers served; and the only attempt to provide that the law should be complied with as to the purpose for which the liquor was sold, was the stereotyped question and answer, "Medicine?" "Yes." Last year the Portland agency reported sales to the amount of $57,333.30. This is probably much below the truth, as the agency is said to be a very profitable position; but assuming it to be correct, it probably represents at least one hundred thousand lies.

A prominent Republican lawyer, who has held high positions in State and city government, told me that prohibition not only did not prohibit, but was attended with three great evils: it made legislators hypocrites; it corrupted public officers; and it filled the courts with perjury. It has happened, so I was told, that Governor and legislators would get high on whiskey illegally sold on the evening of the very day when they had passed a stringent amendment to the law. Policemen and deputy sheriffs who would be proof against any bribe offered them in the matter of an ordinary crime, see no harm in taking money to wink at what they cannot see to be a crime at all; but, once in the habit of bribe-taking, they soon cease to draw distinctions between crimes. Just so it seems to many men a venial offence to swear to a lie for the purpose of aiding a friend who is likely to go to jail for doing what it would seem all men have a natural right to do; but when one has once begun the practice of perjury, distinctions between crimes are lost sight of.

My experience of Portland makes me believe that here, at least, prohibition increases rather than diminishes drunkenness, and that the lying, bribery, and perjury that necessarily accompany it are demoralizing the people. The little good that the law accomplishes in the way of preventing open sales of liquor is far outweighed by the great evils that accompany it.

R.

THE QUESTION OF ALSACE AND THE RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, July 11, 1892.

IN a preceding letter I endeavored to point out the various phases of the present political situation, the different causes that had worked together to bring it about, and the divers currents of opinion arising from it. This study was nevertheless incomplete, inasmuch as I treated only of home politics. In the case, however, of a country like France, surrounded, as she is, by neighbors whose military force makes them her rivals, the question of foreign policy is all-important. I profit, therefore, by the momentary lull in party warfare, and proceed to sketch the main lines of public opinion in relation to foreign affairs. Speaking baldly, and emission made of secondary issues, the mind of the country may be said to reflect friendship and understanding with Russia, and hostility towards Germany and her allies.

There is no need to dwell upon the consequences of the war of 1870, so far as the gene-

ral situation in Europe is concerned. It is only too evident that the Treaty of Frankfort opened a gulf between France and Germany. France could not reconcile herself to her defeat, nor yet make up her mind to the loss of her provinces. She therefore set about reconstructing her shattered power and her army, with the apparent intention of seizing the favorable moment to retake the territory she had lost. Germany, on her side, in order to maintain her superiority, continued *pari passu* to increase her existing armaments. And so for the last twenty years these two Powers have remained facing each other, like combatants watching each other's movements; officially professing peaceful intentions, and yet all the time amassing arms and men destined for war. Once, and once only, during this period, a kind of approximation and half-reconciliation has been brought about between them. In 1884 and 1885, at a time when the various European Powers were first specially interesting themselves in Africa as a field for colonization, a common interest and the desire to resist the exorbitant claims of England drew the Cabinets of Paris and Berlin nearer together. But this was only an interlude. Indeed, even if the French Government had seriously desired it, a lasting understanding with Germany would have been out of the question. Ever since the war, the vast majority, one might almost say the entire nation, of the French reckon among the first principles of their patriotism the hatred of Germany, the continuous protest against the Treaty of Frankfort, and the duty of liberating Alsace and Lorraine from the yoke which weighs upon them.

In order to assure her supremacy in Europe, Germany had need of allies. She therefore made overtures to Austria and Italy, and the result was the Triple Alliance. This diplomatic success was not obtained without creating corresponding difficulties. Forced, almost, to favor Austria's claims at the Congress of Berlin when this Power sought to improve its eastern frontier, Germany was the cause of Russia's losing a part of the advantage she deemed assured to her by her victories over Turkey in 1877-8; and, in consequence, the relations between Berlin and St. Petersburg became much less cordial. Lacking sympathy with the policy of the Triple Alliance, the Empire of the Czars grew naturally more friendly disposed towards the Power against whom the Triple Alliance was mainly directed. The progress of this friendship was marked by a series of minor diplomatic incidents, culminating in the visit of a French squadron to Cronstadt, and a display of cordiality between the two nationalities that was patent to all the world. Henceforth, the Franco-Russian agreement was an official fact. Though it would be impossible to state whether, in the real sense of the word, an alliance had been concluded, from the point of view of public opinion in France the distinction is of comparatively little importance. The Russian Alliance, as it is usually called here, produced a prodigious effect. For the country to feel that it was no longer alone, that, whatever might happen, it would have the support of an ally whose power was all the more dreaded as it was to a certain extent unknown—this, joined to the inborn love we French have of demonstrating, carried the national enthusiasm to a pitch not easy to describe. The travelling peddlers hawked about, even in the very heart of the country, symbolic chromolithographs in which the Czar and M. Carnot were represented exchanging a hearty grasp of the hand; not a choir but learned the Russian national hymn, which the public always stood up to hear after the Marseillaise; and, by a singular irony of circumstances, certain ultra-radical newspapers, carrying as superscription and motto, "No God and no master," published, in the form of supplement, the text of this national hymn, which commences with the words: "God protect the Czar."

It must be admitted that there are people who do not share the general enthusiasm, and who warn their neighbors that the Russian Army would not, and could not, for technical reasons, take the field as our ally so readily as is imagined. They add that, so far as appearances go, it is not to the Czar's interest to favor France's revenge, since he knows it is only her hope of his help that attaches her to his policy. Those, however, who give utterance to these divergent opinions are mostly politicians by profession or high State functionaries; and their criticisms, expressed in society drawing rooms, find no echo among the outside public. If we look at the small provincial newspapers, which reflect not unfaithfully the average middle-class opinion, we meet with an absolute confidence that the Czar is going to aid us against Germany, and that the Franco-Russian combination will suffice to crush our rival.

From the foregoing it might seem reasonable to suppose that the war feeling in France has been lately increasing in intensity. The hatred of Germany exists. The wish to recover the lost provinces exists also. Resignation to the *status quo* is still repudiated by the nation; and since it is believed that, both from a military and a diplomatic point of view, we are in the best possible situation for making war, why, may it be asked, should not the nation desire it? This reasoning is not altogether hypothetic. A certain number really argue thus; but compared with the whole population they are very few. Taken throughout, the country is thoroughly inclined towards peace. There are several causes of this apparent contradiction.

First of all we may notice the great restraining influence at present exercised by the fact of military service being obligatory upon all. When war directly affected only one part of the population, the other part, undisturbed in its daily avocations, might permit itself to indulge in more bellicose ideas—might, by the fact of its own immunity from the life-and-death risk, urge on a war for some trivial reason. Even those who then figured as combatants fought with the greater willingness, since military service was to them a trade. To-day all this is changed, and, except by the officers, the time spent in the army is regarded as a kind of tax which is necessary to be paid, but which one may be allowed to pay grumblingly. When we recollect that an army mobilization in France claims all the citizens who are between twenty and forty-five years of age, and that it leaves no family exempt, it is quite sufficient to explain why those who wish in their hearts for war are in a small minority. In addition to these personal motives are the reflections arising as to the probable nature of any future war. Then for the first time will come into use all the dread instruments of destruction that military science during the last twenty years has added to those already employed. With such arms on either side the slaughter will be increased tenfold. But, further, if only to make the issue definitive, no mercy will be shown to the vanquished, and, however much one may hope for and anticipate victory, one hesitates to engage in so formidable an undertaking, especially as victor no less than vanquished is likely to be ruined by the struggle.

Last of all, and perhaps the most curious phenomenon to observe, the motives for which war might be desired seem themselves in a fair way to lose their original intensity. Let us leave out of count the small number of persons who think, openly or covertly, that France ought not to seek to get possession again of Alsace and Lorraine—manufacturers who fear the competition of Mülhausen or Colmar, Socialists who make light of the sentiment of patriotism, and who do not care whether the frontier is defined by the Vosges or the Rhine; these minorities are so inconsiderable that they may be neglected. Let us, on the other hand, repeat that our fellow-countrymen, almost to a man, declare it indispensable that France should recover the provinces she has lost—this, either from motives of sentiment, as, for example, that Germany, in annexing these provinces against their wish, violated the principles of abstract justice; or, again, from regard to the national safety, Metz in the hands of Germany being regarded as a constant menace. Let us, in fine, grant that, under present conditions, public feeling continues naturally to be very hostile to Germany. In spite of all, it may be asserted that the hatred against Germany, if it really still exists, seems to grow less crude and less unreasoning. A proof of this has been lately furnished.

A certain number of writers and public men, deploring the general situation in Europe and the armed peace which weighs so heavily on all sorts and conditions, and rightly judging the chief cause of this situation to be the difference existing between France and Germany, had published a series of articles in order to show that it was possible to escape from the difficulties that exist at the present time without resorting to all the terrible eventualities of war. One proposed an exchange of Alsace in return for a French colony; another, a money redemption; a third, the neutralization of the disputed territory. These projects, in themselves chimerical, were commented on in the French press in a very significant manner. Certain newspapers affirmed that it was impossible to dream of an amicable arrangement, "the hate of German for French being only equalled by the hate of French for German." But for the most part the press articles ran on these lines—that whenever and however we shall have come into possession again of the provinces that Germany has taken from us, we shall be quite willing to live on good terms with her; and if such an end can be obtained without war, we shall be only too delighted.

In quite a different order of ideas one sees a current of opinion which has existed now for some little time, and which may work in the direction of a better understanding between France and Germany. A German writer, who preferred not to reveal his name (rumor would have it that the author was a high functionary of the German Court, if not the Emperor himself), published a pamphlet, which was immediately translated into French, wherein he undertook to prove that the various European States would soon be ruined economically unless they combined closely in order to cope with the formidable competition of America. The same idea has since been taken up by other writers, and the opinion it embodies is perhaps destined to acquire a certain importance.

Such, then, are the chief phases of public opinion in France in relation to the sub-

ject I set out to treat. To sum up the foregoing in a few words, I may repeat that the hatred between France and Germany seems to grow less acute. Certain tendencies may be observed here and there that are capable of bringing about a reconciliation, though at a date still distant. To tell the truth, Germany seems in no wise disposed to abandon her conquests of 1871, nor France to cease reclaiming what she has lost. Moreover, the national claim in France may be considered to have all the more weight as it is the more calmly made; for, in spite of the enthusiasm called forth by the Russian alliance, no one here seems to desire war. S.

AMONG THE PSYCHOLOGISTS OF PARIS.

PARIS, June, 1892.

OF course, the phrase "Psychologists of Paris" suggests Hypnotism to the reader, and I use it with that intention. Paris has become, in a peculiar sense, the place to study Hypnotism, for the reason that much of the best work has been done here. Yet everybody knows the rivalry between Paris and Nancy, which has embittered many recent publications and turned the course of discovery into the channels of controversy. Everybody knows, too, that the theory of "Suggestion," as advocated by the Nancy men, is now the dominant explanation of the facts of the hypnotic trance.

No doubt it is because of the controversial turn recently taken by the discussion that the Paris professors are losing interest in the development which owed its first impulse to them —no doubt this, rather than the fact that the Nancy theory is more than holding its own against them. As Professor Ribot wrote me before I arrived, "Hypnotism is on the decline in Paris. Many of the serious men who for merly busied themselves with it think that it has been much abused in the last six months, and that it would be better to drop it for a time." This I found confirmed both by Charcot, who seemed content to use the sleep very moderately as a therapeutic agent, and by Binet, who, as will appear further on, is turning his attention to Experimental Psychology.

The Paris school, locally considered, has made a very important acquisition, however, in the person of Prof. Pierre Janet, called from Havre to the chair of Philosophy in the Collège Rollin. He is a nephew of Paul Janet, the philosopher, and is already well known as the author of 'L'Automatisme Psychologique,' a book in which he describes certain remarkable cases of "subconscious personality" developed among his patients at Havre. He now holds a position also in the Salpêtrière; and it is to him that I am indebted for the interesting day that I spent in the wards of this celebrated institution. In the Salpêtrière, Prof. Janet has found abundant means of confirming the facts, now classic, which he established in his earlier hysterical patients, Léonie, etc. He has a patient, whom I may call X, in whom the activities of the subconscious are readily and forcibly developed—a young, hysterical girl of remarkably bright and unaffected nature. The personality of the normal X is insensible to stimulations in certain regions of the skin and retina; the personality of the hypnotized X possesses these missing sense areas. She detects objects outside of her usual field of vision, feels the prick of pins where before insensible, etc. That is, the second personality gets experiences from nervous events which are inaccessible to the first personality. Further, X the somnambulist remembers objects seen by X the somnambulist —objects which X the hysteric declares she has never seen. Again, the second personality, the somnambulist, replies by writing (with a hand hidden behind a screen) words, sentences, answers, of which the first personality is quite unconscious. Such facts, which I have no space to dwell upon, can be explained, it seems, only on the "sub-personality" hypothesis—unless we call it all fraud, and impeach the scientific honesty or capacity of many observers.

The Paris school, it will be remembered, distinguish three stages in the hypnotic trance—all abnormal or diseased conditions to which the nervous system is subject. These states are called catalepsy, somnambulism, and lethargy. The best brief exposition of these three "stages of Charcot" in English is Binet and Féré's 'Animal Magnetism,' in the "International Scientific Series." Recent criticism has tended to show that the methods of inducing these stages one after another may really be resolved into "suggestion," and that the stages are only degrees in profundity of the one hypnotic sleep. This much the Nancy school can certainly claim credit for. Janet distinguishes the stages—as every one must continue to do—as a matter of description and symptom, and in part resorts to the artificial system of signs, rubs, etc., formerly declared necessary for transferring the patient from one stage to another. Binet, on the other hand, has changed his mind some what since he wrote with Féré, as he himself told me—a change which may be seen in some passages of his new book, 'Les Altérations de la Personalité.'

Prof. Janet has another patient (Y), also an hysterical woman, in whom the stages are very marked, and whom he seems to regard as more typical than those who show less variety of state. Nothing could be more definite than the lapse of Y into lethargy, or her rise into somnambulism, when the proper button is pressed; and the proper performance in each state appears when called for with the regularity of clock-work. But one cannot rid himself of the suspicion that it is all acquired machinery; that the magic "suggestion" works through sub-consciousness, exalted sense-perception, or the influence which Ochorowicz calls "psychic atmosphere." And this suspicion is strengthened when one has seen the utter lack of systematic performance in this respect shown by the patients at Nancy.

Prof. Janet's hypnotic method is very mild. He is a man of hardly more than thirty-five years, of great reserve force, evidently, but rather persuasive than commanding with his patients. He is also somewhat under the influence of the reaction spoken of above, not engaging this summer in new experimentation, and not caring, as he said, to take any part in the heated discussion on "criminal suggestion." The man, on the other hand, who is making his usual exhibition of hypnotic subjects before medical men is Luys, at the Hôpital de la Charité. He lectures on "Brain Functions, illustrated by Hypnology." This means a half-hour devoted to the exposition of Luys's views on cerebral physiology—pretty well known to everybody—and a half-hour given to the stock performances of stock somnambulists. There is nothing remarkable about either of these two parts, except their pretentious and sensational character—a point on which the best men, both among physiologists and psychologists, express themselves very freely. He did, indeed, give a sample case of criminal suggestion, but it was so lacking in the proper precautions against simulation that could Delbœuf see it (as perhaps he has), he could well take comfort from it.

Besides Charcot's lectures and clinics for mental diseases, an interesting course in the same subject is given this summer by Ball and Ballet at the Hospice St. Anne. Ballet, the lecturer, is one of the clearest and best speakers in Paris. His work is also cautious, solid, and sane, as those will know who have read his little book, 'La Parole Intérieure.' American students of the general subject will find it profitable to hear him and his colleague, especially as the clinique is rich in typical and instructive cases.

The new movement in Experimental Psychology proper has also reached Paris. A laboratory has just been opened in the Sorbonne under the auspices of the Hautes Études. Beaunis, the eminent physiologist, a man capable of the good psychological work shown in his recent book, 'Les Sensations Internes,' and in numerous articles, has been made director, and Binet joint-director. The recent studies of Binet on 'Insect Psychology' are published as the first fruits of this foundation: a subject which he intends to pursue at the International Congress at London in August. Ribot, although Professor in Experimental Psychology in the Collège de France, is not officially connected with the laboratory. In the words of Binet, "the laboratory is not for physiology—there are greater ones already for that—it is for psychology alone." In accordance with this wise determination, very little and very simple apparatus has been so far introduced. The only new thing, in fact, which will interest my readers is the Arsonval chronometer, a simple and apparently reliable substitute for the Hipp chronoscope. It is an adaptation of Hipp's principle without its complexity and clumsiness, and is made by Verdin in Paris, complete, with two reaction-keys and connections, for 350 francs—a very high price. This is the only laboratory foundation in France, and under its present direction we may expect it to do credit to the great institutions which it represents.

In another letter I shall speak of the Nancy school. J. MARK BALDWIN.

Correspondence.

THE HOMESTEAD RIOTERS AND PUBLIC OPINION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is refreshing to turn from the editorials of most of the dailies on the Homestead trouble to the treatment of the same topic by the *Nation;* but is not the *Nation* just a little inclined to attribute too much to the doctrine of "protection"? It is doubtful whether the Homesteaders have secured any "large measure" of sympathy outside of that expressed by the demagogues and their ill-informed brethren in the labor ranks. But, admitting that they have, what evidence is there that this is "because the country is at last awakening to the infamous abuses which go on under the name of 'protection'"? Is it not rather due to the attitude of the daily press and of the (Democratic?) politicians who obscure the real issue by denouncing "Pinkerton thugs," etc., and manufacture sympathy by making the rioters pose as oppressed workingmen?

Yours, F. W. STAEBNER.

LEBANON, N. H., July 20, 1892.

Notes.

BERNARD QUARITCH, London, will have ready in October an edition of 500 copies of Caxton's 'Golden Legend,' in three volumes, quarto, printed from type of William Morris's designing, with ornamental letters and borders also of his invention, besides two full-page woodcuts from designs by Burne-Jones. Mr. Morris and Mr. Frederick S. Ellis will edit the work, furnishing a glossary and some bibliographical memoranda. Caxton's 'Recuyell of the Histories of Troye' will be brought out in similar style in January, and his 'Historye of Reynard the Foxe' is in contemplation.

A new Goethe publication has been promised for the coming month. Almost three hundred letters of F. Riemer to members of the family Frommann in Jena have been collected by Ferdinand Heitmüller, and will be published with a preface and a commentary by him. The letters tell of the daily events in the poet's family and among his acquaintances in Weimar.

The latest bound volume of the *Century* extends from November, 1891, to April, 1892. Pictorially, the leading features have been the continuation of Mr. Cole's Italian Old Masters, and the *Century* Series of Pictures by American Artists. The story of the California Gold-hunters has received an interesting accession in the shape of letters written by W. T. Sherman during the rule of the Vigilance Committee. The chief serial fiction has been Dr. Weir Mitchell's "Characteristics" and Kipling and Balestier's "Naulahka." A paper sure to be referred to hereafter is Mr. Edward Robinson's discussion of the question whether the Greeks painted their sculptures. The visit of Paderewski to this country is commemorated in the present volume in prose and in verse.

The local flavor of the *Overland Monthly* gives to the nineteenth volume, as to its predecessors, a special interest, which is enhanced by the generally photographic illustrations. A paper on "Mission Bells" is in point, and so is the disinterested account of the much debated Temescal Tin Mine— "An American Tin Mine," as Mr. Knight's caption reads, though he spoils all our fine feelings by counting it "a great gain and assurance of success that English capital has been enlisted here." Most delectable of all the contents we have found five autograph letters from ex-President Andrew Jackson to Congressman William M. Gwin of Mississippi, in all the splendor of their illiterate diction. The first is dated Christmas Day, 1840, and deplores the carrying of Mississippi by the "Abolition and Wigg Tickett" in the late Presidential campaign. In the fourth, Jan. 16, 1843, referring to J. Q. Adams's opposition to the refunding of the fine of 1815 for contempt of court in New Orleans, he says: "This poor, disgraced old man cannot by all his low bred insults arous my feelings."

'Les Clouet,' one of the latest reissues from *L'Art* in the series of "Artistes Célèbres," is a most careful study by M. Bouchot, Librarian of the Bibliothèque Nationale, of the very little that is known of these artists and of their contemporary, Corneille de Lyon. The general result seems to be that nothing can be certainly attributed to the first Clouet and very little to the second or to Corneille de Lyon, though M. Bouchot thinks he has established a strong probability that certain admirable miniatures in a (French) manuscript of the Gallic War in the Bibliothèque Nationale are by Jean Clouet, and that the original crayon studies for them are now in the Musée Condé. These studies are strong and Holbein-like portraits of celebrated Frenchmen who lived between 1515 and 1540, and, if they are really by the elder Clouet, show him to be a greater artist than his son, and much greater than he has hitherto been esteemed.

A careful study of abbreviations in Latin palæography by Zanino Volta has recently appeared in Italy ('Delle Abbreviature nella Paleografia Latina'). It contains a fairly exact reproduction of more than 2,500 of these abbreviations.

That versatile savant, Prof. Gustavo Uzielli, has for twenty years made a study of Paolo Dal-Pozzo Toscanelli, the great Florentine astronomer and geographer of the fifteenth century, whose letters to the King of Portugal in 1474 were the principal cause of Columbus's Western adventure, and who had previously urged the Portuguese to complete the circumnavigation of Africa. In a communication to the Florence *Nazione* of June 30, Prof. Uzielli enlarges upon the virtue of that city in Toscanelli's time as the centre of the great geographical movement of the age, and suggests that America might well have owed its name to Toscanelli rather than to any navigator. He is on the eve of publishing certain codices which will throw much light upon the history of geography in the fifteenth century, and will prove that Vespucius had no hand in fastening his name on the New World. Prof. Uzielli is a member of the Royal Commission for the current Columbus centenary festival at Genoa.

In view of the approaching anniversary of the discovery of America, the French Government has arranged in the National Library of Paris an exceedingly attractive and instructive exhibition of maps and globes illustrating the geographical notions which prevailed before and after the time of Columbus. They are for the most part rare originals which either belong to the library and to different departments of the Government or have been borrowed from private collections. We shall probably have occasion to speak of this collection somewhat in detail, and will now only mention a map drawn by Champlain in 1608, with more than a hundred maps giving the results of the expeditions of Joliet, La Salle, and other explorers in the region of the great lakes as far as Hudson's Bay and along the Mississippi and Ohio. There are also plans of North and South American towns, Puerto Rico, Quebec, Montreal, Rio de Janeiro, Saint Louis, Marietta, Pittsburg, and other places from the beginning to the close of the eighteenth century, and one of New York when it consisted only of a fort and a few mills on the south point of Manhattan Island.

That the proprietorship of a newspaper should pass uninterruptedly from father to son for a century and a half is a rare and noteworthy event in the annals of journalism. Such, however, is the case with the *Schlesische Zeitung*, which was founded by Johann Jakob Korn at Breslau in 1742, when this province had just been wrested from Austria and annexed to Prussia by Frederick the Great, and is still published by his lineal descendants. To celebrate this uncommon anniversary a volume has been printed entitled '150 Jahre *Schlesische Zeitung* 1742-1892: Ein Beitrag zur vaterländischen Kultur-Geschichte' (Breslau: Korn). It contains facsmiles of the first number, dated January 3, 1742, and of the proclamations issued by Frederic William III. in March, 1813. This work gives a succinct and remarkably readable survey of European history and of the progress of civilization during the period in question, especially as reflected in the columns of the venerable newspaper.

The first number of Prof. Karl Krumbacher's *Byzantinische Zeitschrift*, of which we noticed the prospectus in a recent issue, has now appeared. It is a well-printed quarterly of 184 pages, and contains twelve articles, one in English, one in French, and the rest in German, besides several literary criticisms and numerous notes. In a preface of a dozen pages the editor states the nature and purpose of the review as the organ of "Byzantinistics" in the broadest sense of the term, defines the limits and scope of this new discipline, and defends its claims to consideration for its own sake, independently of its scholastic relations to classical antiquity, for which it has been hitherto chiefly prized. The periodical is intended to embrace the entire intellectual life of the Greeks during the existence of the Byzantine Empire, extending over more than a thousand years, and Prof. Krumbacher's assurance that it shall be conducted in a strictly scientific manner is certainly fulfilled so far as the present number is concerned. The paper of most general interest is perhaps that on "Byzantine Art," by Prof. Strzyowski. The importance attached to the undertaking is evinced by the fact that the Royal Bavarian Academy of Sciences has made an appropriation for its support.

Vol. II. of the *Journal of American Ethnology and Archæology* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is occupied chiefly by a very circumstantial account of "A Few Summer Ceremonials at the Tusayan Pueblos," adjacent to the similar habitations of the Zuñis, by the editor, J. Walter Fewkes. Dr. Fewkes also contributes a short report on the present condition of the famous Arizona ruin called Casa Grande. Both these papers are freely illustrated with process cuts, which, however, leave much to be desired in point of clearness. A third paper possessing no little interest is by J. G. Owens, on "Natal Ceremonies of the Hopi Indians."

In the *Critic* for July 9, Dr. Rolfe, the Shaksperian editor, commenting on the fact mentioned in a recent London newspaper that "young bar-tailed godwits are, in autumn, called scamels on the north coast of Norfolk," says: "If they have gone by that name ever since the days of Shakspere, it is curious that the fact did not get into print sooner." Had he taken the trouble to look at the 'Century Dictionary,' he would have found this same definition given, together with a quotation to the same effect from Swainson's 'British Birds,' published in 1885.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July contains the conclusion of Dr. H. Schlichter's account of the African pygmies. In summing up the result of his investigations, he unhesitatingly rejects the theory that these creatures are simply the degenerate specimens of the tribes among whom they live, because of the great anthropological and ethnological differences between them and their full-sized neighbors. On the other hand, he is favorably inclined to the hypothesis that they are the remnants of the African aborigines. The recent pamphlet on the dwarfs of Mount Atlas is mentioned, but judgment on it is deferred, pending the publication of new evidence promised by Mr. Haliburton. Prof. James Geikie tells of recent researches in the Pleistocene climate and geography of Britain and Northern Europe, the paper being accompanied by a map. Of more general interest is a summary of M. Henri Dauvergne's explorations in the Pamir, during which he claims to have disco-

vered the true sources of the Oxus or Amu Darya in the enormous glaciers of the Hindu Kush. This is followed by a survey of what has been accomplished in British New Guinea within the past three years in exploration, from which it appears that there have been no additional discoveries of gold in paying quantities, though the fact that the general geological features of this part of Papua are "in a very considerable degree identical with those of Australia," would lead to the not unreasonable assumption that "mineral areas of great value may yet await discovery."

The petty lake region *par excellence* of Germany is partly delineated in sheets Nos. 9 and 11 of Vogel's Map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann), designated Stettin and Allenstein (Pomerania and East Prussia).

Mr. William H. Goodyear, Curator of Fine Arts in the Brooklyn Institute, has been invited to read a paper on his discoveries concerning the Egyptian lotus in classic ornament before the Ninth Oriental Congress in London, Sept. 5-12.

Prof. Edward S. Morse's essay "On the Older Forms of Terra-cotta Roofing-tiles," originally communicated to the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., and afterwards printed serially in the *American Architect*, has been reprinted in the Bulletin of the Essex Institute and also separately. It is a study of great interest and practical and artistic value, and among the many illustrations are some drawn from the author's favorite Japan.

We have received the first number (for July) of the *American Monthly Magazine*, edited by Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth in the interest of the Daughters of the American Revolution, and published by the National Society of that name in Washington. It consists almost wholly of the Proceedings of the First Continental Congress of the Society, Feb. 22-24, 1893. Mrs. Benjamin Harrison presided, and her portrait is prefixed to the present issue of the magazine.

The July number of the *University Bulletin* issued by Columbia College contains the announcement that the final step (for the present at least) has been taken in the readjustment of the government of that institution to suit the changed conditions of its present development. Thirty years ago Columbia College was, like most other American colleges, of the four-year-course type; indeed, it consisted solely of its undergraduate department and of a very young Law School, although it had also a shadowy connection with the College of Physicians and Surgeons. To-day the Medical School has been made an integral part of the University, and a School of Political Science exists by the side of the School of Law; while the School of Mines has grown to maturity and is in reality a School of Applied Science and a School of Architecture also. The July *Bulletin* announces the establishment of a School of Pure Science, and also a strengthening of the School of Philosophy, which has charge of the courses in philosophy, philology, and letters. Beside these university schools stands the old college, now called the School of Arts. The difficult problem of governing a university under laws made for a college has been solved in this way: The trustees established a University Council to consist of the President, of the Dean of every school, and of another delegate from every faculty, and of two other professors appointed by the President. At first this council was merely advisory, but it now becomes the chief legislative body of the University, and thus the management of Columbia is actually in the hands of a representative committee of its professors. Each school is managed by its own faculty in accordance with the decisions of the University Council. The instruction given in the School of Arts ceases with the junior year; and the senior is free to select his studies in any or all of the six University Schools.

The 'Exercises in Connection with the Presentation of the Ladd Observatory to Brown University' last October have been appropriately preserved in a little pamphlet bearing the above title. The Chancellor of the University, Col. William Goddard, presided on that occasion with much grace and dignity, stating in apt phrase the uses of modern astronomy and the intimate relation between that science and the common life of man. Following the Chancellor, Gov. H. W. Ladd, the donor of the Observatory, elucidated the conditions which had led him to make this munificent gift to the University, and President Andrews, in his able and pointed address of acceptance, insisted upon the material values of the higher training in science, showing how civilization in its practical efficiency is in the last analysis totally dependent upon the work done at the centres of learning. Prof. Upton, Director of the new Observatory, next gave account of the astronomical establishments of the earliest time, comparing and contrasting them with the finished structures of to-day, with their elaborate instrumental equipment for work of the last degree of precision; while the exercises were concluded with remarks by Prof. Pickering of Harvard on the gratifying outlook for the future of American astronomy; by Dr. Hastings of Yale, who told the interesting tale of the construction of the great object-glass with which the new telescope was supplied; by Mr. Brashear of Allegheny, who had done the optical work upon this fine lens; and by Prof. Rogers of Colby University, who made a forceful appeal for astronomy from the merely utilitarian view, and demonstrated that "the cultivation of the science of astronomy cheapens the production of cotton-cloth, of woollen goods, of calico, of machinery, indeed of every staple product."

—Though the thirteenth volume of Mr. W. C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (Putnams) comes down to the middle of the year 1798, another volume yet must crown the work; and in the fourteenth, as we learn from a note on p. 445, apropos of Washington's referring to correspondence with Sir Isaac Heard, the editor will take occasion to present all that is known about the Washington pedigree. The political strain of the current volume is agreeably diversified by extracts from Washington's letters to the manager of his estates, showing the most minute oversight of the latter's reports, even to the scrutiny of individual delinquencies on the part of his slaves. Of nearly all of his "hands" he distrusted the common honesty, and he considered himself systematically robbed by them of such property as they could dispose of to white receivers in Alexandria. Their shamming illness, their slowness and inefficiency in working, are also dwelt upon. On the other hand, he complains of rascally and brutal overseers who treat slaves like cattle. The loss of a cook puts him in a painful dilemma, as he has resolved never to purchase another human being, and yet cannot hire white or black to direct his kitchen. To hold slaves or to go unserved was a general sad necessity in Southern society. The disgrace of Randolph appears in the correspondence of this period, and the public feeling over Jay's treaty; and Washington's pungent notes on Monroe's 'View' are extended beyond the point at which Sparks, for some reason, stopped. They furnish some of the best reading in the volume. The growth of the "Federal City," and the speculative boom in it, are also glanced at, and there is much evidence of Washington's desire to see a national university established at the capital. His Farewell Address is printed from the original draft in the Lenox Library, on the same page with Hamilton's draft, which was followed in the main. We observe on p. 230 a reference to vol. i., p. 168, of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's edition of 'Jefferson's Writings'—proof that this forthcoming publication is all ready to succeed the Washington on its completion.

—It appears that Marshal MacMahon has been occupying himself since his retirement from the Presidency of the French Republic in writing out the souvenirs of his long and active life. The Marshal is now eighty-four years old, and he bears his years lightly. The *Figaro* of July 2 publishes an interview with him from which we learn that his Memoirs are already quite finished. Four copies of them, in fact, have been lithographed, but no one has as yet been permitted to read them. The title will be simply 'Souvenirs du Maréchal de MacMahon, Duc de Magenta.' The interviewer says that the work consists of five goodly volumes—whether of manuscript or print he does not make clear. At any rate, the book promises to be of a certain bulk. It begins with MacMahon's experiences in the African expedition in 1837, when as a captain he did brilliant work at the siege of Constantine. By 1855, when the Crimean war began, he was a general, and he tells the story of his share in that campaign; then follows an account of the Kabyle expedition; then of the war with Italy, where he won his title; then of his return to Africa and his polemic with Cardinal Lavigerie. This ends the first portion of the book. The second part treats of events since 1870—of the war with Prussia, the Débâcle, the work done by the Versailles troops, his own Presidency, and the rest. It is understood that he criticises with considerable severity that part of the conduct of the Franco-Prussian war for which he was not himself responsible; that he goes very fully into the Versailles episode, and that he opens much of the secret history of his own election, and especially of his dealings with the Right. The Marshal says that his book will appear at furthest before two years are over. It is likely enough to be in our hands much before that date—and an interesting book it will be.

—Everybody knows the three thanksgivings in the Jewish liturgy in which the pious Hebrew blesses the Eternal that he was not born an idolater, nor a slave, nor a woman. About a year ago Prof. James Darmesteter published a pamphlet in which he pointed out the fact that these thanksgivings resemble almost to the extent of identity certain invocations in the Parsee liturgy. The identical expressions, he held, were no doubt borrowed on one side or the other; but which was the original possessor of them? M. Darmesteter traced the Jewish thanksgivings back to the second century and to Palestine, where they were attributed to a pupil of the great Rabbi Akiba. The Persian thanksgivings he holds to be of a date somewhere between the fourth and seventh centuries, when there was considerable intercourse between the Persian court and learned Jews. The reciprocal influence of Judaism and Zoroastrianism is one of the more tempting of

the fields of research that lie open to the modern scholar. An item towards the discussion was offered in the *Academy* of June 25 in a letter upon M. Darmesteter's liturgiological pamphlet by Mr. J. Murray Mitchell. He finds in both the Parsee and the Hebrew thanksgivings echoes of earlier Greek philosophers. Diogenes Laertius, in his life of Thales, says: He used to say that he was thankful to fortune for three things—first, because he had been born a man and not a beast; next, that he was a man and not a woman; thirdly, that he was a Greek and not a barbarian. Other slightly different forms of the same thought occur elsewhere, and are attributed variously to Thales, or Socrates, or Plato. Not to go minutely into the extremely important question of dates, it may be said roughly that the saying in question may well have been familiar among the Greeks as early as the third century before Christ, and was certainly familiar to them by the middle of the first century of the Christian era. So they antedate both the Jewish and the Parsee liturgies. The Jews doubtless—or most likely—borrowed from the Greeks; but from whom did the Persians borrow? Possibly from the Jews; M. Darmesteter would no doubt hold this view. But the Greeks, and especially their philosophers, had an influence upon Persia far greater than is commonly supposed, and greater than we commonly realize to ourselves. It would no doubt be extravagant to compare it with the influence of French thought upon Russia, but it is analogous to that.

—The latest contribution to the literature of witchcraft and of demoniacal possession comes to us from Munich, Bavaria, in the form of a pamphlet of thirteen pages entitled 'Die Teufelsaustreibung in Wemding. Nach dem Berichte des P. Aurelian für das Volk kritisch beleuchtet von Richard Treufels.' The official report of the exorcist, Father Aurelian, who cast the devil out of a boy ten years of age in the church of the Capuchin cloister at Wemding, July 13 and 14, 1891, is printed in full and reads like a chapter from the 'Malleus Maleficarum,' or some mediæval dissertation on demonology. In his introduction, Herr Treufels asserts that no true Christian, whether Catholic or Protestant, and no devout Jew can question for a moment the reality of demoniacal possession. It is a belief which is based upon the universal assent of mankind, as embodied in the traditions of all nations of ancient and modern times, and confirmed by the unequivocal testimony of the Old and New Testaments and by the teaching and practice of the Catholic Church. He also gives the "signs of possession" and the methods of healing it (exorcisms, sacraments, holy water, etc.) as prescribed by ecclesiastical rituals. On this point Father Aurelian expresses himself still more strongly: "Whoever presumes to deny possession confesses thereby that he has gone astray from the doctrine of the Catholic Church; but he will believe in possession when he himself is in the possession of the devil in hell. As for me, I have the authority of two bishops," namely, the Rt. Rev. Pancratius of Augsburg and Leopold of Eichstadt. An interesting volume bearing in part upon the same subject is Adolf Harnack's 'Medicinisches aus der ältesten Kirchengeschichte' (Leipzig: Hinrich). The work is divided into six chapters, which treat of the earliest Christian physicians, the views held by Christians of the first three centuries concerning dietetics, therapeutics, physiology, psychology, diseases, exorcisms, and, in general, of the Gospel of the Saviour as a gospel of healing. Christ conceived of himself as a physician sent to them that are sick, and both he and his disciples, in proclaiming their mission to mankind, are fond of using imagery drawn from the healing art. The same tendency is observable in the writings of the fathers. The book begins with an account of "Luke, the beloved physician," who, besides being the author of the third Gospel, has also ascribed to him by tradition the Acts of the Apostles and portions of the Epistle to the Hebrews—this last upon the strength of certain anatomical, dietetic, and therapeutic allusions (Heb. iv. 12; v. 12-14; xii. 12), which do not, however, imply any special knowledge, and might have been written by any person of ordinary intelligence.

RAMSAY'S LANCASTER AND YORK.

Lancaster and York: A Century of English History (A.D. 1399-1485). By Sir James H. Ramsay of Bamff, Bart., M.A., barrister-at-law; late student of Christ Church. With maps and illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THERE have hitherto been some strange gaps in English historiography. We have had no good special history of the period of Lancaster and York, of that of the early Tudors, or of that of Anne. Sir James Ramsay has undertaken to give us a history of the period of Lancaster and York, and he seems to have done his work well. The materials are not copious or of the best kind. In parts there is little more to be made out of them by fair means than a dry skeleton, but we are thankful to a writer who does not try to embellish his story by squeezing out of the materials more than they really have in them. Surfeited with the imaginary and sensational, we rejoice in a change to the sober and conscientious. We can even dispense with what is called philosophy, so long as we are assured that the facts are given correctly and in their true connection. A historian whose facts are untrustworthy was the other day defended by an admirer as giving what was better than fact, "the spirit of history." We have had too much of the spirit of history in this sense. Sir James Ramsay is singularly abstemious in the use of the paint-box. Once we thought we had caught him in resorting to it. It was where, on the eve of Agincourt, he speaks of Henry as "gaining a view of the *dark* squadrons of the French slowly wending their way upwards along a hollow." But on reference to the authority (the 'Gesta') we find *tetros cuneos Gallicorum*; and though *tetros* for "dark" would be a mediæval barbarism, the interpretation is probably right.

The York and Lancaster period falls into two parts, the first part comprising the last portion of the hundred-years' war between England and France, the second the wars of the Roses. The wars of the Roses, with all their havoc—material, moral, social, and political—were the natural sequel of the hundred-years' war. The restless, turbulent, bloodthirsty, and rapacious temper formed in raiding over France showed itself, when there was no longer an outlet for it abroad, in civil broil at home; and from "spanning for French crowns" the nobles took to "spanning" for each other's estates and heads. Here was another verification of the Greek poet's saying, that Ate has a numerous progeny of children like their parent. We may extend the observation still further if we remember that the idea of a dominion embracing at once English and French territory was a legacy of the Norman conquest. The feelings of the English and French nations towards each other have hardly to this hour got clear of the hatred contracted during a century of murderous struggle brought on by chimerical ambition. If Joan of Arc is canonized, as has been proposed, the canonization will be a fresh outletting of the waters of bitterness from the historical Marah. The imperfect unification of the British Islands which is at this moment showing itself, not only in the Irish demand for home rule, but in the recrudescence of Scotch and Welsh separatism, is the fruit of the diversion to fields beyond the sea of the energies which ought to have been steadily devoted to the consolidation of the island realm. The only redeeming features of the senseless and barren struggle were an advance of courtesy and humanity in war among the nobles of the two countries, the benefit of which, however, did not extend to the common people; and the successes of the English archers, which, as the archers were a plebeian infantry, helped with the invention of cannon to subvert military aristocracy.

It is due to Edward III., with whom this train of woes began, to say that in his case the French King had been unquestionably the aggressor, and that Edward's assumption of the title of "King of France" was not so much an act of extravagant ambition as a measure of war. But no such excuse can be made for Henry V. His intervention in France was invited by the Burgundian faction, it is true; but this, while it tempted, did not justify or palliate his ambition. He seems to have had an intense belief in his right to the French crown, and to have been confirmed in that belief and stimulated to act upon it by the ecclesiastics. He said on his death-bed that as his cause was righteous, the guilt of bloodshed could not lie at his door—"of that, he had been assured by sage and holy men before ever he drew the sword." The commons, as Sir James Ramsay shows, were by no means eager for the war, while prelates spoke heartily in its favor. Shakspere has embalmed the tradition which puts into the mouth of Archbishop Chicheley a speech advocating the invasion of France as a mode of diverting the minds of the King and people from religious change and the secularization of Church property. It has been proved that this speech could not really have been delivered; yet Sir James Ramsay may be right in surmising that the fiction had its origin in a fact. Religious change and the secularization of Church property were in the air. Archbishop Chicheley, when he founded a college at Oxford, dedicated it specially to the performance of masses for the souls of those who had fallen at Agincourt, which seems to show that he felt some personal responsibility for that carnage. If this view of the case is well founded, we have another illustration of the tendency of Church establishments; for Archbishop Chicheley and his colleagues would hardly have instigated an invasion of France merely for the purpose of putting an end to a doctrinal controversy in England, had not the ascendency of the impugned doctrines been essential to the retention by the clergy of enormous wealth and power.

Freeman used to say that he never could tell whether Henry IV. was the best or the worst of kings. Sir James Ramsay seems to feel no doubt that Henry had Richard II. murdered in prison; not, however, out of cruelty but out of policy, to put an end to the conspiracies in Richard's favor, while conscience, in those days of religious formalism, might be technically salved by starving the victim to death, which, it seems, was done, instead of shedding

his blood. Henry's political alliance with the reactionary clergy, which bore fruit in the statute *De heretico comburendo*, and the burning of Lollards are also to be scored against him, though by way of compensation he gave a startling and stunning blow to clerical privilege by beheading Archbishop Scrope for treason. On the other hand, his reign was constitutional, and the credit seems partly due to his own temper, though the novelty of his dynasty, the doubtfulness of his title from the legitimists' point of view, and the restiveness of the great nobles, who regarded him with jealousy as one of themselves raised above their heads, made the support of the commons indispensable. Sir James Ramsay paints him as painstaking and industrious, merciful, temperate, and domestic, and sets down his character and talents as those of a good official, giving him credit for bequeathing to his son a strongly-founded throne, and for having effected this by parliamentary tact and regard to constitutional principles. The words, "uneasy lies the head that wears a crown," and the speech of which they form a part, could not have been put into more appropriate lips. If a life of incessant trouble, care, danger, and strife could atone for crime, the soul of Henry IV. was absolved for the murder of Richard II.

The scene in Shakspere where Prince Henry steals the crown is proved to be impossible by the circumstances of the King's death. But the Shaksperian version of Henry V.'s youth, banished to fiction by Mr. Endell Tyler, is restored to history by Sir James Ramsay. It seems that all the sons of Henry IV. were wild, and that they even played practical jokes much resembling the escapade at Gadshill. Prince Henry did quarrel with his father, and even sought to force him to abdicate. He also was at enmity with Judge Gascoigne. On his accession his character changed, and he became a great man of action. As a king, though stern and inexorable, he was righteous. His rule in France was admitted by the French to be good; his camp was a model of discipline; and he strictly restrained excesses in war. His ambition, however, was the ruin of his dynasty. His conquests tired the heart of the nation; their inevitable loss filled it with rage and shame; and Sir James Ramsay is warranted in saying that the fall of Henry VI. was the Nemesis of Agincourt.

Sir James Ramsay seems to think that in the wars of the Roses the House of Lancaster represented the more constitutional, that of York the stronger and more arbitrary, form of government. We can hardly see on what this judgment is founded. The government of the first Lancastrian king could not be arbitrary, because the dynasty had not taken root. But it was firmly rooted at the accession of his grandson, as its tenacity through the storms which followed proved. So far as we can see, in the mist of a very imperfectly recorded period, the rule of the camarilla which governed in the name of the imbecile Henry VI., though weak, was not constitutional. It certainly was irresponsible. Margaret of Anjou was not likely to have brought constitutional principles from her home. Her letters, which have been preserved, seem to betray a tendency to favoritism and a habit of interference with public justice. Her conduct in the war was wolfish. Gloucester died a captive in the hands of Margaret and Suffolk and at the moment when they had reason to fear his denunciation of the secret session of Maire. That he died of chagrin is surely a very charitable hypothesis. London and the other cities, which would generally be favorable to popular government, seem to have been on the Yorkist side, though this may have been partly due to the folly of Margaret in bringing down upon southern England a marauding body of Scotch auxiliaries whose fatal aid she had purchased by the cession of Berwick. The monarchy of Edward IV., founded in successful war and on the ruin of the baronage, then almost the sole trustee of political liberty, could not fail to be arbitrary apart from any political traditions of his house. The humiliations, distractions, and weaknesses of the camarilla Government were sufficient to account for its fall and for the confusion which ensued. But the contest soon assumed the character of a murderous blood-feud between two groups of families, in which all principles of action, except mutual hatred or personal ambition and rapacity, seem to have been lost. The greatest politician on the stage was Warwick, in whose tortuous and unscrupulous career we can trace no public aim.

Sir James Ramsay has not overlooked, but he does not seem to have quite sufficiently marked, the critical change made in the situation by the birth of Prince Edward. It does not appear that York's ambition was very daring, unmeasured, or precipitate. He would probably have been satisfied with the Regency, or, supposing the King legally capable of government, with a fair share of power and an assurance of the succession. But the birth of a son to the King and Margaret shut the door of compromise, and compelled York either to claim the crown or to retire into a private station, in which, after what had been done, he would hardly have been safe under Margaret of Anjou. A similar change in a political situation was wrought by the birth of a son to James II., which, by shutting out the prospect of deliverance at the tyrant's death, compelled the national leaders to strike without delay. In both cases the child was declared by the adverse party suppositious. We know that in the case of James's son the suspicion, though not unnatural, was unfounded. But Prince Edward was born after eight years of barren wedlock, when the King was not only imbecile in mind, but so weak in body that he could not rise from his chair without assistance. Margaret fought for the boy's right with a fierce and indomitable energy which might seem to show that he was her own child. But she had hatred and ambition, both most intense, to stimulate her, apart from maternal love.

A similar remark may be made with regard to the murder of the Princes in the Tower by Richard III. Sir James Ramsay, we venture to think, hardly appreciates the effect of this incident. Public horror does not seem to have been excited by Richard's usurpation, if indeed the doctrine of legitimacy was so well established that a King who had been recognized by Parliament and crowned by the Church would be generally deemed a usurper. The people had become inured to violent changes of dynasty, and they had the strongest reasons for preferring the rule of an able adult like Richard to that of a boy under whose name another camarilla would have borne sway. They had also become familiar with all ordinary butchery, and would have taken the execution by Richard of Hastings and other political enemies almost as a matter of course. When Richard was at Oxford on his royal progress, Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, a prelate of the highest character, came from Winchester expressly to meet and entertain the King at Magdalen College, of which the Bishop was the founder. But the murder of the two young princes by their uncle seems to have touched the hearts of the common people, and called forth against Richard that general execration which made him morally weak while in numbers he was strong, and unnerved the arms of his soldiers on the decisive field. As to the fact of the murder, Sir James Ramsay has no doubt, nor can any doubt be reasonably felt. Whose were the two skeletons, corresponding to the ages of the two boys, which were found under the staircase leading up to the chapel in the White Tower in 1674?

The materials for the financial part of the history are more complete and trustworthy than for the rest. Sir James Ramsay has made good use of them. The bearing of the finance on the general history is never to be left out of sight. It is an important fact that the old feudal and landed revenues of the Crown in the time of Henry IV. probably did not amount to 25,000 pounds, so that the Royal Government could not be carried on without the aid of the commons, which was doled out reluctantly and sparingly—often, indeed, in wholly inadequate measure; the popular notion being that the King ought to live "of his own."

The portraits are very interesting. The features of Henry IV. are solid and heavy, such as that of a "good official," to repeat Sir James Ramsay's term, might be. His face is that of a sort of English Vespasian. We could hardly discern the force of the conqueror in the face of Henry V., but it bespeaks sternness. On the face of Henry VI. disaster is clearly written. His face in boyhood is weak, in manhood plainly imbecile. Edward IV. had a great reputation for beauty, which his portrait hardly bears out, while it does bear out his reputation for sensuality. He was evidently a great soldier. Of the comparative humanity which Sir James Ramsay ascribes to him we do not clearly see the proof. He butchered the leaders of the other party without mercy, and if he spared the commons, it must be remembered that butchering the common people in England was not so safe a practice as in France. In the face of Richard III. there is nothing villanous, though the look is gloomy as well as careworn. He founded religious institutions, he encouraged letters by permitting the free importation of books, and the legislative record of his short reign is good. The age, in England as well as in Italy, was a moral and religious interregnum in which a politician might be unscrupulous even to the extent of committing murder without being naturally a superlative villain.

It is derogatory to the Clarendon Press that these important volumes should have been allowed to be published without an index.

WHYMPER AMONG THE ANDES.

Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. By Edward Whymper. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. xxiv, 456. Maps and illustrations.

Supplementary Appendix to the Same. By Edward Whymper, with Contributions by H. W. Bates, F.R.S., T. G. Bonney, D.Sc., F.R.S., F. D. Godman, F.R.S., and Others. London: John Murray. 1891. Pp. xxii, 147.

IN these days of hasty book-making, the deliberateness of an author who delays twelve years after the collection of his data before giving the results of his labors to the world, cannot but challenge admiration. Mr. Whymper visited Ecuador during the years 1879-'80, and there performed a work which will link

his name as inseparably with the plateaus and mountains of that remarkable country as those of La Condamine and Humboldt before him. This may seem exaggeration to those who know Mr. Whymper only as the author of that light and sketchy narrative, 'Scrambles amongst the Alps'; but in twenty years a great change has come over him. The mere clambering of a dangerous peak for the empty honor of bringing away "the giant's head in a bag," is no longer the incentive to his excursions. An earnest scientific purpose has replaced the boyish enthusiasm of earlier years. He is as indefatigable as ever in climbing mountains, he revels in lofty heights, and courts the perilous *arête* and treacherous glacier; but he now seeks by the most painstaking efforts to establish elevations with absolute accuracy, to determine the effects of high altitudes upon the human system, and to ascertain the characteristics and utmost limits of the flora and fauna of these regions.

He attempted the ascent of eleven of the loftiest Ecuadorian peaks, and attained the summit of nine, among the latter being Chimborazo, Cotopaxi, Antisana, and Cayambe. Chimborazo had previously been considered inaccessible, the failures of Humboldt and Boussingault to accomplish the ascent being well known. It must be remembered, however, that these earlier explorers were inadequately equipped for such a task; neither were they as experienced in this special kind of work. Mr. Whymper, on the other hand, is an adept, and went prepared for every difficulty that might arise. His careful details of his outfit, and his accurate descriptions of his methods of work at high altitudes, will serve as an admirable guide to others who may be tempted to pursue similar investigations in future; and the rich and unexpected field for the student of natural history which Mr. Whymper has discovered will surely stimulate many an expedition into the snowy Andes. Previous travellers have given little attention to the insect life of elevated regions, and the specimens which have been observed have usually been regarded as stragglers from lower levels. Mr. Whymper brought home 160 species collected between the altitudes of 8,000 and 16,660 feet above the sea; of which 60 per cent. were new to science. In addition to these, which were all of considerable size, he rejected a still larger number of small insects on account of the difficulty of inducing specialists to undertake their identification. Coleoptera were the most abundant, existing under stones and in loose detritus, but eight other orders were represented, and butterflies (*Colias alticola*), and several species of moths were taken as high as 16,000 feet. Two species of crustaceans were also found as high as 13,300 feet, and yet, with all this, Mr. Whymper announces that his time was so occupied in following out the other objects of his journey that he could make only the most cursory search for examples of the Andean fauna.

The Appendix is almost wholly devoted to the classification and description of the specimens, of which the Coleoptera are described by H. W. Bates, David Sharp, Henry S. Gorham, A. Sidney Olliff, and Martin Jacoby; the Hymenoptera by Peter Cameron; the Lepidoptera by F. Ducane Godman and Osbert Salvin; the Rhynchota by W. L. Distant; the Crustacea by E. J. Miers, A. E. Eaton, and T. R. R. Stebbing; and the Reptilia and Batrachia by G. A. Boulenger. Prof. T. G. Bonney adds a note on the rocks from the Andes brought home by Mr. Whymper, from which it appears that the geology of this portion of the Andean range is very simple, consisting entirely of andesite, except in the case of the mountain known as Sara-Urcu, which is composed of metamorphic rocks. Still more remarkable is the fact that this widely distributed andesite is highly basic, in many cases being almost quartzless, in which respect the Ecuadorian rocks are markedly different from those to the southward in Peru, where acid rocks, if not predominating, are at least as abundant as basic species.

Mr. Whymper is inclined to be somewhat severe upon former travellers, and in several instances his arraignment of them is not made in a spirit of charity. On the other hand, one can but share his astonishment that so excellent an observer as Humboldt should have asserted the non-existence of glaciers in Ecuador, especially when he had partially ascended Chimborazo, which Whymper saw "crowned by glacier and streaming with glaciers." In fact, there were very few peaks on which Whymper did not find them; and the positions in which they were found are highly instructive, as showing how many conditions besides mere elevation above the sea affect the glacial limit and snow line. Whymper is for discarding the term "snow line" altogether, as being indefinable and meaningless; and with good reason, when the limit of permanent snow on the equator varies from 14,000 feet to 16,700 feet. It is noticeable that the limits of snow and of glacier are uniformly lower on the eastern than on the western peaks of the Ecuadorian Andes; and in the case of Sara-Urcu, the most easterly of all, which Mr. Whymper practically discovered, the glacier descends as low as 14,000 feet. This mountain is almost perpetually concealed by immense cloud banks, formed by condensation from the moisture-laden airs which blow continuously from east to west across the basin of the Amazon. It may be that this condensation is so excessive when these airs first sweep up the Andean slopes into higher altitudes, that the precipitation of snow is more rapid than its melting—thus producing glaciers extending to the singularly low elevation observed on Sara-Urcu; and furthermore, the Amazonian aircurrent, being robbed of so much of its moisture, would need to rise to considerably higher elevations before the vapor tension would be sufficiently reduced to cause further precipitation, which would account for the greater heights of the snow limit on the western peaks.

The elevations determined by Mr. Whymper are unquestionably the most accurate ever made in Ecuador, unless we except those made by the famous Academicians over a somewhat more restricted area. As evidence of the remarkable accuracy of the work done by this body of scientists 150 years ago, the altitude assigned for Chimborazo, which they calculated trigonometrically from a base line whose elevation had been established by mercurial barometer, was 20,592 feet; and now from Whymper's careful barometrical measurements the elevation is found to be 20,498 feet. Whymper's measurements were made by two mercurial barometers, carefully corrected at the Kew Observatory, in addition to which semi-diurnal readings of the barometer and thermometer were made at Guayaquil throughout his stay in Ecuador, thus enabling the most accurate calculations to be made. He also carried with him a number of aneroids, which were read daily at various elevations, and served to show how utterly unreliable these instruments are. He was able, however, to ascertain that some sort of regularity obtained in the error of each instrument, so that by long acquaintance with any particular aneroid some approximation to accuracy may be arrived at. One thing clearly shown is, that the air-pump test really indicates nothing as to the instrument's probable behavior under long-continued use at high altitudes. His examination into the question of boiling-point determination of elevation adds fresh confirmation to every careful experimenter's belief in its unreliability. The tables of air-temperature and body temperature in the high lands of Ecuador give further value to Mr. Whymper's work.

One object of his journey, of which he makes much, is the ability of the human system to accustom itself to the low pressures prevailing at high altitudes, but we do not feel that he has given us conclusive evidence regarding it. We know that he and his assistants were seized with mountain sickness at 16,664 feet, and in a few hours had recovered and were not again attacked, although they ascended to 20,498 feet, passed one night at 19,500 feet, six nights at 17,285 feet, and ten nights at 16,664 feet. While much has been claimed, we are not certain that any one has ever remained so long at the most excessive of these elevations; but many men have lived for weeks at elevations of 17,000 feet, and have exacted hard labor from workmen at that height. We know that there are mines in South America at an elevation of nearly 16,000 feet, and the Galera Tunnel on the Lima and Oroya Railroad, which is 4,000 feet long, is 15,645 feet above the sea, while the Galera Pass, which has been used for centuries, is 17,574 feet. The ability of men to work at such elevations is then clearly proved. The effect of low pressures upon the human system varies with the individual, and is as defiant of rules as the "snow line."

While the serious intent of the book is continually apparent, there is much sketchy narrative, which makes it a most interesting record of travel, and reveals incidentally the lives and customs of the people of these Andean valleys. It is pleasing to note Mr. Whymper's observation of the thirst for information among the common classes, which so many travellers have remarked as characteristic of the half-castes of other portions of the Andean region. Mr. Whymper's style is simple, direct, free from straining after startling effects; and in this very simplicity of diction there is often a majesty which is in perfect keeping with the sublimity of the scenes portrayed. Typographically the book is very handsome, and the illustrations are abundant and well executed. There is an ample index, an inset facsimile of Maldonado's Map of Ecuador, with a large route map, corrected by Whymper's own triangulations, folded into a pocket-cover.

ENGLISH WATER-COLOR PAINTING.

A History of Water-Color Painting in England. By Gilbert R. Redgrave. [Illustrated Handbooks of Art, edited by E. J. Poynter, R.A.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. REDGRAVE has given us in a condensed form all that is historically known about water-color painting from the earliest times to our own day, with a complete biographical dictionary of the painters who practised this art and a history of the formation of the water-color societies. The space in which all this information has to be given is too limited for a subject so full of interest and which takes so prominent a place in the history of British art. Considering the many men of

distinct genius who have practised the art in a great variety of methods, we should have been glad to hear more concerning these methods, as well as further details of their lives, with statements of their relative importance and their influence on the painters around them. To Turner a whole chapter has been very properly devoted, but such names as Blake, Stothard, Rossetti, Frederick Walker receive but inadequate notice, a few lines being devoted to each.

Mr. Redgrave does not believe that the evolution of English water-color painting can be traced to the miniature-painters of the Elizabethan Age through the Dutch school of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Adrian Ostade and his contemporaries and followers. He thinks it much more likely that they developed from the artisans who tinted maps, woodcuts, and engravings in the sixteenth century. This work was called "washing," and was done in transparent color. An authority of 1598, Master Richard Haydocke, who wrote 'A Tracte Containing the Artes of Curious Paintinge, Carvinge, and Buildinge,' says: "Of Distemper I note three kinds: In Sise used by our common painters upon cloath, walles, &c, In Washing with gummed colors, but tempered very thinne and bodilesse, used in mappes, printed stories, &c., And in Limming, where the colors are likewise mixed with gummes, but laied with a thick body and substance wherein much arte and neatnesse is required." Of these three methods the first remains the same to the present day, the common distemper-painting of the journeyman workman. From the second, "washing," was slowly developed, through the antiquarian drawings of topographers, the water-color painting of our own day; while the third, called by Haydocke "limming," is the tempera painting which the Egyptians practised so skilfully four thousand years ago, and the Etruscans and Romans also used for mural decorations. It was not until the brothers Van Eyck taught the use of oil as a vehicle for binding colors together that any other method of painting existed in Europe. Vasari relates how rapidly in his time oil-painting was taking the place of fresco and tempera in Italy. In tempera painting, white is largely mixed with the pigments to prevent the transmission of light from the ground, while, on the contrary, the ground should show through transparent washes in water-color painting as practised by the early painters in that medium. Raphael's cartoons at South Kensington Museum are examples of tempera painting on paper, while Mantegna's "Triumph of Julius Cæsar" at Hampton Court is painted on canvas in tempera also. The old illuminators of Church books, of which we have exquisite specimens of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, worked in tempera; so did the miniature-painters of the Tudor and Stuart times. These portraitists painted with white or body color, and used gold profusely in the ornamentation of their dresses and accessories; it was not till later on that large masses of transparent color were used for draperies, etc. Other changes in the method of miniature-painting took place in the seventeenth century.

It seems evident that the use of water colors was known on the Continent before Charles I.'s time. There is mention "of a limned picture . . . of the Emperor Rodolphus II. painted upon parchment being transparent, to be seen on both sides holding against the sky," the work of Frossley, imperial court limner during Rudolph's reign, 1576-1612. There is a fine collection of water colors by early Dutch masters at the British Museum, beginning in the middle of the seventeenth century. These Mr. Redgrave has studied carefully, and gives us some account of their methods. Adrian Ostade (1610-1685) is the best known. He used a ground of a gray tint, carefully drawing the outline of his landscape with a reed pen, and filling in the shadows with brown and gray—preserving the same chiaroscuro as in Dutch etchings. These studies of Ostade have much the appearance of monochromes which have been tinted subsequently. Fyt, Dusart, and Backhuysen are among the most successful artists in this style; but although after Ostade many changes took place, all artists used a gray ground and did not attempt pure local color on a white ground, which is the manner of the English school. For this reason Mr. Redgrave feels convinced that the English artists derived their practice of water-color art rather from the humble topographer than from the expert painters of the Continent. Dayes, a topographical draughtsman and miniature-painter of the early nineteenth century, published in 1808 a book of 'Instructions for Drawing and Coloring Landscapes' which has the details of the prevailing practice. Dayes, being a contemporary of Sandby and Cozens, would know their method, and therefore the water-color art of to-day must have been based on these precepts. Mr. Redgrave says:

"He describes very minutely the mode of laying on the colors in the different parts of the drawing; the shadows and middle tints, he tells us, should be made with Prussian blue and a brown Indian ink, the sky with 'Prussian blue rather tender,' the shades of the clouds with Prussian blue and Indian ink; and he advises working forward from the distance into the foreground, leaving out the blue in the advance until the foreground is reached, which is to be worked with brown Indian ink only. Finally, the darker parts of the foreground are to be retouched with Vandyke brown. This would seem to accord in every respect with the method pursued by Cozens in his best period, and it was on such a foundation as this that the true water-color art of to-day was based. While we may instance Cozens as a genuine exponent of the older school, we must concede to him also the credit of being one of the first to shake himself free from the traditions of the topographers and to exalt water-color painting to the rank of a fine art."

It is interesting to note the encouragement extended by wealthy patrons to this fresh development of art. William Alexander was chosen to accompany Lord Macartney's embassy to China in 1792; Cozens went to Italy to make sketches for Mr. Beckford. George III. was the patron of Paul Sandby, and the Earl of Warwick travelled through Italy with John Smith, who acquired from this time the distinctive title of Warwick Smith. The demand for book illustrations also contributed greatly to the success of water-color drawings. The publishers were employing many of the members of the Royal Academy at the time of its foundation, and we hear of Cipriani and Angelica Kauffmann as being especially successful at book work. The Royal Academy, founded in 1768, does not seem to have offered any very liberal advantages to water-color painters, for the miniature-room to which their work was consigned was a dingy room on a lower floor of Somerset House, which, besides the water colors, contained such pictures in oil as were not considered worthy of a place on the upper floor.

Among the men who seem to have been most prominent in the early stages of this art was Thomas Girtin, born in 1775. He pushed the practice of water-color painting to greater perfection than any of his predecessors. He studied the grander aspects of mountain scenery and finished his drawings directly from nature, which was an innovation at the time. His example seems to have had great influence on the rising school, although he died at the early age of twenty-seven. It is unfortunate that most of his drawings were burned in a fire at his brother's house, and that, owing to his constant use of indigo, which has been found to be a very fleeting color, many of the examples we possess are in a faded condition. Some unknown friend (and it is suggested that it may have been Turner) raised a monument over his remains in St. Paul's Churchyard. Ruskin, in a letter to Thomas Girtin's grandson, says of this artist: "He is often as impressive to me as Nature herself; nor do I doubt that Turner owed more to his teaching and companionship than to his own genius in the first years of his life." The art of Turner covers the whole epoch of the development of water-color art, his early studies being of the accurate, topographical style, showing little of the genius and originality of his later productions. From the time of his election as an Associate of the Royal Academy he gave up literal imitation of nature, and allowed his imagination to have full play; it tinged every subject he touched as with a magic brush. Through him water-color art in landscape reached its uttermost expression and perfection, and he discovered all its resources.

It was in 1802 that the water-color painters began to consider that it would be well for them to hold a distinct exhibition of their own, forming themselves into a society. They were some time deliberating this plan, which had been put forward by William F. Wells, fearing the antagonism of the Royal Academy; so that it was not till 1804 that the society was constituted, consisting of ten original members, namely, Hills, Pyne, Shelley, Wells, Nattes, Gilpin, Nicholson, Pocock, and the brothers John and Cornelius Varley. At their first meeting they elected by ballot six members: Barret, Cristall, Glover, Havell, and Rigaud. Shelley was elected treasurer and Hills the secretary. The rules were drawn up with exemplary prudence, the number of members fixed at twenty-four, the officers to be elected annually, and an annual exhibition of original works was determined on. Roget, in his 'History of the Old Water-Color Society,' which Mr. Redgrave has made use of for many important details, tells us that "out of the profits of the exhibition, should there be any after payment of expenses, a sum was to be set apart for the expenses of the following year, and the residue was to be divided among the members in sums proportioned to the value of the drawings sent and retained for exhibition." April 22, 1805, was the date of the first exhibition, in rooms in Lower Brook Street built by Vandergucht; the price of admission, one shilling, included the catalogue. An innovation which attracted attention was the presence of an attendant with price-list of pictures, who put down the names of buyers in a book and took a deposit of ten per cent. on the purchase money. No less than twelve thousand persons visited the exhibition during the six weeks it remained open, and the amount of money taken by the sale of drawings was £2,860. The average price of the drawings was about ten pounds, eleven shillings, according to Roget. The number of pictures exhibited was 275. After all expenses were paid, the members had a surplus of £272 to divide among themselves. The second year they elected associate exhibitors, who were limited to five works each, and they determined to elect two

new members from this class every year, until the full number of twenty-four was attained. The success of these exhibitions continued, the visitors and sale of pictures increasing, till 1812. It is characteristic of the more chivalrous spirit of that time that the one lady exhibitor, Miss Byrne, was exempted from any liability for losses which might arise, while accorded an equal share in the surplus money. The exhibitions increased in interest, as years went on, and frequently, almost yearly, changed their rooms; but after 1812 the public interest visibly declined, and the sales decreased so much that the members became anxious and called a meeting. Glover proposed that in future oil pictures should also be admitted to their exhibitions. This proposal, which nullified the very object of the society, was vigorously opposed by some of the members, who, on its being carried definitely, withdrew. The original scheme of exhibiting water colors alone was reverted to in 1821. Since that time the society, ever increasing in success and prosperity, has been established in Pall Mall East, and in 1882 her Majesty gave permission that it should call itself Royal.

Mr. Redgrave also gives us a full account of the origin and growth of the Institute, still another pure body of water-color painters; and he devotes a chapter to the materials used by those who practise this art and to the recent experiments testing the stability of water colors, with the conclusions arrived at by the Committee of Experts. After the endless and excited discussions of a few years ago between the chief authorities on the subject, it will be reassuring to those who paint and those who buy water colors to learn that, after the severe tests the colors were put to, they are fully as permanent as, and less exposed to risks of change than, oil colors. The book is full of interesting facts too briefly told to make it very readable, but for reference it will be found most valuable. The illustrations are from the splendid collections of South Kensington and the British Museum.

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[*Continued from page iii.*]

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[*Continued on page v.*]

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 4, 1892.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON is entitled to credit for his veto of the McGarrahan Claim Bill. His reasons for the veto are well stated and are ample for all the purposes of justice. The McGarrahan claim itself might be quite meritorious without in any way justifying this bill, which proposes to put upon the United States all the cost of settling a disputed land-title between private parties. It looks as though McGarrahan had bought off the opposition of the New Idria Company by agreeing not to contest their claims or to ask a cent of money from them, but to take it all out of his uncle, or his adopted uncle, Sam. As to the merits of the claim, the public at large cannot possibly form a judgment, owing to the mere length of time during which it has been pressed. McGarrahan's pretended patent goes back to the year 1863. Any one who retraces the scandalous history of his appeal from the courts to Congress in 1869, will conclude that the President had no occasion to give any reasons for checkmating a fraudulent raid upon the Treasury. The claim was vigorously opposed by Gen. Garfield in the House, and it was one of the causes of Gen. Cox's resignation in 1870 that President Grant was induced by McGarrahan at Long Branch to overrule the Secretary of the Interior's decision to pass upon the claim of the New Idria Company.

Senator Carlisle's answer to Mr. Aldrich has stirred up the Republican brethren mightily, and they are not so content as they professed themselves to let the Rhode Island Senator's speech go out as the "keynote of the campaign." In fact, they now find that keynote to be decidedly off the proper pitch, and are trying in various ways to sound it so that it will be free from suspicious quavers and crackings. Senator Sherman reverted to the ancient melody in praise of dear goods, and said that Mr. Carlisle's demonstration that the McKinley Bill had increased the cost of living had no terrors for him, inasmuch as he was far from sure that cheapness was desirable. On Monday our own Senator tried his mouth at the keynote, and took the position that, since a large part of the increase of the cost in living was due to enhanced prices for agricultural products, the McKinley Bill could not be held chargeable for that advance, because "the prices of agricultural products are not really affected by the tariff legislation of 1890." This is rather hard on Senator Aldrich, "Uncle Jerry," and the *Tribune*, and their assertions that McKinley had put millions of dollars into the pockets of the farmers. It is hardest of all on the New York Senator, who, two years ago, developed such a consuming interest in the farming population, and so emphatically said that the McKinley Bill was solely for their benefit, that he was at once dubbed "Farmer Hiscock." Altogether, the Republican choir is producing a fearful discord in its efforts to strike a keynote.

The speech of Senator White of Louisiana on the Anti-Option Bill is masterly, and defies synopsis or condensation. One branch of it deserves more notice than it received in the telegraphic summary. It was that which shows how the Minneapolis millers are interested in preventing option sales, since these have the effect to sustain the price of wheat immediately after harvest, when a great deal comes on the market, and when, if there were no option trading, the price would inevitably be forced down and the millers be enabled to get what they want on their own terms. The witness chosen by Senator White to prove his case was Mr. Pillsbury, the leading miller of Minneapolis. Mr. Pillsbury's testimony was given before the House Committee on Agriculture. He was asked what was the usual course of the market before option trading was introduced, and he replied that the millers generally accumulated their stocks while the farmers were selling their surplus rapidly. "The almost universal rule," he said, "used to be that you could buy the wheat cheaper at that time than at any other time." Again he said: "There was a time when the millers could always run on a profit years ago by buying wheat in the fall, say on an average of one dollar per bushel, and we were almost sure to make a good profit by carrying it until the time when the state of the roads, etc., prevented the deliveries being so large. I look on short selling as being the greatest impediment to the profit of the milling business in that way." Of course short selling and long buying go together, and the two things tend to equalize prices throughout the year—*i. e.*, to minimize the fluctuations, so that the farmer can get what his wheat is fairly worth at one time as easily as at another, regardless of the state of the roads. When Senator White quoted this testimony of Mr. Pillsbury, he took pains to say that he acquitted Senator Washburn of any other than a public interest in this question. Indeed, the Louisiana Senator was so profuse in personal disclaimers as to leave the impression that he considered Mr. Washburn the only perfectly disinterested miller in the country.

The result of the Alabama election on Monday is no surprise to those who have watched the progress of the campaign, for the success of the regular Democratic ticket has seemed assured all along. The Alliance movement in that State has been a noisy one, but it has proved only another case of "great cry and little wool." The overwhelming majority of the whites have voted the regular ticket, as was to have been expected, and this ticket appears to have received quite as many negro votes as the other one. This is not strange, for the Alliance side had nothing more to offer the blacks than the regulars. Northern Republicans cannot criticise the course of the negroes, for they consider the Alliance party so ridiculous that intelligent men ought not to support it, and they cannot afford to claim that the negroes are so ignorant that they should have been expected to support it. After this Alabama election we shall probably hear no more of the claim that the Alliance will carry any Southern State next November.

Secretary Foster's performance in appointing to the position of Immigrant Inspector at Baltimore an alien, who was brought to this country from Wales recently as a tin-plate worker in order to help in establishing the American tin-plate industry, is a thoroughly characteristic performance. It is similar to his selection of Schulteis as Special Immigration Commissioner. He made both appointments at the solicitation of men whom he supposed to be genuine representatives of Labor, but in both instances he discovered subsequently that he had been imposed upon. There is something delightful in the idea of pleasing American workingmen by giving a public office to a Welsh tin-plate worker who has not been in this country long enough to become a citizen, and who has been brought here to assist in establishing an industry which American workingmen are taxed to bring into existence.

It is gratifying to know that one class of intending swindlers under the McKinley tariff have not been able to carry out their intentions. We refer to the would-be makers of cotton hosiery who prevailed upon McKinley to raise the duty on those goods from a plain 40 per cent. ad valorem to a mixed ad-valorem and specific rate equal to 55 or 60 per cent. They made extensive preparations to levy their private tax on the consumers at the new rate, but the German manufacturers hit upon the plan of sending their goods uncolored, the profit on the dyeing and finishing being left to people on this side of the water. "The injury inflicted upon the domestic maker by this move," says the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, "was deep, and it has given them a grievance which they are not likely to forget." We should say that it was a case where one set out to gather wool and came back shorn, and as it was not his own wool that he was trying

to bag, he is not likely to find much sympathy; certainly not enough to get another advance in the tariff, which the *Reporter* suggests as the suitable remedy.

Four million dollars in gold was sent out to Europe by Saturday's steamers; an apt commentary on the efforts of certain enthusiasts to "obstruct" the foreign gold movement. It appears that Treasury notes and gold certificates served equally well the purposes of shippers in drawing gold from the Treasury, while the advance in local interest rates, which a group of bankers were to effect by calling in loans, in order to make gold shipments unprofitable, has turned out so amusing a fiasco that to-day loanable money is more plentiful in New York and money rates actually lower than they were when the experiment was begun. There is another striking fact in connection with this shipment. Week before last the foreign bankers drew heavily for exchange on their New York correspondents, and these much-berated exporters actually delayed meeting the drafts, in the hope that they could be "covered," as they were a year ago, in ordinary bills of exchange offered against prospective grain exports. The delay was fruitless, for no bills were to be had, and thus the closest analysis of the market has shown the gold exports to be transactions entirely in the line of legitimate trade. But if any patriot wished to be cheered up under these depressing circumstances, he should read the remarks of that eminent statistician Mr. Funston, in his report for the minority of the House Agricultural Committee. Pointing out that the fiscal year's merchandise exports exceeded the imports by $202,944,342, Mr. Funston concludes, cheerily, that we thus learn "that a large amount of the world's gold has been placed to our credit, if not actually landed on our shores and coined into currency." The McKinley tariff, he therefore infers, "has taken a long step towards a solution of the question of American currency by bringing to our country in one year enough gold to supply every man, woman, and child with $3.25." The only question remaining, after this lucid demonstration, is when the distribution of the European gold will begin.

Those who have believed that the European alarm over our currency situation ceased with the shelving of the Silver Bill will be somewhat disturbed by the recent utterances of the London papers. In the two leading financial weeklies of that city, just received by mail, the silver question is brought to the front in such a manner as to reflect grave uneasiness in the banking community. One of these journals devotes to the silver situation in the United States no less than three editorial articles, which are despondent to the last degree. They were written more than a week after the House of Representatives had buried the Stewart Bill, yet there is not a single allusion to that incident. This is of itself significant. Foreigners weighed very justly the chances of enactment of that measure. Its passage in the Senate was greeted neither by a fall in the London security market nor by a rise in the London silver market. It is, in short, not alone the possibility of American free silver coinage from which foreign observers read disaster, but the actual state of affairs as it now exists. Free coinage would make the situation worse, in the view of these critics; but with or without such a measure the outlook is very grave.

The Republican Convention in the Portland (Me.) district, which renominated ex-Speaker Reed the other day, adopted a platform which "points with pride" to the McKinley Law, and felicitates the country upon the fact that, under the operation of that law, "our imports, which Democratic orators said would shrivel, have increased to a point never before reached." This is a most extraordinary deliverance. It was *Republican* orators who said that under the McKinley Law imports would shrivel, and who declared that it would be the best thing possible for the country to have them shrivel. It was Mr. Aldrich, the manager of the bill in the Senate, who said:

> "I am in hopes that the general effect of this bill will be to decrease relatively the importations. I am in hopes that the ultimate result will be to reduce the relative importation of those goods and increase our own manufactures."

It was Mr. McKinley himself who said:

> "The chief complaint against this bill comes from importers and consignees here, on the one hand, and the foreign merchants and consignors abroad. Why do they complain? Manifestly because in some way this bill will check their business here, and increase the business of our own manufacturers and producers; it will diminish the importation of competing foreign goods and increase the consumption of our home-made goods. This may be a good reason to influence the foreigner to oppose its passage, but is hardly a sound reason why Americans should oppose it."

It is not yet two years since the law was passed, and yet Republicans now claim credit for it, not on the ground that it has diminished the importation of foreign goods, but that it has promoted such importation; and they even go so far as to "arraign" the Democrats for having predicted that it would restrict the entry of foreign-made goods, when it was their own orators who made the prophecies, and who congratulated the people upon this assured effect of its enactment.

There are conflicting reports as to the latest phase of the efforts which have been in progress so long to "placate Platt." Some accounts say emphatically that he is now certain to "get what he wants," and others say that there has been no change in the situation, and that he is still waiting to hear from the President. Of course these are only unauthorized statements as to the exact nature of the thing that Platt wants, but the best expert opinion inclines to the belief that it is not so much offices for others as an office for Platt himself. The following passage in one of Monday's Washington accounts of the situation gives a pretty plain hint as to the nature of the office which Platt has demanded: "A very serious report came from a Republican yesterday, who, in the last week or so, has conferred with the President. It was to the effect that certain changes in the Cabinet will be made in the event of Harrison's reëlection, if not before election." Platt has made no secret of the fact that he was given to understand by Harrison's representatives in the last campaign that he should have the Secretaryship of the Treasury, and that he regards the President's failure to offer it to him as an unpardonable breach of faith. He would probably not be content with a simple promise again, but would insist upon something more trustworthy. Of course a reorganization of the Cabinet which should put Platt into it before election would be much more acceptable to him than a promise.

The decision of the Michigan Supreme Court declaring unconstitutional the Redistricting Act for Senatorial and Representative districts, on the ground that it was an outrageous gerrymander, is to be heartily welcomed. There is nothing partisan about the attitude of the court, for at the same time that it thus overthrows an act of the last Democratic Legislature, it annuls for the same cause the gerrymandering act passed by a Republican Legislature in 1885. By the way, the Philadelphia *Press*, which has been asking for evidence that Republicans have been serious offenders in the matter of gerrymandering, may find what it sought in this decision.

Some temporary inconvenience has been occasioned in holding the elections both in Michigan and in Wisconsin on account of the decisions of the courts of those States that their recent division into electoral districts was so inequitable as to be unconstitutional. A special session of the Legislature of Michigan has been called for the purpose of correcting the apportionment, and the same course will be adopted, probably, in Wisconsin. This has been thought expedient, as it was not improbable that the Republicans might gain some party advantage by having the elections conducted according to the preëxisting divisions, which, if unequal in population, might be held to have become so by natural growth and not as the result of gerrymandering. While it is true that good government may be obtained through representatives having constituencies of very unequal size, yet it is in accordance with the spirit

of our democratic age that the population of the representative districts should be substantially equal, and it is a wholesome thing for the courts to warn the party leaders that they are not to disregard this requirement. It is pretty safe to say that the courts will not hold an apportionment unconstitutional except upon very good grounds, and the decisions in Michigan and Wisconsin ought not to be without effect upon the whole country. If the Democrats lose in these States by these decisions, they have only themselves to blame, and must learn to be content with what they are fairly entitled to. It is frequently the case that an attempt by a party majority in a legislature to gain seats by marking out districts inequitably causes such general disgust among voters as to reverse the relative strength of parties, and it is rather strange that party leaders are unable to see that in redistricting, as in other things, honesty is the best policy.

The Massachusetts Corrupt Practices Act, which was passed by the recent Legislature of that State, went into effect on August 1. As we pointed out at the time of its introduction, it is a stringent measure in some directions, but seems to have loopholes which will prevent its complete success in practice. It requires strict accountability and sworn publication, by candidates, committees, and organizations, of all moneys received and disbursed, except that candidates may omit personal expenses from their returns. The most serious defect in the law is that, while forbidding the solicitation of contributions from candidates, it stipulates that any candidate "may make a voluntary payment of money or a voluntary and unconditional promise of payment of money to a political committee for the promotion of the principles of the party which the Committee represents, and for the general purposes of the Committee." This seems to recognize and perpetuate the "assessment" evil, which is the most pernicious of all the corrupt uses of money in nominations and elections.

It is a noteworthy and encouraging fact that the mortality due to a "hot spell" in this city is, proportionally to population, far less now than twenty years ago. Dr. Tracy of the Health Department points out that in one July day in 1872 there were 172 deaths from sunstroke, all of the victims dying within twenty-four hours after they were stricken, and nearly half of them in three hours' time, and that on that day there were 357 deaths from all causes, while "we thought the other day that 260 deaths were something awful," although the city is nearly twice as big now as it was then. The Doctor attributes the improvement to the fact that people have learned to take better care of themselves; that many who would have drunk considerable liquor in the early 70s do not touch it at all now; that many of those who do drink take beer instead of whiskey; that non-intoxicating drinks, such as mineral waters, lemonade, milk, etc., are sold, even in the saloons, far more generally than formerly; and that the summer diet is more sensible now than it used to be, especially in the immense growth in the consumption of fruit. So much folly in sanitary matters thrusts itself upon the public notice that it is gratifying to have such a demonstration as the vital statistics of the past week present that the mass of the population are really coming to live more sensibly.

If there is even a moderate basis of truth in the stories now coming from Russia, the situation of that State must presently be such as has no parallel in the history of modern Europe. That several districts are already overrun by the cholera epidemic, and that other districts are so utterly prostrated by famine as to make an early industrial revival out of the question, seems to be clearly proved. The information has not come through official sources; indeed, the authorities at St. Petersburg are preserving now the same silence as a year ago. It has been shown since then that the Government itself was not aware of the failure of the harvest of 1891 until measures of relief were almost too late, and that this was due to the preposterous system of red tape in the imperial administration. Provincial officers had grown so used to pigeon-holing appeals and complaints that they cast aside as petty annoyances the addresses of local assemblies who saw the coming ruin; so that what wheat there was had been cornered by greedy factors, and the horses and cattle of the famine district seized for debt, long before the Czar and his Cabinet awoke to the crisis. It is impossible that equal ignorance should prevail regarding the cholera; but no official statement comes from St. Petersburg, and the truth can be guessed at only by the panic among those who must know the facts. That most stringent measures have been adopted by Russia's western neighbors to stop the infection at the frontier, and that foreign merchant-ships are refusing to touch at Odessa, are facts which show the feeling of Europe on the question. If a national epidemic were to follow a national famine, the results upon Russia's future could not fail to be of grave significance. The internal afflictions have saddled enormous expenses on the Government, and the public revenue is crippled at the same time. The Government's financial statements defy analysis; yet even they have been forced to admit that revenue is running so far short of expenditure that further borrowing must be resorted to. The London *Economist* lately estimated from the Russian Finance Minister's statements that the year 1891 showed an actual deficit of $58,000,000. Famine relief expenditures, according to the same authority, must since then have reached $150,000,000, and are going forward now at the same rate. Yet the unused surplus of foreign loans, at the opening of the year, was only $170,000,000, including $60,000,000 which may not yet have been received from the proceeds of last fall's Paris loan. Of this loan, indeed, which broke down so sensationally, London writers say that all but a fraction remains still unsold in the hands of the negotiators.

The ministerial crisis in Norway has at last reached its only possible conclusion; the King has recalled Steen, and the question of a separate Norwegian consular service is to be reconsidered, which means its acceptance. This is the story of all proper demands on the part of the Norwegian Parliament. At first opposed by the King, they have finally been granted whenever popular opinion has been overwhelmingly in their favor. While this latest claim was made to a certain extent a party question, many Conservatives undoubtedly gave it their support. During the past thirty years the commerce of Norway has been fast outstripping that of her neighbor and confederate, until at present she ranks as one of the first commercial Powers of Europe. Conscious of their actual commercial superiority, the Norwegian people naturally chafe under a system that gives to the Swedish Foreign Office absolute control over the consular service of both countries. While continued opposition might not, as many feared, have dissolved the Union, it would undoubtedly have increased still further the hostile feeling to Sweden which radicals like Björnstjerne Björnsen are doing their best to foster

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An old Liberal points out in the Berlin *Nation* that it is only retributive justice which has overtaken Bismarck in his controversy with the Emperor. If that young man now acts as if he believed himself to be the Anointed of the Almighty, before whom all private and national wishes and interests must give way, he is but executing the teaching of the ex-Chancellor himself. The prerogatives of the Crown have never been more stoutly asserted than they were by Bismarck in the days when he had his own way with the Crown, and did not need to distinguish between its prerogatives and his own. More than once did he face a hostile majority in the Reichstag with the assumption, open or tacit, that popular representation was only a convenient way of getting the nation to acquiesce in the Emperor's will, which, after all, was the supreme law. That young William should have taken all this seriously, and applied Bismarck's teaching to Bismarck himself, puts him almost in the light of a Greek Nemesis.

SENATOR ALDRICH'S SPEECH.

It is Senator Aldrich's own fault if the reputation he has acquired as the great Republican "tariff expert" is largely that of an expert juggler with figures. If we were roundly to denounce as fraudulent the statistics which he brought forward in the Senate on Wednesday week, we should only be following his example; for no man ever surpassed him in repudiating figures which make against him. He now confidently adduces statistics furnished by importers, the Bureau of Statistics, United States Consuls, and the Department of Labor, yet in the course of the tariff debates of 1890 he cavalierly declared all these authorities to be unworthy of trust. On August 22, 1890, he said, when referred to Mr. Blaine's famous statistics relating to cotton manufactures in England: "I will simply reply that the statements are not correct." On July 26, he said: "If the Senator follows the statements of importers, he will find himself very often misled." Later in the debate of the same day he affirmed: "Nothing can be more misleading and uncertain than the average ad-valorem rates based upon data furnished at the Treasury Department." The labor-cost of steel rails as stated by Commissioner Wright, whom he now holds up as the highest authority, he flouted with similar contempt when the iron and steel schedules were under discussion.

Some other statements of his must be referred to while dealing with the question of his consistency. Alluding to the matter of tin plate, he said last week:

> "When the act of 1890 was before the Senate, I expressed great confidence that within three years, if the tin-plate duties were imposed, a considerable portion of the tin plate consumed in the United States would be of American production. I have no reason whatever to change the views then expressed. Everything that has happened since confirms their correctness."

The Senator is hardly accurate in recalling his own predictions on this head. On August 19, 1890, he said in reference to the provision that by 1897 the home production must equal one-third the importations: "I have no reasonable doubt that the American producers of tin plate will manufacture a very much larger proportion in every one of the five years than one-third." According to the statistics which he himself now brings forward, the proportion for the first year is actually less than one-fiftieth instead of one-third. This is the way that "everything that has happened since" has "confirmed the correctness" of his predictions of two years ago. The result must make him a little shaky about that other risky affirmation of his on September 30, 1890: "I am quite willing that the future of the protective policy should depend upon the success or failure of the duty imposed by this paragraph" (the tin-plate duty).

Mr. Aldrich, like his party, has got bravely over his scorn of cheap goods. In the face of his own avowal, made over and over again in the course of the debates in the Senate two years ago, that the higher rates of duty were intended to be "protective" against "the uniform and persistent decline in value during the past twenty-five years of all manufactured articles," he now glories in the fact that a decline in general prices of 64-100 of 1 per cent. occurred in the year following the McKinley Bill. It remains, nevertheless, to ask what the rate of decline was before the McKinley Bill, and what effect that measure had upon a movement towards lower prices for consumers which had been going on for a generation. All economists of standing now admit that for many years the prices of commodities have been declining while wages have been increasing, relatively or absolutely, and in a speech in reply to Mr. Aldrich on Friday Mr. Carlisle undertook to show that the "tariff act of 1890 had interfered with the natural tendency." In proof of this contention, he adduced prices and figures gathered by the Finance Committee going to show that the cost of living in the United States had increased during the period covered by the investigation, taking that period as a whole, and not singling out one day alone for comparison, as Senator Aldrich had done. Then he delivered a knock-down blow by showing that the increases in wages discoverable by the Committee had been mainly in unprotected industries, while in protected industries wages had, as a whole, declined under the operation of the McKinley Bill. He took fifteen cases of unprotected labor and showed that in them wages had advanced 75-100 of 1 per cent., and then proved that in fifteen instances of protected labor wages had gone down 89-100 of 1 per cent.

We for our part will cite the testimony of an expert who will be recognized as unimpeachable by Senator Aldrich. We refer to Col. W. M. Grosvenor, one of the editors of the *Tribune*, who published in that journal on January 3, 1890, under his own name, an interesting statement of the decline in prices which had been going on for some time. He said: "From January 27, 1888, to June 3, 1889, the decline was about 14 per cent." That is to say, his investigations ended at the very month when the Senate Finance Committee took up theirs. Mr. Grosvenor took a period of eighteen months, and found a decline in prices of 14 per cent. The Senate Committee chose a following period of twenty-eight months, and found a decline of 64-100 of 1 per cent. Why this great contrast? What stopped the decline? Could it have been the McKinley Bill?

Now, if the Republicans continued to talk as they did two years ago, this showing would be a great triumph for them. They then saw great dangers in cheapness. Prices were perilously low, and manufacturers were not making any money. The tariff must be put up and prices with it, so that they could make more. We say that if the Republicans had not abandoned that position, they could now point to their handiwork and say: "See what we have done. Prices were declining at the rate of 14 per cent. in eighteen months. Our tariff has checked that ruinous decline, and done it almost completely in spite of the continued decrease in the cost of transportation and production." There could be no reply to that. But the Republicans have suddenly found out that they are great friends of cheapness. Their McKinley Bill was specially designed to lower prices. If that is the case, what an egregious blunder it was! While they were letting the tariff alone prices were going down rapidly; their tinkering with it has almost entirely stopped the decline. If they are really advocates of low prices, they ought at once to repeal their bill and restore the old rates, under which their now lauded, but then reprobated, cheapness was in full swing.

In Senator Vest's brief rejoinder he accurately expressed the sentiment of his party in welcoming the fullest and sharpest discussion of the tariff in all its antecedents and all its effects. What honest men want is trustworthy facts honestly and intelligently interpreted; and the more of them we can get the better. We regret to add that Senator Carlisle showed Senator Aldrich to have been guilty of two disreputable tricks. That gentleman brought forward, as if with the sanction of the Finance Committee, certain alleged facts relating to the cost of living in England, and also as to prices in this country in May, 1892. Mr. Carlisle stated, and was not contradicted, that "the Committee had made no investigation whatever concerning the cost of living in England," and that he had learned of the "investigation" into prices in May, 1892, "for the first time when he had seen the statement in print." If Senator Aldrich has any explanation to give for this shameless attempt to impose upon the public, he ought to lose no time about it.

CONNECTICUT'S BALLOT LESSON.

The findings of fact in the Phelan case, as made by Judge Hall in the Superior Court of Connecticut, are the result of what has probably been the longest, most vexatious, and most complex election trial ever held in this country. The case has been in court about a year and a half, and continuously under trial for some six weeks; hearings had to be held in several parts of the State, and the summoning of about 500 witnesses and the investigation of the count at more than 200 voting-places became necessary. The chief value of this sharp judicial scrutiny is the light it throws on the general subject of secret-ballot laws, and especially on the unwisdom of the hybrid type of statute which Connecticut adopted in 1889, and to which must be charged the disgraceful

state of affairs existing in that State today.

Let us take a single branch of the outcome of this statute as set forth by the findings of Judge Hall. In the suit of Talcott against Philbrick, wherein Governor Bulkeley figured so discreditably, the Supreme Court of the State, interpreting the new Ballot Act, used these words:

"What is the ballot? It consists not merely of the paper of the prescribed size and quality, but also of the required printing thereon. If the name of the party may be omitted, so may the name of the candidate or office. *If either of the last two is left out, its validity as a ballot is destroyed.*"

The italicized words seem to make it as clear as the English language can that the Connecticut ballots must be issued primarily in legal form—that is, with the places of all the candidates filled and with no blanks whatever, if they are to be valid; and subsequent to the election Judge Hall himself, in the East Lyme Judge of Probate contest, held this view, and went still further in saying that the filling of the blanks by "pasters" did not validate the State ballot on which, under the Connecticut law, the name of the candidate for Judge of Probate is printed. Now, the Talcott-Philbrick decision of the Supreme Court was rendered in September of 1890, or only about two months before the State election of that year. One would think that it constituted sufficient notice to the political parties who print and distribute the Connecticut ballots that they must contain a full list of candidates.

What were the facts? Of the Prohibition ballots, some 3,500 in number, thrown at the State election of 1890, nearly two-thirds were left blank as to Judge of Probate. All the "Labor" ballots, 209 in number, had the same defect, besides a blank under the title of State Senator. In nine towns the Democratic ballot had the same flaw, which, accepting the Supreme Court's language, will invalidate some 1,500 ballots. Altogether nearly 4,000 ballots out of about 135,000 thrown in the State bear this defect, or say 3 per cent. Could any commentary be more conclusive as to the arrant folly of letting the party managers prepare the ballots as the Connecticut "envelope" system allows to be done? Strangely enough, too, the Town Moderators, although they threw out many ballots for causes legal and illegal, did not exclude one on the "blank" ground which the Supreme Court of the State had set forth so recently and so strongly, and which has been a leading point of contention on both sides in the long Phelan case.

This error as to blanks, though the most serious in the election, was but one among many. Sixty Democratic ballots in the town of Hartland bore the name of the party candidate for Senator in another district. All the eighty Democratic ballots in the town of Lyme had a mark erasing a wrong letter in a candidate's name. Forty ballots in Litchfield bore the name of a candidate irregularly spelled. There were 126 Republican ballots in Bridgeport which the Chairman of the local Republican Committee allowed to be given out with broken type-marks upon them, which the Supreme Court may hold to be fatal to validity. There were 129 Republican ballots in North Canaan issued with the name of Judge of Probate in handwriting. There were ballots folded in a peculiar way, ballots "distinguished" by pasters with strange names over certain minor candidates, ballots folded with political circulars in the "official" envelopes, and other errors corrupt or accidental, but all directly due to or greatly facilitated by the fact that party managers, instead of sworn election officers, gave out the ballots. This has been the fatal defect in the present Connecticut election law, signed by Gov. Bulkeley after his veto of a bill providing for a genuine secret and official ballot act modelled on that of Massachusetts.

In its party aspects the decision of Judge Hall is a sharp rebuke of the Republican rascality which kept out the minor Democratic State officers in order not to "hamper" Bulkeley's administration. By the Judge's finding as to law, Phelan's prima-facie majority of 544 is but slightly reduced, and can hardly be overcome by any decision which the Supreme Court may make next September on the many and varied points of law involved, and it may be actually increased. Only a single vote is changed among the 509 "doublet" ballots on which the Republican House during the long deadlock has based its argument for keeping Phelan out. The complexities of the case show also the utter absurdity of the Republican idea that two partisan legislative bodies could undertake the investigation of the ballots all over the State and reach any practical results. The whole Democratic State ticket, with the exception of one candidate, who is dead, is almost sure to be renominated, and at the coming election we shall have a most valuable test as to how far the Republican knaveries have touched the electoral conscience of a New England State.

But the prime lesson from the Connecticut case is a broader and deeper one than party or locality. The Secret-Ballot Act of that State was one of those hasty and loose-jointed laws expressly devised by the politicians as a substitute for Australian voting, for ballots really official, and for the prevention of bribery and terrorism. They intended to pass such a law as could easily be violated and dodged, and they have succeeded at the cost of the good name of the State, have deadlocked the Legislature, and have brought about a condition of executive affairs which, at times, has very nearly approached chaos. If here is not a warning against the half-baked measures by which the politicians try so hard to cripple the Australian system, we do not know where such a warning can be found.

THE GLUT OF CAPITAL.

THE low rate of interest has been made the theme of an interesting debate in the Political Economy Society of Paris. Many opinions were expressed, but that of M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu was the one best supported by the evidence. He quoted the fine simile of Turgot, who described the rate of interest as a species of level, below which all work, all culture, all industry, all commerce, cease; while as it sinks like the surface of a receding flood, first mountain-tops become fertile islands, then plateaus and plains and rich valleys become available for production. But the comparison is not altogether accurate, for while a low rate of interest makes greater production possible, it implies under some circumstances a less proportional return for labor.

For if we inquire why capital is remunerated, the only answer is because it is productive, and if the rate of remuneration declines, other things remaining unchanged, it is evident that capital is becoming less productive. That this is the case in old countries like France, M. Leroy-Beaulieu furnished much evidence to prove. Such a country is approaching the "stationary state." The inhabitants of a long-settled territory, after a period of peace and civilization, come to be in the position of a well-to-do citizen who has adjusted himself to his surroundings and adjusted his surroundings to his own wants. He has a house which he has gradually adapted to his use, he has furnished it to his taste, his grounds and outbuildings are substantially finished, he has introduced water and provided drainage, he has a suitable equipage, and there is not much, except current expenses, upon which it is very necessary for him to spend any considerable sums. Were he to do so, the gratification he would derive would be in a diminished ratio to the expenditure, which is precisely analogous to a lessened return upon the capital of a nation.

In a long-settled country like France, the system of highways is practically complete, and most of the necessary railways have been constructed. Suitable public buildings have been erected, and such drainage and waterworks as the sentiment of the country demands have been supplied. Of course there is an indefinite field for future improvements, but these improvements are not indispensable; they are of the nature of luxuries rather than necessaries. Accordingly of late years even the French Government has admitted that the main features of its extravagant scheme of internal improvements have been completed, and has decreased the amount of its budget. The signification of this is that the field for the productive employment of capital has been narrowed; that new investments of capital are less productive than formerly. There will be new railroads built, but they will have less advantageous lines than the old. There will be new mines opened, but they will not be so rich as those that have been worked. The canal through the Isthmus of Suez

proved profitable, but that attempted at the Isthmus of Panama has shown that such profits are not necessarily to be derived from similar works in the future. In corroboration of these propositions, M. Leroy-Beaulieu enumerates the financial institutions, such as the Comptoir d'Escompte, that have collapsed and disappeared of recent years in France without being replaced by others, or that have been reorganized with diminished capital. Some new institutions, it is true, have been created, but they are comparatively insignificant, and, almost without exception, their stocks are below par. Such new railroads as have been built since 1871 are supported only by guarantees. They may amount in length to 20,000 kilometres, and on not more than 3,000 or 4,000 is the traffic sufficient to bring any return to the capital invested. In general, M. Leroy-Beaulieu concludes, after a careful survey of the principal channels followed by capital, that the investments of the last twenty years have been notably inferior in their financial results to those of the twenty years preceding.

Turning to England, we learn from the *Economist* that the channels of investment for capital have been greatly narrowed. Fewer foreign loans have been made, fewer railroads have applied for additional capital than formerly. The total called for in 1891 was £105,000,000 against £143,000,000 during the previous year, and £190,000,000 in 1889. Moreover, in spite of the current low rates of interest, the foreign and colonial borrowers have had to accept harder terms, showing that it is not thought that their use of new money will be so productive as their use of that which they have hitherto expended. The Dominion of Canada sold its bonds this year for 92 per cent., while in 1888 it got 95 per cent. The same thing took place in Indian stock, the minimum being fixed at 94, whereas two years ago it was 99 per cent. It is but three years since the Australian colony Victoria received over 103 for a loan, while this year it has been obliged to place the minimum as low as 92 in order to borrow what it wants.

In point of fact, if we take a survey of the world, the field for investment has been in many ways greatly narrowed. Most national governments have shown the tendency long since remarked by Adam Smith, and borrowed until they were either bankrupt or so near it that no one would lend them any more. The English investor has tried every government under the sun, and, after a tolerably uniform experience of disaster, has about stopped lending for lack of borrowers not already in default. Little more money will go for the present into South America, not much more to Canada or to Australia or to India, until the silver problem is settled. Italy has reached her borrowing limit, and Russia has passed it. Spain and Portugal can offer no inducements, and it might almost be said that there is now not a government that has any occasion to borrow that could do so to advantage. And what is true of governments is to a considerable extent true of the corporations within their limits. While it is a fact that in many parts of the world there are still great opportunities for the employment of capital, yet these opportunities are not upon the whole equal to those that have already been utilized, nor are they relatively so numerous as before. Even where these opportunities are as extensive and intrinsically attractive as in this country, there are a good many reasons why foreign investors should prefer to keep their money in their own hands. As we pointed out a year ago, if we should come to a silver basis, it would ruin most of our railroads, for they would be prevented by existing statutes from charging more than certain prescribed rates, which they would receive in silver, while all other prices would rise. We may feel now that we have escaped this danger, but it will naturally be some time before we can impart this confidence to foreigners.

ENGLISH ELECTIONEERING DODGES.

THE brutality which marked the late electoral contests in Great Britain was no novelty in English methods of political warfare, and therefore need not be dwelt upon; but some of the more amusing electioneering contrivances resorted to, and strange electoral results arrived at in consequence, are worth remarking. The stringency of the Corrupt Practices Act makes even indirect bribery of voters a perilous business, and is responsible for some of the shifts adopted. It is an old trick, however, for candidates to "identify themselves with local institutions," or, in plain English, subscribe to local charities or what not in return for votes. This process was carried to a novel extreme in London in the last election, where more than one candidate not only gave a subscription to associations in his district, but actually joined them. Several cases are reported of West End Tories standing for East End constituencies, who made much of the local friendly societies and local clubs, and became members of the "Loyal Friends," the "Ancient Shepherds," the "Buffaloes," the "Druids," and so on. It is, no doubt, a great promoter of true democracy to put yourself in a position to be clapped on the back as a fellow-Ancient Shepherd by a great many constituents; and if they give you their votes as a further mark of good feeling, where is the corruption in that?

Several metropolitan districts witnessed the application of an original form of social influence in the shape of "at homes" or "drawing-rooms" given by wealthy candidates as a means of ingratiating themselves with their working-class constituents. This yields a beautiful demonstration of social equality. An account of one of these affairs says that "the workingmen soon find much to interest them in the delicate fabric of the carpet, in the antique furniture and the old china." This method of securing political support must have been too great an affront to self-respecting workingmen to bring much success, but it deserves mention among the electioneering novelties of the year. Antique furniture and old china have not been unknown in American campaigning, though we have taken the terms more literally, and meant the rough furnishing of the "cabin" to which it was once thought necessary that every "man of the people" should be able to trace back his career. The snobbishness of one case is about the same as that of the other.

However strictly the election laws may suppress bribery, there seems to be no way in which they can arrest campaign canards. An amusing collection of the illusions under which many voters cast their ballots could be made from the numerous cases reported in the English papers. These fancied political issues were sometimes the work of the freeman's own muddled head, and sometimes the natural, if not designed, effect of statements made in election addresses, speeches, and posters. Thus, one correspondent of the *Times* writes:

"I was told last week by a very intelligent hospital porter resident in Battersea, and a strong supporter of Mr. Burns, that many of the workingmen in that division were in favor of home rule simply because they thought it would lead to work being found for all Irishmen in Ireland, and would thus prevent them from overcrowding the English labor market as at present."

As an offset to this may be quoted the statement of a member of the Women's Liberal Federation:

"I have been for the past ten days with a friend speaking and working in Mid Bucks for the Gladstonian candidate, each taking different villages and meetings; and my friend was told, in the presence of another lady, by the wife of a workingman, that her husband would vote for the Unionist, as he had been told that if a home-rule bill were passed all the people in the village would have to become Roman Catholics or else be burnt with fagots on the village green. My friend came across the same belief in another and distant village, and I came upon traces of it in various places in the division, so that it had evidently been systematically set about."

To these novel phases of the home-rule question, as that question shapes itself in the intellect of the English elector, must be added another, furnished by a Gladstonian poster in East Wilts. The candidate in that constituency interpreted home rule to mean "local self-government for Ireland and for the villages of England," and was said to have got many votes from those who expected to see a village council set up on the spot. At any rate, the district gave a Liberal gain of one, though the victory may have been due in part to the other war-cry of the candidate: "If they wanted the price of bread to go back to three and four shillings a gallon, let them go and vote for the Tory party." In fact, the defeated Tory candidate attributes his overthrow to the latter cry, writing to the *Times:* "The laborers,

and especially their wives, honestly believed that if I were elected, food would go to famine-prices, and the line they took was, 'It mayn't be true, but we won't give 'em a chance.' I can safely say I have never seen so violent or revengeful a spirit as was exhibited by the wives of the laborers at the end of my contest." Such incidents illustrate the fatal as well as wholly gratuitous blundering of Lord Salisbury's protection speech at Hastings.

The workings of political argument on the peasant mind are usually a great mystery, and some of the reasoning processes of Hodge in the late election are curious enough as reported. "Yes," said a Sussex elector, "I'm against home rule, but certainly Lord H—— do manage his cows terrible well." It is obvious that, in such a case, the far-away and abstract bogey, home rule, will not count for as much as that wonderful knack with the cows, in evidence on the spot every day, and that Lord H—— will get the coveted vote. Mr. Schnadhorst is about the only Liberal prophet who came out of the campaign with any reputation left, and the accuracy of his predictions in regard to the county elections shows that he must know his peasants as well as George Eliot or Mr. Hardy himself.

THE GENERAL ELECTION IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, July 23, 1892.

THE Irish National politician would indeed have been thought a Cassandra who, three years ago, should have predicted that the general election would come and go without an immediate triumphant settlement regarding Home Rule being assured. Like toilers up a mountain-side, we have reached what long appeared to be the summit, and yet now other heights remain to be surmounted. There is, however, no reason for discouragement. Ireland has passed more safely through the ordeal than could at all reasonably have been expected. If a satisfactory settlement within the next few years can be attained, it will be more enduring than if one had been snatched six years ago. We are working not for a passing political triumph, but for all time. Our difficulty has long been the disgrace of Western civilization. The completeness of its solution is of greater importance than the few years more or less spent in its attainment. The human mind is, however, prone to adapt itself to circumstances, and it is not always easy to judge the degrees in which the inevitable and the best affect our thoughts and judgment. The more the events and tendencies of the past ten years are considered, the more content we should be to make the best of present surroundings. Well-disposed people of all parties in the United Kingdom have been sobered. We are in the same boat and have common interests, and we have common dangers to face. The fusillading at Homestead concerns us as well as you.

The elections prove that the force of the Home Rule movement in Ireland has somewhat weakened. We had eighty-five united Nationalist representatives; we have now but eighty, nine of whom are unpledged, independent adherents only. But seeing the extent to which land reform has calmed the agrarian agitation, it may be that the present is a more remarkable evidence of national desires than were the elections of 1885 and 1886. The opposition in Ireland to Home Rule has undoubtedly strengthened. Notwithstanding the fact that a larger proportion of the present Nationalist members are Protestants, the political cleavage between Protestants and Catholics is more apparent than ever. We must, however, remember that the movement at first took the ascendency party by surprise. They have since had ample time to recruit and dress their ranks, to boycott and frighten weaker brethren into agreement. They have brought up their numbers from eighteen to twenty-three. The sun of a Home Rule viceroyalty will, without doubt, again warm many into national feeling; and there is nothing in their opposition to lead us to doubt that they would quickly make the best of an accomplished settlement and merge their interests in the interest of the country at large. Recent developments ought to assure them regarding their own strength, and the impossibility of imposing upon them legislation or disabilities of a class or sectarian character.

Ireland returns altogether 103 members. So long as our affairs are managed in the Imperial Parliament, any reduction of this number on the ground of reduction in population would be unfair. For the first forty years of the union our population would have entitled us to 150 in excess of this number; and for nearly forty years more we were entitled to a number, gradually decreasing, in excess of our 103. It is only within the past fifteen years that we have been in excess. Of the 103, 80 are, as has been said, for Home Rule, 23 against. Of the 32 counties, 25 are completely Nationalist, 2 completely Conservative; in 5 the representation is mixed. Ulster is a purely geographical expression. Neither it nor the other provinces have any legal existence. Since the abolition of the presidentships early in the seventeenth century, the provincial divisions have had no historical basis. The provincial idea has place only in the minds of persons residing in the northeast of the country. Never elsewhere in the island is a man heard to confine his thoughts or his interests to his own province. In Belfast alone is a time kept (one minute and a half fast) different from that of Dublin. Yet, remembering that the relative numbers of the representatives in Ulster was used as an argument against "Ulsteria," it is right to note that there is now in the province a majority of 19 to 14 against Home Rule, instead of 17 to 16 in its favor. Cavan, Donegal, and Monaghan are completely National; Antrim and Derry, Conservative; in Armagh, Down, Fermanagh, and Tyrone the representation is divided. Regarding the rest of Ireland, Dublin University is, as it has always been, Conservative. South County Dublin fell to the Conservatives in fair fight, and one Dublin city seat through division. The rest of Ireland went National.

The divisions of opinion in the country have perhaps never before been more fairly represented. Five of the 23 Conservatives call themselves Liberal Unionists. The name, apart from Conservative, has, however, no political significance whatever in Ireland. The chief interest centred round the struggle between Nationalists and the Parnellites, who, where the Conservatives had no men of their own up, received from them all possible support, moral and material. No stranger political combination has been perfected than that brought about in Ireland between the party pledged to oppose Home Rule in any form, and the party which declares that that proffered by the English Liberals is not wide enough. If anything could rouse honest Home-Rulers among the Parnellites to their position, it should be the avidity with which their journals are read and approved by the Conservatives, and the manner in which they themselves are being now regarded with approval as (according to a familiar Irish expression) "white-headed boys." The Nationalists went into the struggle 54, the Parnellites 31. They have emerged 71 and 9. The Parnellites are, upon their own theory that they are watch-dogs to keep the National sheep in order, well placed. Dublin, in the east, returns four; Clare and Galway, in the west, three; Roscommon, in the north, one; and Waterford, in the south, one. Of the Nationalists, 27 are men new to British Parliamentary life; none of them having been before widely known in Ireland but Mr. Davitt. Among the old members, Mr. McCarthy, Mr. Sexton, and Mr. Sullivan have lost somewhat in prestige by being relegated from Derry, Belfast, and Dublin, respectively, to county constituencies.

It is interesting to note that the Nationalist, the moderate party, more or less in alliance with the English Liberals, comprises the old "'48 men," those who as Fenians were sentenced to be hung, drawn, and quartered, and suffered long terms of imprisonment, and the gray-haired veterans of Mr. Butts's time; while of the extreme, the "hillside" party, all but two are comparatively recent recruits, and five out of the nine have enjoyed Government appointments. The small numbers polled by Conservatives where they put up candidates outside Dublin in National Ireland, proves the untruthfulness of the assumption that the country only desired freedom from the domination of the League to declare for Mr. Balfour. There is nothing to show that, except perhaps in isolated districts, the Catholic clergy exercised more than legitimate influence on the side they thought right. Had they declined to take any part in the contest, a much stronger case might have been made against them on other grounds than any which can now be made because of undue influence. Parnellism draws its strength from varied sources —an honest belief that it is the best and only policy for Ireland; anti-clerical feeling among Catholics; fealty to Mr. Parnell's memory; dislike, at least profound suspicion, regarding Mr. Gladstone and the English; the degree in which the avowal of Parnellism leaves men free to "grab" farms as against Nationalists, and the ready excuse it offers for no longer contributing to National subscriptions and National levies. Besides this, it implies a lofty standard of patriotism without the obligation of personal service, and it at once insures acceptance into favor by Conservative neighbors—by no means an unimportant consideration to tradesmen and professional men. Parnellism is strong among country doctors and solicitors, bank clerks, railway officials, and others who up to the date of Mr. Parnell's fall had kept clear of politics, or at the most taken but a half-hearted interest therein.

Grave danger is to be anticipated from the ill-concealed determination of many members of the Parnellite party to justify the contention that the attainment of Home Rule without Mr. Parnell's leadership is an impossibility. The worst may arise from the apparent ease with which we lend ourselves to factionism; our tendency rather to level down than level up; the ear we give to catch cries and biting political criticism; our fear of ridicule. An

Irish audience is easily imposed upon by a rowdy minority, and shamed out of its real feelings and better self by a glib speaker. We have an inherent dread of differing face to face from those whose good opinion we desire to conserve. The healthiest and best developments of Irish Catholicism, the entire sympathy and respect which have heretofore existed between the clergy and the people, are, it appears to many, seriously threatened. It is difficult to say to what extent this arises from the spread of modern ideas and intercourse with other countries, to what extent from the degree to which the clergy are leading more comfortable lives apart from the laity. Any one who knows Ireland well may be pardoned for not desiring to have to pass through a period in which the people of the country generally would be divorced in sympathy from the clergy of that faith which has been and is to them the highest exposition of spiritual life and hope.

The labor question, whatever it may be, both in Great Britain and in Ireland, might prove a serious complication. Disaster would assuredly follow any serious attempt to justify Mr. Davitt's assumption that the Irish party is practically a "labor" party. Our English friends upon the whole have assuredly grasped the principles upon which a sound social fabric can be built up in Ireland; they have discounted the contention that the peace which here reigns at present is due to Mr. Balfour's policy of perpetual coercion. Those who were attracted to an excited consideration of the Irish question, as something curious and novel, through the turmoil and imprisonments of the earlier years of Mr. Balfour's régime, have gradually slid back into the ranks of Conservatism.

When all is said, it must be apparent that if Ireland is true to herself, she holds the political game in her own hands. There are, however, tendencies apart from politics that make against her settled and solid growth. Travelling round the country, I asked why athletic clubs, literary associations, and music were not more thoroughly cultivated, and I was almost invariably told that the best members soon sought a wider sphere for their talents in Great Britain and the United States. Wandering out early one morning from a country town for fresh air, during the height of the election, I looked over a beautiful prospect of land and sea. "What a country this might be!" I exclaimed to a young stranger who stood beside me. "And yet, what hope is there?" he rejoined. "Of four hundred school-fellows, I can count but five at home, while during a residence of a few months on the Californian slope I met thirty-six of them." D. B.

THE DECORATIONS AT CHICAGO.

LONDON, July 14, 1892.

THE papers and magazines of late have been full of the Chicago Exhibition. The buildings have been described, the results foretold—in a word, every detail so accurately explained that one wonders what will remain to be said when this newest World's Fair opens. Then it will be time, I suppose, to begin to talk about the Paris show of 1900. Despite all that has been written, however, I have seen but little reference to the proposed mural decoration of two of the larger buildings. And yet nothing in the entire Exhibition is even now of more importance to the artist and the public alike. It is not only because one looks forward with interest to learn what men of such distinction as Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Melchers will accomplish when working on a large scale and carrying out a definite decorative scheme; but their designs will, in all probability, give the art of the painter in America that impetus in the right direction which it has so long needed.

It is true that the manner in which commissions have been intrusted to the different architects employed has established an admirable precedent. And again, it speaks well for public undertakings in the future that the advantage of securing the advice of Mr. St. Gaudens for all sculptural decorations has been recognized. The least appreciative man who has followed the illustrations in recent articles on the subject in the *Century* must admit that the Exhibition will lose nothing by the substitution of the sculptor for the old time-honored cheap stone mason. Of course, of this the artist never had a doubt. I felt the gain still more keenly when, in Paris, I saw in Mr. MacMonnies's studio the model of the great fountain, and, above all, the colossal figures of Time and Fame, upon which he was then at work, and which are almost Michael-Angelesque in their dignity and the beauty and impressiveness of their colossal proportions, and in the vigor of their modelling. Indeed, while the model could not quite satisfy me as to the ultimate effect of the fountain as a whole, of the power displayed and success attained in each individual figure there could be only one way of thinking.

However, when all is said, it is to the decoration of the interior that special interest is attached. Our absurd modern picture exhibitions show more and more with every year the demoralizing effect of the false conditions under which the modern painter labors. Painting, as well as sculpture, may be said to be dependent upon architecture; its main end is decoration, and if the artist does not know the building or the walls which he is to decorate, it is by a mere fluke that his designs, when placed in private room or public hall, fulfil this end. However good in themselves, their effect may be entirely destroyed by incongruous surroundings. The reason why thirteenth and fourteenth-century frescoes seem to-day such marvels, the reason why our so-called decorative artist (as though the very name artist did not imply the prefix decorative) despairs of rivalling them, is because the old men did not work in the dark, as it were, but knew from the beginning the interior they were to decorate and its architectural characteristics, how the light would fall upon their designs, and with what other decorations these would be expected to harmonize. Nothing has so helped to bring art in France to its present high standard (from which, however, it now threatens to fall rapidly away) as the chance given to distinguished artists to decorate important public buildings. Much of the best contributions to the two Salons are always the ceilings and panels for the Paris Hôtel de Ville, or that of some other large French town; the Panthéon has been the best of training-schools. Puvis de Chavannes, Besnard, Laurens, Chabas have all achieved their greatest triumphs in fulfilling these municipal or State commissions. With us there is the constant outcry that we have no genuine American art. Art knows no nationality; but if this means that we have no artists who have done great work *in* America, it is simply because none have been allowed to prove what they can really do. What can a man accomplish who paints for an exhibition where his picture must somehow attract attention; where, if it be without striking eccentricity of subject or treatment, likelier than not it is passed unnoticed? The painting for picture shows tells nothing, and, unfortunately, few Americans can afford to paint for any other object than to exhibit in galleries, large or small. If the artistic development of illustration has been almost phenomenal since the days of Menzel, it is chiefly because illustrators have had the great advantage of knowing where and how their drawings were to be used. Like the painters of old, they have been able to work in broad daylight. A step in advance was taken when Mr. Abbey and Mr. Sargent were invited to decorate the Boston Public Library; but I understand that the commission intrusted to them is due to private munificence. On the other hand, the decoration of the Chicago Exhibition buildings is a public undertaking, and, though the designs will be seen but temporarily, they should appeal to a far larger audience. This is why one cannot help hoping that much good will result from them.

The Chicago scheme does not err on the side of over-elaboration.* In the Palace of the Liberal Arts there is to be a decoration over each of the four doorways, two to be painted by Mr. MacEwen and two by Mr. Melchers. Of the qualifications of these artists for the task it is useless to speak. Their work is well known at home and in Paris, where they are among the most conspicuous contributors to one or the other of the Salons. Wherever they have exhibited, they have received medals, both are *hors concours* in Paris, and, if decorations count for anything, they have plenty to show. Many of their canvases have been of fairly large Salon dimensions, but as yet they have never attempted anything on the scale of the designs they are now preparing for Chicago. When I was in Paris, they had made their preparatory sketches and were just beginning to carry these out, though the final work will be done on the spot in Chicago, which is as it should be: effects of light and color can then be modified or strengthened until they are in perfect harmony with their actual surroundings. Their subjects are appropriate to a Palace of the Liberal Arts: Music, Art, Industry, and Sport; and the treatment they have decided upon is no less in keeping with the architectural design of the building. The architects have chosen classic models: Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Melchers have deserted for the time their favorite Dutch peasants' costumes and backgrounds for classical forms and composition. It is too soon to consider these critically; they must first be seen on the walls they are meant to decorate. Until then there is nothing more to be said, unless I add that Mr. MacEwen's figures will almost all be draped, while those by Mr. Melchers will be mostly nude. And really, since their talent as painters has long since been tested, it is with their power as decorators that we are now concerned; and of it no judgment can be formed until the work is completed. The future of art in the United States must be influenced, for good or for ill, by the measure of their accomplishment.

In the Woman's Building, also, the chief decorations are confined to the two doorways. Here the artists appointed are, naturally, women: Miss Cassatt and Mrs. MacMonnies. Both, like Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Melchers, live, for part of the year at least, and work, in Paris. Miss Cassatt is a woman whose reputation, though she exhibits seldom, was long

*It has been considerably enlarged since our correspondent wrote, and we understand that Messrs. Sargent, Vedder, Simmons, Weir, Kenyon Cox, Beckwith, Twachtman, Maynard, Metcalf, and others are to be given a chance to show what they can do in decorative painting.—ED. NATION.

since made. When she has exhibited, it has been in the Salon des Indépendants, a fact which at once explains her methods and sympathies. Her name, however, is far better known than her work; that this is good is certainly the opinion of such men as Manet and Degas, Pissarro and Monet, whose friend and fellow-worker she has always been. It is the modern woman glorified by Worth she intends to treat; and with her, as with Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Melchers, while one may be sure of what she will get out of her subject, one has yet to learn how well she can adapt it and her methods to large mural decoration. Mrs. MacMonnies has still her own name to make; hers is an opportunity afforded to few women of her age, but she could have no better incentive.

In the Woman's Building, therefore, as in the Palace of the Liberal Arts, interest for the artist centres. There will be, no doubt, much that is delightful in the exhibition of pictures, which promises to be second in completeness only to that of Paris in 1889. But whatever the pleasure it can give, whatever the service it can render to the student, we already know not only the uses but the abuses of the picture gallery; we have yet to learn the importance and extent of the artistic outcome in America of the new departure in the mural decoration of public buildings. N. N.

HUGO'S JOURNEYS IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM.

PARIS, July 21, 1892.

THE literary executors of Victor Hugo seem bent on publishing as many volumes as they can: nothing shall be lost, not even a line, of what the great poet left in his drawers. Would he have published all that is given to us? I doubt it; he was one of those men who do their thinking pen in hand and throw everything on paper. Many of these notes hardly deserve the honor which is now paid to them; they often make us think of the "dormitat Homerus." Few people, on the whole, will take the trouble to read the "Théâtre en liberté," "La fin de Satan," "Choses vues," "Toute la Lyre," "Les Jumeaux," "Amy Robsart." There is a volume in preparation under the title 'Ocean'; we may almost guess what its contents will be—what an accumulation of adjectives, what comparisons! Pierre Loti has made us a little fastidious by publishing his 'Pêcheur d'Islande,' and he has also tired us somewhat with descriptive literature.

I confess having opened with some diffidence a new volume called 'En voyage: France et Belgique,' though I am fond of reading books of travel. I must acknowledge, however, that I was agreeably disappointed; I found in the volume the real Victor Hugo, young, ardent for mediæval architecture, with all the fire of the Romantic school in him. The Romantic movement was a true revival; the Romanticists professed a great love of the past, of Gothic as opposed to Classic architecture. 'Notre Dame de Paris' was an apotheosis of the Gothic style. We see in this new volume how Victor Hugo studied carefully the architecture of the middle ages; his journeys in Normandy, Brittany, Flanders, had this study for their principal object.

In order to understand the importance of the Romantic movement from this special point of view of architecture, you must remember what was the state of things towards 1830. Gothic art was absolutely despised; the finest churches built during the middle ages had been dishonored in every way by whitewashing, by the addition of incongruous ornaments, having no relation whatever with the noble art which had erected the cathedrals of Chartres and so many other places. The Catholic clergy, who might have been the guardian of the treasures of this great art, were absolutely ignorant, and sacrificed everything to the vapid and gaudy style which now goes under the name of the Jesuitical style. The reaction began with the first efforts of the Romantic school. Chateaubriand, in his 'Genius of Christianity,' was one of its unconscious though most powerful instruments. Victor Hugo entered early the list of those who looked on every form of art as the legitimate offspring of a certain state of civilization. The influence of the Romantic school was strong enough to oblige the Government to appoint a Commission on Historical Monuments and provide it with funds for the restoration of these monuments. This Commission, which has a permanent existence, has done a very good work; it has saved hundreds of monuments from utter destruction; restorations have, under its guidance, been done with great skill, with a feeling of great respect for the spirit of the past. Mérimée was long one of its members, and his reports on the monuments which he visited as one of the Inspectors of the Commission are extremely interesting and have become very dear, because very few copies of them were printed at the time. You may safely say that when a church or a monument has had the good fortune to be classed as one of our historical monuments, and thus to come under the supervision of the State, it is saved for ever; for our new Republicans are no iconoclasts—they have more wisdom than their predecessors of 1793, they respect everywhere the emblems, the symbols of the past; they did not, even, after the fall of the Second Empire, obliterate the monuments which had been built under Napoleon III. Let each period leave some trace of itself behind.

This brings me to a question I have often heard discussed among architects, and you will find it discussed in Victor Hugo's notes: if you have before you a church built in the Roman style or in the Gothic style, is it proper to demolish a fine altar built in the seventeenth century or in the eighteenth century, a beautiful pulpit in the style of later ages? I, for one, do not believe so. It is essential, in a work of restoration, to have as much unity as possible in the great architectural lines, though we often see a Roman choir annexed to a Gothic nave; but, desirable as it is to respect the architectural ideas of the past, the lines which give to a monument its essential character, its physiognomy, it does not seem to me necessary to enter too much into the details which are purely ornamental. As we see in a geological section strata succeeding strata, let each century leave its mark on the fundamental groundwork of the first age of a monument. See how much variety there is in San Marco in Venice, in the church of Monreale in Sicily —a variety, truly, of details which does not preclude a powerful unity in the initial conception. Surely, if you build a new Gothic church in America, it is proper to introduce Gothic ornamentation in all its details; but why should we clear an old Gothic church of a number of beautiful ornaments and additions left by succeeding centuries, if these ornaments and additions do not disfigure the whole?

But to return to Victor Hugo. He was an ardent admirer of the relics of the middle ages, and his enthusiasm is at times quite touching. He invents admirable expressions in describing an old church. It is quite pleasant to travel with him, and his indignation against the modern iconoclasts is catching.

"I am indignant at the devastations I meet with at every step. At Alençon, a grave and fine statue of white marble, dressed like Marie de Médicis, breaks its nose on the darkest wall of the church. At Mayenne, a horrid white prison is stupidly built in the middle of the old castle. At Pontorson, on an admirable piece of an altar of the Renaissance, the curé has put the most stupid of confessionals. You walk thus on a bas-relief of the sixteenth century which represents the Pentecost. At Dol, a tomb of the Renaissance is falling to pieces. At Avranches, there remained a fine pillar of the cathedral; it has been demolished. At Coutances, the whole cathedral is a scandal. An ogive of the fourteenth century has been deformed in order to receive an absurd altar with a golden sun, which cost four thousand francs. Two great walls of plaster have been built across the transept. . . . At Saint-Lo, they allow an admirable church to fall which has two spires as fine as the great spire of Saint-Denis, etc."

This was written in 1836; we have improved since, but there are many places and things which are going to ruin, notwithstanding the efforts of the State, of the department, of the clergy—which is less ignorant of architecture than in old times—and the generosity of many patrons of art and lovers of history.

The notes on Normandy are certainly, even now, worth reading, as Normandy is extremely rich in monuments.

"I have seen," says Hugo, "all the beautiful cities of the shores of the Manche—Bayeux, which has an admirable cathedral; Caen, where I counted on my arrival fifteen spires. At every moment, in the smallest village, you find these admirable stone spires, which rise, strangely enough, from a very small church, like beautiful flowers of the field on the top of an ugly plant. In the evening we walk, Nanteuil and I, in the cities; we lose ourselves in the tortuous streets, and we have only to lift our eyes to see at every step the high steeples of cathedrals which make magnificent chimneys to miserable roofs."

The wonderful descriptive powers of Victor Hugo are shown in these notes, almost at every page. His descriptions of the sea, for instance, are among the finest pages he ever wrote; but how can you translate such descriptions into another language? In a letter from Tréport (a little town near Eu) to his friend Louis Boulanger, the painter, he says:

"I went towards evening to the seashore. The moon was rising, the tide was rising; the fishing-boats came bobbing out one after another from the narrow passage of Tréport. A great brown mist covered the sea horizon, into which the sails entered, simplifying themselves. At my feet the ocean advanced step by step. The waves came and covered each other like the slates of a roof in building. The wind was high, the whole horizon was covered with green and trembling spots; over all this an awful noise, a sombre aspect, and the great muslin of the foam which tore itself on the rocks. It was fine and monstrous. The sea was in despair; the moon was sinister. How strange to see this immense, mysterious chimæra, with its thousands of scales, lifting itself painfully towards the pale, cadaverous face which attracts it from a distance of 90,000 leagues, as the serpent attracts the bird! What is this fascination in which the ocean plays the part of the bird?"

Hugo excels in the description of something awful and mysterious; he delights in it. He is the poet of the night.

"I have always liked to travel during the twilight hours. It is the moment when nature deforms itself and becomes fantastic. The houses have luminous eyes; the elms have sinister profiles, they throw themselves backwards as if they laughed; the plain is nothing but a dark line which the crescent of the moon pierces with its horn and slowly disap-

pears; the heaps of corn along the roads look like phantoms conversing in a low voice. At times you meet a shepherd standing, who gazes at you with a strange look. Your carriage moans feebly and complains of fatigue; the iron pieces, the wheels, give each their little note, high or low. You hear from time to time in the distance the noise of bells; it increases, then diminishes, and is no longer heard. It is some other carriage which is on a distant road. Whither is it going? Whence does it come? By the light of the constellations, which make a hundred magnificent figures in the sky, you see around you sleeping faces; it seems as if the carriage were full of dreams."

It is odd to read such things in letters; they are the outpourings of a poetic mind. You find in every line the poet who personifies nature and who lives "dans son rêve étoilé."

Correspondence.

THE CONJUNCTION *LIKE*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to the late Professor W. B. Hodgson, in his *Errors in the Use of English* (1881), "the adverb *like* is often improperly, because needlessly, employed for *like as* or simply *as*"; and, for the employment of it thus characterized, he quotes, with others, Mr. Henry Mayhew and Professor Bonamy Price, besides Charles Dickens's "Nobody will miss her *like* I shall."

Mr. Brander Matthews, in *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, vol. lxxxiii., p. 218 (1891), remarks, with implied reprehension, that, in England, *like* for *as* "is heard in the conversation of literary men of high standing, and now and again it even gets itself into print in books of good repute," citing, for it, Mr. J. Cotter Morison and Mr. Walter Bagehot.

In the opinion of Col. T. W. Higginson, as expressed in *The New World and the New Book*, p. 201 (1892), "it is hard for criticism to deal seriously with a novelist who writes: . . . 'He . . . read on *like* some one reads in some ghastly dream';" words occurring in the pages of Mr. Rider Haggard.

Other strictures, of which many are producible, corresponding to these in tenor, are here omitted, as being superfluous.

The inference to be deduced from the premises before us is, that such locutions as those instanced above are by no means generally known to be other than modernisms.

King Alfred, in his translation of Orosius, writes, together with *gelice and spinge déd*, "as a sponge doth," *gelice and seó waére*, "as if she were." Answering to *as*, in "*as* you know," and in Milton's "*as* earth and sky would mingle," is *gelice and*, with its twofold import. The phrase is, indeed, conjunctional; but, that its element *gelice*—whence, perhaps, by aphesis, our adverb *like*—was ever a conjunction, has not, to my knowledge, been established. The attempt which has been made to father on Anglo-Saxon the equivalent of "*like* a sponge doth" falls, therefore, to the ground.

Directly, for *directly when*, promises to become, eventually, quite legitimate. Other conjunctions, more or less used, which, similarly, have come up in recent times, are *immediately*, *instantly*, and *once*. But the specific illustration of ellipsis which they offer was anticipated, in the occasional substitution of *like* for *like as* and *likewise as*, ages ago.

What it was that prompted this elliptical substitution is not apparent. Was it something disagreeable in the quaintness of the longer forms? Or was it the ambiguousness of *as*, which so often is causal, one with "since"? Specious as these surmises may be, neither of them, I apprehend, will endure historical examination.

Exemplifying the use under consideration are found, before 1800:

"I sawe hym never wyth myne eye, That could werke *lyke* I." Anon., *The Smyth and his Dawe* (15th century), in Mr. W. C. Hazlitt's *Remains of the Early Popular Poetry of England*, vol. iii., p. 203 (1866).

"And then the king of Castile desired him that he would licence him to do his duty *like* a knight and brother of the order ought to do to the Sovereign." Anon. (1506), in *Memorials of King Henry the Seventh* (1858), p. 296.

"And, *lyke* an excellent Phisition cureth most dangerous diseases and deadly wounds, so doth a man that is valyant advance him selfe as invincible in things that doe seeme most terrible," etc. Sir Thomas Elyot, *The Governour* (1531), fol. 163 (ed. 1580).

"Ye have said *lyke* a noble lady ought to say." Lord Berners, *The Hystory of Arthur of Lytle Brytayne* (about 1530), p. 520 (ed. 1814).

"Then was this popish mass in great controversy, *like* it is now." Bp. John Bale (1546), in *Select Works*, etc. (1849), p. 171.

"Did not David thirst after thee, *like* the thirstie hart the fountaines of cleare water . . . ?" Rev. Dr. Thomas Wright, *The Passions of the Minde in Generall* (1601), p. 194 (ed. 1620).

"*Like* noble babe . . . cannot conject His own true parentage, . . . So we . . . can not divine," etc. Rev. Dr. Henry More, *The Præexistency of the Soul*, st. 5, 6, in *Philosophicall Poems* (1647), p. 256.

"*Like* one . . . eats his fill Before his painful march, So would I feast awhile my famish'd eyes," etc. Dryden, *All for Love* (1668), Act iv.

"I believe that this Impression of the Wounds was only perform'd in the strong Imagination of S. Francis, much *like* some others have imagin'd that they had Feet of Wax and a Head of Glass." Gabriel d'Emilianne, *The Frauds of Romish Monks and Priests* (1691), p. 134 (3d ed.).

"To act *like* Judith did with Holofernes." Rev. Myles Davies, *Athenæ Britannicæ*, vol. i., p. 253 (1715).

"The officer, *like* Sir Piers Exton . . . served king Richard the second, jumping upon a chair, struck such a blow that it brought the unfortunate gentleman to the floor." William Toldervy, *The History of Two Orphans* (1756), vol. iv., p. 183.

"She flies to the dear retreats of Twickenham, *like* a fond daughter to the indulgent arms of a consoling parent." Anon., *The Generous Attachment* (1787), vol. iii., p. 136.

"He talks *like* Brunswick did, and may, perhaps, act in the same manner." Robert Southey (1792). *Selections from the Letters*, etc. (1856), vol. i., p. 12.

To come to this century, so frequent, at least in lighter literature, is *like* for *as*, that, after what has been shown in the opening paragraphs of this letter, even the few quotations which here follow may be thought more than sufficient:

"It is common to hear the conduct of French officers, in breaking their parole, not only mentioned without censure, but praised and applauded,—*like* a successful theft might have been in Sparta,—as a justifiable and meritorious act of dexterity." Henry Matthews, *The Diary of an Invalid* (1820), p. 474.

"Stalls, *like* in cathedrals." Cardinal Newman (1833), in *Letters*, etc. (1891), vol. i., p. 324.

"They are strange and startling, *like* the products of a dream ofttimes are, to the mind which has actually produced them." Dr. Henry Maudsley, *The Physiology and Pathology of the Mind* (1867), p. 18.

"That is just *like* it is at my house." Sir George W. Dasent, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 235.

Most of the foregoing illustrations, besides others, I had long had by me when I discovered that two of them, belonging to the years 1647 and 1668, had been already adduced for the same purpose for which they are here exhibited. I refer to Article lxxiii., entitled "*Like* in the sense of *as*," in Mr. William Sidney Walker's *Critical Examination of the Text of Shakespeare*, etc. (1860), vol. ii., pp. 115–123. Of the illustrations common to Mr. Walker and myself, while I have retained those from Dr. Henry More and Dryden, I have, for brevity, omitted those supplied by Sir Philip Sidney, Shakespeare, Middleton and Massinger, and a few more.

Supplementing Mr. Walker, his editor, Mr. W. N. Lettsom, observes that "the old idiom seems to have become obsolete by 1664"; and the observation is of a kind which, in my experience, is far from unusual. For instance, I once chanced to mention to a learned friend, as a curious circumstance, that *abandonment*, though it was proposed in the days of Queen Elizabeth, was as good as in a trance—notwithstanding Lord Shaftesbury's venture to resuscitate it—for nearly two hundred years; and I was not at all surprised at my interlocutor's protesting, in reply, that the word was quite novel to him. Of course he was mistaken. And who can doubt that Mr. Lettsom had heard "the old idiom" all his life?

As has been seen, the Anglo-Saxon *gelice and* bears the two senses "as" and "as if," and *like*, the conjunction, therein tallies with it. In having the sense of "as if," *like* is, however, no home-born Americanism, as Mr. J. R. Bartlett takes it to be. Quotations in disproof of this view of his are subjoined:

"The paleys trembled *like* to have gone all to peces." Lord Berners, *The Hystory of Arthur of Lytle Brytayne* (about 1530), p. 143 (ed. 1814).

"He was bygge and hye above all other, and coloured *like* the rede rose had ben set on the whyte lyly." *Id.*, *ibid.*, p. 338.

"In place of whom, as it befel my lot, *Like* on a stage, so stept I in strayt waye." Thomas Sackville, Earl of Dorset, *The complaynt of Henrye duke of Buckingham* (about 1559), st. 7, in William Baldwin's *A Myrrovr for Magistrates* (ed. 1563), sig s 1 v.

"*Like* in sickness, did I loathe this food." Shakespeare, *A Midsummer Night's Dream* (about 1595), Act IV., scene I.

"They that from youth doe sucke at Fortunes brest, And nurse their empty hearts with seeking higher, *Like* Dropsie-fedde, their thirst doth neuer rest." Fulke Greville, Lord Brooke, *Mustapha* (1609), Act II., Scene III., in *Works*, etc. (1633), p. 105.

"I felt my face *like* on fire." Mrs. A. M. Bennett, *The Beggar Girl and her Benefactors* (1797), vol. ii., p. 194 (ed. 1813).

The Rev. Prof. John Earle writes, both in the first edition of his *Philology of the English Tongue* (1871), and in the fifth edition of that popular work, issued this year: "In the sentence, 'he behaved *like* a scoundrel,' *like* is a preposition. But, if we say it in provincial English, thus, 'he behaved *like* a scoundrel would,' *like* is a conjunction." To the designation "provincial English," unmodified, I am obliged to demur.

Dr. Schele De Vere, in his *Americanisms* (1872), deviates so far from correctness as to say that "*like* instead of *as* . . . is almost exclusively an Americanism, being but rarely heard in England"; an excellent sample of intuitive philologizing.

It remains to state the conclusion to which one is led, by inquiry, touching the conjunction *like*. Its antiquity, then, proves to be very considerable; few good writers have ever lent it their sanction; at one stage of its history, it was confined mostly to poetry; and its repute, as literary or formal English, is now but indifferent. Yet, as a colloquialism, it is, in our day, here in England, widely current, in all ranks of society, from the highest to the low-

est. This being the case, if a British novelist, or dramatist, dealing with contemporary life, studies to avoid it altogether, in the familiar conversation of his characters, though meant to be ever so highly educated, he may fairly be said to do a certain degree of violence to the truth of things as they are. Against no one, therefore, can the charge be brought, otherwise than arbitrarily, of committing an absolute and indefensible solecism, if he chooses, in his talk, to say, for instance, "I think *like* you do." Personal dislike may dictate an adverse judgment on the phrase; but its due, in the eyes of any critic adequately equipped with facts, is toleration. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 16, 1892.

P. S. In the couplet cited above from *The Smith and the Dave*, "lyke I," it may be objected, would not have been used but for "eye" in the first verse.

Again, in the passage cited under the date of 1691, quite possibly there is a rather violent ellipsis of "who" after "others."

The expressions *like as if* and *like as though*, with "I have not anything *like* got through the work," "I felt *like* laughing," etc., are here purposely left undiscussed. The vulgar *like as if* precisely represents the compound conjunction in the second passage which I have quoted from King Alfred.

Notes.

B. WESTERMANN & Co. will have ready in September the third volume of Conway and Crouse's translation of Karl Brugmann's 'Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages.' The fourth and concluding volume, with a full index, will be issued next year.

Ginn & Co. announce for publication in the fall 'Analytics of English Prose and Poetry,' by Prof. L. A. Sherman of the University of Nebraska.

An elementary text-book, and a higher 'Treatise,' on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, by Prof. Edward A. Bowser of Rutgers College, are in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Harper & Bros. announce 'The Desire of Beauty,' an essay in æsthetics, by Theodore Child, and 'A Family Canoe Trip,' by Florence Walters Snedeker, with illustrations.

At a recent meeting of the Berlin Geographical Society, the Chairman, Baron von Richthofen, announced that the society was about to publish, in commemoration of the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America, a work descriptive of the ancient manuscripts and maps in the Italian libraries relating to the history of this event. The German Emperor has promised a contribution of 15,000 marks towards the expense of the undertaking, and it is to be edited by Dr. Kretschmer. The accompanying atlas will contain thirty-five large maps, of which thirty-one are new, and will be published for the first time.

Whether there was any call for a third Life of J. G. Whittier while he is still among us, may be questioned; but few will think it fortunate that Mr. William Sloane Kennedy has for the second time written a biography of the "Poet of Freedom." It forms the latest volume in the series of "American Reformers," published by Funk & Wagnalls Co. After comparing it with the same writer's previous attempt (1882) and with Underwood's (1884), we think him rash in challenging on his title-page the Talmudic ordeal: "He that knows anything worth communicating and does not communicate it, let him be hanged by the neck." There is one really interesting discovery of an anticipation by Whittier of a famous passage in Wendell Phillips's Lovejoy speech in Faneuil Hall, even to the phrase "those pictured lips." On the other hand, the unestablished if probable kinship between Whittier and Daniel Webster is reaffirmed without any attempt at genealogical tabulation, and Caleb Cushing and William Pitt Fessenden are now gayly added to the family circle. There have been genuine groups as remarkable as this in New England descent, but the proof of so much allied greatness would have been worth all the rest of Mr. Kennedy's discursive and slipshod performance. His note on p. 71 about the shaving of Burleigh assigns to Boston a scene from the Rynders mob in New York in 1850, and makes William A. instead of Charles C. Burleigh the hero.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are the New York publishers of Sir W. G. Simpson's handsome volume on the 'Art of Golf.' When we expressed the hope that this excellent game might soon become acclimated here, we hardly looked for so complete a fulfilment of our desire as a year has brought about. At this moment the game is being zealously cultivated at Tuxedo, at Tarrytown, at Cedarhurst, and among the sand-hills of Shinnecock, where it has captured not a little of the overflowing enthusiasm of the new artistic colony. Such an introduction augurs well for the final acceptance of the game, for one of its peculiarities is that every tyro becomes an evangelist by virtue of an afternoon's play, and much may be expected of an infant industry which is smiled on at its birth by fashion, sport, and art. The present volume adds little to the accumulated wisdom of the Badminton book on golf, but it is written in a pleasing style, not devoid of humor, and the make-up is attractive. The illustrations, also, are admirable, and can scarcely fail to be of practical use to the many young men and maidens who are spending these warm afternoons in "sclaffing" turf and breaking clubs.

'A Scamper through Spain and Tangier' (London: Hutchinson & Co.), by Margaret Thomas, is a pleasant record of a traveller's experience, by a lady already favorably known as a poet and sculptor. Its principal value, perhaps, lies in the fact that it shows that two ladies, without escort, can visit the chief Spanish cities cheaply and in perfect safety, though they must be willing to put up with rough fare and considerable discomfort. Art is, of course, the engrossing topic, but there are many bright descriptions of street scenes and of urban life generally in Spain, as it appears to the passing traveller. The impression of the people left on Miss Thomas was not an encouraging one. They seemed to her "ignorant, passionate, and partly savage—above all, indomitably idle, but warm-hearted, affectionate, and disinterested to the last degree, especially the women." The chapters on Tangier are less interesting than the others, yet include a graphic account of snake-charming as well as of the principal performer, who in private life proved both intelligent and not unattractive. The author sounds a note of alarm to all who prefer un-Christian lands without the veneer of modern civilization, in the announcement that "parts of Tangier are lighted with electric light, and it is proposed to make an electric tramway from the Soko to the sea." The book is attractively illustrated from the writer's own sketches, but its literary value suffers from the fact that she has used her notebook so literally that too much of what she writes is, what she herself frankly confesses it to be, "bald, disjointed chat." The whole cost of her trip, which embraced the most interesting cities of Spain, and apparently extended over several months, was only fifty pounds.

Mme. de Sévigné naturally occupies the largest space—quite a fifth—in M. F. Lhomme's selections from the writings of Frenchwomen of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries ('Les Femmes Écrivains: Oeuvres Choisies.' Paris: Librairie de *l'Art;* New York: Macmillan). A still larger proportion of the matter has necessarily the epistolary form, and the book can best be characterized as samples of the art of letter-writing for the period just named. The selection has been managed with an eye to personal and historical information, and the editor, besides a brief sketch of each writer, appends notes and remarks. More than this, he has drawn from a rich source a great number of contemporary engraved portraits and reproduced them in facsimile; and these add very much to the value and attractiveness of a volume which is typographically very open and handsome. The work forms the fourth in a series called the "Literary Family Library," and is to be followed by a volume devoted exclusively to the female writers of the present century, who will certainly endure comparison with their predecessors.

M. Brunetière has published in book form the remarkable lectures he delivered last winter at the Odéon ('Les Époques du Théâtre français [1636-1850]'), and the volume is one which no student of the history of the drama in France can afford to ignore. He has not attempted to trace the drama back to its origins and to exhibit its various transformations in the earlier centuries, but, starting with the masterpiece of the "Cid," he has selected such plays as, in his judgment, mark a change in the principles or the form of tragedy or comedy. In stating his views, the grounds for his belief, M. Brunetière has added to the thoroughness of knowledge and the distinctly high standard of criticism which have always distinguished him, a brightness of expression, a vivacity of exposition, to which he had not accustomed us. Several of these chapters are brilliant; those on the "Cid," on "Tartufe," on "Phèdre," on "Le Mariage de Figaro" may be cited as examples. Novel points of view abound, suggestion is rife, thought springs from thought; and while one may not always agree with M. Brunetière, it must be conceded that his book is invaluable in enabling the reader to follow intelligently and to grasp easily the growth and evolution of the splendid drama of France.

M. Jules Lemaitre continues to collect into volumes his dramatic criticisms from the *Débats*, and the sixth volume of his "Impressions de Théâtre" has just appeared (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern). Especially interesting in this collection are the essays on Ibsen, on the "Alcestis," on Rousseau's attack on the theatre, and on Molière's "Fourberies"—indeed, M. Lemaitre is never more interesting or more suggestive than when he treats of Molière.

In a small brochure, 'Il Marito e i figliuoli di Beatrice Portinari,' Prof. Luigi Randi supplies documentary evidence to prove that Simone di Giuliano Bardi was husband of Dante's Beatrice, and had at least four sons by her. The author is librarian of the Marquis Carlo Ginori, whose collection has served him in his researches, particularly certain manuscript "Libri mercantili de' Bardi." Other private libraries of Florence have also been available to Prof. Randi.

Eight new parts of the annual supplement to

Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (B. Westermann & Co.) take us into the letter R. On the biographical side, the number of Japanese statesmen whose names are introduced is to be remarked. American notices include, of the dead, Gordon L. Ford, Hannibal Hamlin, and J. E. Hilgard; of the living, Joseph Jastrow, Wade Hampton, and David B. Hill, who, we are told, "passes for a vulgar stamp of political trickster and spoilsman." Sir William Johnson has an article, apropos of Griffis's recent Life of that worthy. Readers of the novels of Sophie Kovalevski will find her here set down as a mathematician, first of all. The death of Farina of Cologne is recorded. The French census of 1891 is given, with its showing of a gain of population in five years of only 125,000, against 550,000 from 1881 to 1886. There has been a loss in fifty-five departments. The reviews of French and English literature for 1891, of ethnographical literature for 1886-1891, of historical literature for 1890-1891, of German art exhibitions in 1891, may be mentioned along with the summaries of proceedings at the several Congresses, Prison, Geographical (1889-91), Meteorological, Hygienic, Oriental, etc. Rich in tabulated statistics are the articles on fixed stars having a proper motion, on fire and life insurance, grain production and trade, colonies, names of regiments in Germany and Austria, illegitimacy, earthquakes (with maps for Italy), life-saving stations in Germany, missions (with a colored map), etc.

Part V. of the 'Atlas to accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies,' now in course of publication by the War Department, consists of a large number of maps prepared by both the opposing armies, and chiefly in the Virginia campaign of 1862. But there are also sketches of operations in the Gulf States, and a general exhibition of the campaigns of the Army of the Cumberland throughout the war, in connection with the inquiry concerning Major-Gen. Buell. All these memoranda possess a value which is discernible at a glance.

In our recent notice of the interesting paper on Carlyle in the *Bookman* for July, we said that it closed "with a hitherto unnoticed memorial of his intimacy with Emerson in the shape of an article on 'Indian Meal' published in *Fraser's Magazine* for May, 1849, and signed C." We were wrong in speaking of this article as hitherto unnoticed. In a letter to Emerson, April 19, 1849 ('Correspondence of Carlyle and Emerson,' ii., 176), Carlyle says: "I on my side have already drawn up a fit proclamation of the excellences of this invaluable corn, and admonitions as to the benighted state of English eaters in regard to it;—to appear in *Fraser's Magazine*, or I know not where, very soon." There is much in the 'Correspondence' relating to "this small contribution towards World-History," as Carlyle terms the proceedings in respect to Indian corn of Emerson and himself.

Concerning the recent letter of Annie Russell Wall regarding Raphael's "Hours," a correspondent writes: "A photograph numbered 5,377 in Sommer's catalogue is said by Miss Wall to be 'absolutely the same as the "Hour" named the "Sixth Hour of the Day."' It is so indeed, and no wonder, for it was taken from some engraving or painting of that Sixth Hour. It is a misnomer when called a Bacchante and Vanità. Nor can it have been derived from a Pompeian fresco. The resemblance to the modern 'Hour' is too close for that. It is identical not only in all points of the body of the picture but in the predella, where a squirrel wagoner is driving a parrot. Neither Raphael nor any of his scholars would have stooped to such a slavish mimicry. One point of internal evidence has often struck me, namely, the resemblances of the third 'Hour of the Day' in position of arms, legs, and whole attitude to the 'Galatea' in the Farnesina, which is beyond question Raphael's own work."

It is a sign of the times that coeducation is making headway at the South as well as at the North. The University of Virginia, in very guarded fashion, offers to register women at least eighteen years old for the pursuit of academic studies, without, however, the privilege of attending "the regular lectures or other exercises of any school," though they may use the library and scientific collections of the University. They will be examined upon the same paper and at the same time with their respective classes, "under such conditions of supervision and chaperonage as the Faculty may designate," and will receive a certificate of passing. Mrs. Mary Stuart Smith, Mrs. Mary Sheffey Peters, and Mrs. E. Rosalie Thornton are a resident committee to advise and assist candidates for registration.

On page 412 of our last volume (issue of June 2), the following extract from Plautus was, by mistake, printed without the italicised words: "Neque quidquam meliust mihi, *ut opinor, quam ex me* ut unam faciam literam longam, meum laqueo collum quando obstrinxero."

—The August *Atlantic* takes notice of the Shelley centenary in a poem by Mr. Stedman, entitled "Ariel," in which he dexterously echoes some marked tones of Shelley's music and feeling in order to describe the poet, and at the same time blends a personal element with the whole—all in admirable keeping. The second paper upon "Prometheus Unbound," which must also be associated with the centenary, is less striking than its predecessor, and illustrates further the issue of the critical canon of the Browningites applied to great poetry. The analysis of Shelley's "myth," while it cannot miss the essential large lines of his thought, is illusory in detail—how illusory is sufficiently indicated by the remark, relating to *Demogorgon*, that "he has been compared to the Hegelian Absolute, and any one who enjoys the suggestion may get what he can out of it." The writer does not go to this extreme, but stops with the assertion that "the most useful way to think of him is as the Principle of Reason, . . . lying deep in the unconscious life of humanity, . . . passionless and passive." The "most useful way to think of him" seems to us rather to be Shelley's way, who saw nothing there, with all his imagination, but "a tremendous gloom." The effort to resolve poetry into a system of thought could not easily find less promising material than Shelley, and one proof of its incompetency is that it breaks down in the Fourth Act, which is described as "sentimental and empty," both "the thought and the poetry" being "equally flat." This is because the Act is pure poetry and not Hegelianism at all. The truth is, that the critical canon of the Browningites is inferred from Browning's work, and can no more be applied to the whole of poetry as a measure than a yardstick to the rainbow. We make these remarks without any prejudice to this particular article, which is an example of an unfruitful method of criticism, but is serious and thoughtful and in certain ways helpful to the student. Mr. Stillman writes of the "Revival of Art" in a well-considered paper, with less freshness than clearness of view. He concludes, after a statement of his well-known opinion in respect to methods of instruction and work and to artistic aims, that the world does not want art any longer. Mr. G. F. Watts adds an interesting but too brief comment, in which he agrees with Mr. Stillman's "general tenor," and then proceeds to make a few reservations in detail. A sketch of Townsend Harris, the first American Minister to Japan, by W. E. Griffis, well deserves more than a mention; but we must leave our readers to find it out for themselves.

—*Harper's* begins a review of the literary groups of Paris, from the pen of Theodore Child, well illustrated, in which the genealogical relations of the Naturalists, Romanticists, Symbolists, Décadents, Parnassiens, Psychologists, Impressionists, Fenanists, etc., etc., are made out as clearly as if they were mapped, and the result on the reader is to make him believe that literary men in Paris are a swarm of ephemeræ, with great powers of self-multiplying in a brief span of existence. It seems less the germination of life than of decomposition; but Paris has the best advertised literature in the world, and confers a renown like that of a writer for syndicates here, only glorified and Barnumized. An historical contribution of an exceptional sort is made by the Rev. John F. Hurst, in the "Salzburger Exiles in Georgia," in which a chapter of the settlement of the colonies is retold, and we are again reminded of how many strains are blended in the native American that now is. The Italian Army is elaborately described, Corfu and the Ionian Sea are picturesquely set forth, and Ice and Ice-making are made the subject of a partly scientific, partly practical article.

—The midsummer *Century* has the whole choir of poets in song, and fairly represents what poetry among us is capable of at the present moment. Mr. Aldrich's filed lines, with the touch of nature and sentiment, show his even power, while Mr. Stedman, with a different technique, writes smoothly also on an equally characteristic theme, and Mr. Gilder writes the true lyric. Their number makes the rest obscure, but they exercise "the accomplishment of verse" inoffensively and in very good form. The prose is largely fiction and travel. Prof. Todd's "Ascent of Fuji the Peerless," which opens the number, is on all accounts of most interest. He and his wife, who joins with him in the authorship, were of the party which made the journey to examine the summit with a view to its fitness as the station of the Boyden Astronomical Observatory, which, by the terms of the trust, must be on the top of a mountain. The journey through the lowland, with its Japanese traits, is narrated with much feeling for the landscape, and when the story comes to the time of the ascent, this power of natural description is especially marked. The summit is a point of pilgrimage for the natives, and their neighborhood on the mountain-side in the mist or in the open adds an element of human interest seldom met with in accounts of mountain ascents. On the top the necessary experiments were made to test the fitness of the site for observation, and with complete success; but the scenery of the crater and the world around, the impression of homeless nature made on the mind, and such phases of nature-poetry seem to have been the main things brought away from their experience by the travellers. The Plains of Canada, the Columbian Exposition, and Castelar's description of the voyage of Columbus and his landing, and the game of Golf are the subjects of the most important remain-

ing papers. The portrait of Shelley, rendered through the medium of a chalk drawing after the original, is a more satisfactory reproduction than we have yet had of a face that seems to baffle the engraver. Though the frontispiece of the number, it accompanies a paper on "Shelley's Work," in which Prof. Woodberry judges the poet's difference with his age. Another contribution of curious interest in connection with the Shelley centenary is Mr. John Malone's "Search for Shelley's American Ancestor."

—*Scribner's* publishes its "fiction number," as usual, this month, but the contents include a paper by Prof. Shaler, on Icebergs, well illustrated, a plea for "Children's Rights," which are by no means a matter of fiction, and a half-historical, half-descriptive account of a London parish by the river, by Walter Besant. This is one of the series upon the Poor of the Great Cities, and shows a remarkable amount of actual work done by the Church in behalf of the lowest classes. In the present instance everything conceivable seems to be done and the whole well organized. The parish is not particularly known, nor is it a place for "fashionable" slumming. The cost is £810, of which £500 is raised by subscription. The effect of all this labor, of which the greatest part is of course personal, is, says Mr. Besant, to reconcile the poor to the Church: "Those who live in the dens and witness these things done daily must be stocks and stones if they were not moved by them. They are not stocks and stones; they are actually, though slowly, moved by them; the old hatred of the Church —you may find it expressed in the workingman's papers of fifty years ago—is dying out rapidly in our great towns; the brawling is better; even the drinking is diminishing. And there is another—perhaps an unexpected—result. Not only are the poor turning to the Church which befriends them, the Church which they used to deride, but the clergy are turning to the poor; there are many for whom the condition of the people is above all other earthly considerations. If that great conflict —long predicted—of capital and labor ever takes place, it is safe to prophesy that the Church will not desert the poor." On the literary side Mrs. James T. Fields's translation of Guérin's 'Centaur' deserves notice.

—Two parties, neither of which appears to have much love for the other, have been for a long while pressing forward the cultus of Joan of Arc in France. Twenty-five years ago Louis Veuillot taunted his contemporaries (in 'Les Odeurs de Paris') with their unworthiness to set up a statue to La Pucelle, and told them that some day repentant France would beg her canonization of the Holy Father, when her statue would be seen elsewhere than on the street that leads to the new Opera-house. This year a quite new proposal came from the other side—the side that looks upon Joan chiefly as a patriot. M. Joseph Fabre, noticing that the chief events in her history fell within the month of May, came out in the *Temps* with the suggestion that the whole month should be devoted to her, regardless of the fact that to pious Roman Catholics May is already the month of Mary. M. Fabre published daily in the *Temps*, throughout the month, the acts of Joan upon the corresponding day, including her examinations and execution. This was interesting reading, but, so far as we have seen, the proposed hallowing of the month met with no response. The latest demonstration comes from the ecclesiastical side, and is of a sort that Veuillot did not foresee, and which, probably, he would not have much liked. On the first of July a statue of the Pucelle was set up at Rouen, on the slope of Bonsecours, under circumstances which made the ceremony not only a solemn rehabilitation of Joan, but also in some sort an act of reparation and penance on the part of those who now occupy the places of the ecclesiastics who had her burned. More than twenty prelates, cardinals, archbishops, and bishops assisted at the ceremony. The Archbishop of Reims, Cardinal Langénieux, blessed the monument, which is the work of the sculptor Barrias. Jehanne la Pucelle is represented standing, with bared head and fettered hands, and hair cut close, just as she stood at the stake to be burned as a sorceress and a heretic. On either side are figures of saints, representing the Voices of Domrémy.

—The following table is interesting as showing the amount of money expended for the purchase and received for the sale of works of art by the nations represented at the Munich art exhibitions of 1889, 1890, and 1891:

	Bought.	Sold.
	Marks.	Marks.
America	376,620	16,840
Germany, without Munich.	397,720	145,975
Munich	372,181	614,547
Austria and Hungary	95,040	40,370
Russia	58,975	11,500
Switzerland	25,698	1,048
England	85,890	71,177
Denmark	.....	6,650
Sweden and Norway	5,500	19,000
Belgium	4,250	49,684
France	10,250	97,236
Spain	2,000	97,730
Holland	24,700	123,074
Italy	13,720	192,843

Among countries foreign to Germany, America (*i. e.*, the United States) holds, according to this report, the foremost rank as a purchaser of works of art; and the lively appreciation of this fact is inducing Germany, and especially Munich, to make every effort to be well represented in this department at the Chicago Exhibition. There is no doubt that the reputation of Munich in this respect has suffered from the vast number of hasty sketches, mere pot-boilers of needy artists, sold by dealers to tourists as specimens of what they are pleased to call the Munich school of art.

TWO BOOKS BY MR. MAHAFFY.

The Greek World under Roman Sway. From Polybius to Plutarch. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan & Co.

Problems in Greek History. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan.

THE threads of Hellenic weaving which entered into the vast fabric of the Roman world are so varied and so miscellaneous that it is impossible to extract from them a pattern of much unity or consistency. Mr. Mahaffy has done his best; but the reader must content himself with episodes and excursions instead of connected and developed history. The Roman Republic was a hard master compared with the Roman Empire. The Republic had just won an unexampled dominion which it had neither the experience, the precedents, nor the temper to administer. The consequence was a series of desperate revolts in every quarter against the tyranny of its iron hand. The spirit of this tyranny Prof. Mahaffy illustrates in a striking paragraph, which we can well understand even if we do not fully accept the parallel:

"But still there was something hard, relentless, and cruel in Roman ways, which must always have filled Greek servants and subjects with horror and dismay. Not only what was done, but the way in which it was done, was harsh and cold; and so I imagine the Romans to have held the place in European disfavor which the middle-class Englishman now holds, who knows no foreign tongue, respects no foreign habit, recognizes no foreign virtue, but walks through the world assuming the English respectability, just as the Roman assumed his *gravitas*, to be the stamp of a superior race."

Yet, in spite of this hardness and coldness, the Greeks, who veered this way and that, and were ready to join other insurrections as they had joined Mithridates, had more to expect from the Romans than from any other masters; they were treated with comparative leniency by Sulla, by Lucullus and Pompey; and the idea was fixed among the Romans that the Greeks were one thing and all the rest of the East another—that the Greeks had the monopoly of culture, and that the "rest of mankind were only fit to serve them and the Romans."

But this Roman feeling for Hellenic culture and manners varied greatly at different epochs. It might be traced by a fluctuating curve which rises high at the time of Flaminius, which sinks in the period of Cato and Cicero, which finally, under Claudius, begins the long ascent that culminates in the Byzantine Empire. The most original and the most curious of Prof. Mahaffy's studies is the chapter which describes the Hellenism of Cicero. Cicero knew the Greeks thoroughly, he knew their literature, their philosophy, even their art, more than he professes or than Mr. Mahaffy will have us believe. He had lived among the Greeks, studied among them, made acquaintances whom he calls friends among them; he praises them, he pays them compliments; he allows them some virtues, many graces, and supreme culture; he accepts and returns their civilities, but he will not make intimates of them—he will not trust them, he warns his friends not to trust them. He uses the same proverb as to their honesty which one hears to this day circulating in Italy and the Levant. Before a jury, he is their patron and their apologist; when he is rehearsing the plunders of Verres, he disclaims all critical knowledge of their art, as a dignified advocate would nowadays disclaim a knowledge of the mysteries of millinery. In this disclaimer it is likely that he was posing to some extent, was yielding to a fashion and was calculating his effect upon his listeners. For if he does not understand Greek art, and if even in Athens he has little to say of the beauty of the city, yet he certainly does understand the Greek feeling for art and the Greek estimate of art treasures.

The Romans, indeed, were by degrees acquiring some sense of the value of the immense collections which were displayed in their own museums. The spoils of Syracuse, of Tarentum, of Thermum, and of Corinth were at first no more to them than the elephants which walked in some triumphal procession. They were merely the symbols and the curiosities of conquest. They were no sign of taste, nor did they beget taste for many generations. But this barbarous ignorance could not continue. The guilds of Roman merchants who multiplied and prospered in Delos

and Rhodes began to be infected by the spirit of their neighbors, and to erect magnificent halls and temples. The bequest of the last Attalus conveyed the rich art of Pergamus for administration as a public trust. The value of masterly work in marble and bronze and ivory, as *property*, if nothing else, forced itself upon the mind of the Romans. If they never became artists, they became amateurs and virtuosi. The greed of Verres gave place to the refinement of Lucullus, to the genuine enthusiasm and magnificent patronage of Hadrian.

The marks which Alexander left on India and the far East could not, in the nature of things, be deep or permanent. Mr. Mahaffy, who is here, of course, not on his own ground, sums up this influence as resulting in a wealth of Hellenistic coins, in the Corinthian decorations of certain temples, and in "the spiritual legacy" of the drama. As to the Corinthian architecture of the Grandhara school, Mr. Vincent A. Smith has lately concluded that it is Indo-Roman rather than Hellenic, that it dates from the Syrian expedition of Hadrian, and is derived from Palmyra, while, curiously enough, the later development of this school has the strongest affinities with the Christian art of the catacombs. The kinship and affinities of the Indian drama with the Greek are affirmed, it is true, by the eminent names of Brandes and Windisch; and yet they are denied recently by so high an authority as Schroeder. None of the authorities have ever pretended, we believe, that the Greek had the slightest influence on the *style* of the Hindu drama. Perhaps the Sanskrit is not in its genius susceptible of such an influence. At any rate, the merest amateur, if the amateur has a right to say a word on such a question, must feel when he reads the 'Sakuntala' that in style as well as in setting nothing can be more exotic—nothing more remote in its indolent movement, its tropical color, its cumbrous elephantine periods, its flowery, luxuriant tangle of speech from the simple beauty and directness of the classics. In this respect the two literatures are separated *toto cœlo*; they stand at opposite hemispheres.

For the period of Plutarch, Prof. Mahaffy is quite right in preferring his testimony to that of the monstrous tales of Apuleius, and in his statement that Apuleius and Lucian are romancers borrowing from a common source, Lucius of Patræ, whom Photius mentions. Any reader of Photius must be struck with this. Indeed, Lucian himself was probably the Boccaccio of some earlier folk-tale. He is equally right, at this point, in rejecting Hertzberg, the learned and conscientious historian, who did so much to mark out and smooth Mr. Mahaffy's way. There are certain human documents which can hardly be cited, but which the scholar must study when he writes about morals; and Hertzberg occasionally shows his ignorance of these. He alludes, for instance, to Plutarch's story of the fair and adventurous widow, Ismenodora, who kidnapped a Greek youth as a short and easy way to matrimony, and he compares her behavior to that of "some wayward and strong-willed American lady," whom the learned Doctor may have met in some delusive novel, but never, we trust, in Halle.

The chapters on Plutarch and his times will be found the freshest and most interesting in the book. They analyze and sum up those discussions and moral treatises which the reader of the 'Lives' will hardly venture to explore for himself. They show the sage of Chæronea as, above all, a man of compromises—a philosopher who went far with Plato, and the Stoics, and the Pythagoreans, and stopped short of the extreme views of all; a political thinker who, while writing in Greece, believed in monarchy and in the beneficence of some tyrants, maintained heartily the blessings of the Roman sway and the Roman peace, and yet maintained at the same time the benefit of political parties; a pious lover of the old shrines and sacrifices to Apollo, curious in foreign rites and worship, who yet taught as a monotheist, "in splendid words, the spirituality of God." In politics, he admits that the demagogue had disappeared, yet he shows that there was no chance remaining for the respectable ambition of the statesman. The Empire, which had at last secured social unity in Greece, left room only for a neighborly, self-sacrificing public spirit. In religion, although he knew nothing and cared nothing about Christianity, his tracts are still useful to the moralist; his doctrine of demons who are the *mauvais sujets* of the universe and responsible for its freaks and shortcomings, is still occasionally heard in our pulpits. He represents, indeed, as Prof. Mahaffy says, the spirit of our times, "the spirit of compromise between orthodoxy and scepticism, which gladly listens to the defence of the old and reads with curiosity the assertions of the new." There were substantial reasons, in this period of decline, for maintaining the old shrines, and cults, and ceremonies. They satisfied the curiosity of strangers, they drew crowds and money. Like the Passion Play at Ammergau, the Olympian, Isthmian, and Pythian festivals survived because an old-fashioned pious ritual continued to be lucrative.

If civilization is commensurate with the art of dining, the society of Plutarch which is revealed in the 'Symposium' must be rated very high. The choice of guests, the assignment of places, the *menu*, the delicate question whether one may take with him an uninvited "shadow" (σκιά)—such points as these are discussed with a refinement, a nice observation of human nature, which are entirely modern, which are even *fin de siècle*; and yet when we come to the details of the "table-talk," we encounter *niaiseries*, trivialities of etiquette, and occasional gross breaches of good manners. Indecencies were not to be escaped in the houses of the times, where the visitor is warned to shut his ears "to the outcry of slaves being punished or maids upon the rack"; and where to the deeper curses of slavery were added the slovenliness and indecorum which follow in its train. We should doubtless have found ourselves ill at ease in the best-ordered household of the period. But we should not have found ourselves at home among Swift's gentlemen and ladies, nor in some of those watering-places of the last century whose filthiness and savage manners Miss Hutton's memoirs have lately made us acquainted with. Nor are we sure that the conversations of Shakspere and of Swift are free from that "naturalism" which Mr. Mahaffy, with Hertzberg, complains of in Plutarch and his contemporaries. Plutarch, like most of the Greeks, could not understand Sir Galahad, though Euripides divined and anticipated that type in his "Ion" and his "Hippolytus." "Naturalism," in fact, stands always just outside the door of civilization; it steals inside the door in certain French and English novels. Our moral standards are not really higher than the highest of Plutarch's time; perhaps they are more firmly held and more widely acknowledged; perhaps, when they are violated, we pay them the homage of a keener remorse.

The universal peace which fostered a comparative prosperity in Hellenedom was not so successful in fostering genius and literature. There was no career left for the statesman, the politician, or the orator. The great cities were protected, but they were also caged. The largest questions which agitated the people of Tarsus or Alexandria were whether they were to receive the honor of a visit from the Emperor, or the lucrative privilege of holding the Roman assizes within their borders. There was nothing in such questions to inspire men's souls; and in fact the time was barren. Its great and only birth was Plutarch. The efflorescence of the anthology represented in the epigrams of Meleager of Gadara and of Philodemus was characteristic, but was slight and unimportant. The author of the treatise on "the Sublime" complains, in a passage of dignified melancholy, that genius has been dwarfed and paralyzed by the all-embracing and paternal arms of the Government. There is certainly some truth in the lament. One wonders sometimes whether the communistic millennium of Mr. Bellamy and his friends might not issue in a similar stagnation of intellect and of literature.

What we have in Mr. Mahaffy's 'Problems in Greek History' is in the main a review of his own contributions and methods in the treatment of Greek history and literature, showing how he has anticipated by years and years the results of the most recent research, with a running commentary on the shortcomings of scholars who happen not to know or not to accept views that Mr. Mahaffy happens to know or happens to accept, and with an ever-recurring justification of the perpetual parallel between parties in Ireland and parties in Greece. As to Mr. Mahaffy's anticipations, the matter is very simple. There is an inevitable oscillation in the treatment of all historical and literary characters, and whenever the pendulum has swung back to Mr. Mahaffy's point of view, he gives forth a pæan in honor of his own insight. Men are Herodoteans or Thucydideans as they are Platonists or Aristotelians—it is largely a matter of temperament—and sometimes the Herodoteans come to the front, sometimes the Thucydideans. Those who have read (and who has not read?) Mr. Green's 'Short History of England' were not surprised when Mr. Bryce told us that Mr. Green was an Herodotean, that he saw as clearly as Mr. Mahaffy does that Herodotus's breadth of vision and depth of thought have been disguised by the limpid lapse of his incomparable style. But perhaps Mr. Green learned from Mr. Mahaffy how to appreciate the Father of History. That Thucydides has been overrated as Herodotus has been underrated is not a novel view. There were anti-Thucydideans before Müller-Strübing, as there were pro-Herodoteans before Mahaffy. In the very year in which Mr. Mahaffy was born (1839), Wilhelm Vischer took up the cudgels against Adolf Schmidt and Immanuel Ogienski of blessed oblivion, who blasphemed the name of Thucydides two years before. Mr. Mahaffy's objection to Thucydides's theme is as old as Dionysius of Halicarnassus, and, being as old as Dionysius, is naturally much older; for our Halicarnassian friend cribbed freely. But it would be time wasted to recall Mr. Mahaffy's forerunners, whether orthodox or heterodox or paradoxical. The exaggerated estimate of Xenophon and his fellow-soldiers of fortune which is ascribed by Mr. Mahaffy to the "literary ability" of Xenophon might be as fairly ascribed to the place that the 'Anabasis' has occupied for many years in elementary instruction; and what reader of Isocrates needs to be told that the weakness of the Persian Empire was as

fully revealed by the raid of Agesilaus as by the adventures of the Ten Thousand?

But it is a weariness to see these commonplaces brought out with the air of a revelation —a weariness to be told that Mr. Mahaffy has found it necessary to enlighten the world on the art of Demosthenes and the patriotism of the Macedonian party at Athens. To be sure, he intimates that his remarks are meant for the island to the east of him, but all American scholars read German, and Mr. Mahaffy's advantage over his fellows in this respect does not stir envy on this side of the water. As for the patriotism of the Macedonian party, the introduction to Bernays's 'Phokion' shows amusingly enough how rife in the last century was this game of reading modern history into ancient history.

Of course every reviewer has had his fling at Mr. Mahaffy's weakness for seeing the spectre of Home Rule in every complication of Greek politics, and much of Mr. Mahaffy's space in his 'Problems in Greek History' is taken up with a vindication of his historical parallels; and in what must be considered sheer bravado he repeats his offence at every turn, and crowns his performances in this line by a parallel between the free Greek States in their attitude toward Philip, and the Irish landlords in their attitude toward Mr. Parnell (p. 137). True, he grants that the parallel may "appear far-fetched" "to those who have not studied both cases so carefully as [he has] been obliged to do"; but the whole passage is of a piece with the audacity of the author and his supreme self-confidence.

No one can take up a book of Mr. Mahaffy's without finding samples enough of manly and vigorous common sense, forcible expressions of sound doctrine, flashes of insight, sparkles of wit, ingenious and suggestive combinations; and yet so blurred, so marred, are these excellences by the lack of some of the homeliest virtues of scholarship, that no one who has a jot of the *animus suspicax* demanded of the philologian dares quote Mr. Mahaffy as an authority, by reason of the homage which he pays at the shrine of the great goddess Dash—a more dangerous goddess even than "the great goddess Lubricity," of whom Mr. Matthew Arnold had so much to say towards the close of his career.

CODRINGTON'S MELANESIANS.

The Melanesians: Studies in their Anthropology and Folk-Lore, by R. H. Codrington, D.D., late of the Melanesian Mission, etc. With illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xvi, 419.

In 1885 Dr. Codrington published his elaborate work on 'The Melanesian Languages,' which was duly reviewed in these columns. The present volume is of vastly greater interest to the general reader. The Melanesian race may, at some future time, be studied by an abler man than Dr. Codrington, but long before he could equip himself equally well for the work, the race will have been so modified by contact with civilization as to present a very different object for observation and study. The rapidity with which native arts and methods of living have been, not merely modified, but utterly extirpated, is wonderful. For example, ordinarily the native males of the Banks' Islands went naked, but on certain ceremonial and festal occasions they wore dresses of great beauty. One of these, "a kind of cape, in four oblong parts, beautifully made in colored matting, the highest product of Banks' Island art," is pictured on page 108 of Dr. Codrington's book. On p. 321 the author tells us that the art of making this garment "expired some years ago with the last two men who practised it." Two *malo saru*, as they were called in the native tongue, "probably the only existing examples, are in the British Museum." As Dr. Codrington resided for several years in the Banks' Islands, spoke the language of one of them (Mota) with ease and fluency, had a considerable knowledge of the languages of nearly all the other islands and a very extensive intercourse with the natives, his testimony as to the former existence and the present extinction of the art is indisputable. Again, the native methods of cooking, though slow and laborious, were perfectly adapted to develop in the highest degree the appetizing and nutritious qualities of the products of the native soil. Iron pots and kettles obtained from Europeans are fast supplanting the native ovens. The result attained is greatly inferior, but food easily though imperfectly prepared in minutes is fast triumphing over that perfectly but laboriously prepared in hours. Dr. Codrington frequently alludes, though obscurely and guardedly, to the fact that large numbers of the Melanesian people have been carried off as "contract laborers" to other lands. For this chapter of Melanesian history we must look to other sources. There is, however, a whole volume implied in the name which the natives give to the vessels in which these "laborers" are carried off. They call them "thief-ships." Some of these "laborers" return to their native islands, and bring with them an abundance of the vices and diseases, with but few of the virtues and advantages, of civilization.

More than all other causes combined, the work of the missionaries tends to the utter destruction of the whole fabric of Melanesian society. This destructive effect is by no means confined to the converts to Christianity. Thousands who have not embraced the new faith have learned to doubt the power and ridicule the ceremonies of the old. Perhaps the most characteristic feature of Melanesian life is the existence of "societies which celebrate Mysteries strictly concealed from the uninitiated and from all females." The number of these societies was formerly very great, and initiation into them was eagerly sought. Their mysteries generally had no religious significance—in fact, no importance whatever except in the imaginations of those who had not been admitted to the secret. Partly through the conversion to Christianity of members, partly from other circumstances which we have no space to detail, the secret mysteries of these societies have become generally known. The awe with which they were formerly regarded has died out. Publicity has changed respect into ridicule. A few more generations, and these societies, many of which have existed for centuries, will be known only in the pages of such works as Dr. Codrington's.

We cannot help thinking that it would have added to both the interest and the value of Dr. Codrington's books if he had given a little more prominence to his personal experience and more details of the history of his connection with the Melanesian mission. Beyond a few meagre statements in his prefaces, and an occasional allusion in the course of his works, he has almost entirely effaced all traces of his personality. He became connected with the mission in 1863, and at once enjoyed the instruction and friendship of Bishop Patteson, who was then at its head. Bishop Patteson was one of those rare and remarkable men who to high intellectual and moral endowments join a fineness of ear and a flexibility of tongue which make the acquirement of a new language a matter of hardly more effort than is the learning of a new step to the practised dancer. Dr. Codrington entered upon his duties in the mission school at Mota, or, as it is often called, "Sugarloaf Island," in the Banks' Islands group. He was afterwards connected with the mission school on Norfolk Island. To this school young men were brought, for education, from nearly all the other Melanesian islands. They learned the Mota language quickly and easily, and Dr. Codrington, who had completely mastered that tongue, was thus enabled to prosecute his investigations under exceptionally favorable circumstances. He has also visited many other islands, but of the extent of his intercourse with their inhabitants he does not give us sufficient data to judge. His connection with the mission closed in 1887; from that time until 1891 we may infer that he was occupied in the preparation of the present work. It thus appears that twenty-eight of the best years of his life have been devoted to the study and description of the people of Melanesia. It was a fortunate thing for the students of anthropology that Dr. Codrington's labors commenced when they did. To borrow the language of the sportsman, he may be said to have caught the Melanesian people "on the fly." In most of the islands the ancient beliefs, manners, and customs were still in full vigor. Where they had been affected by contact with civilization there were still even young men who remembered and were able to describe their pristine form. A few more years, and much of the most valuable information which Dr. Codrington communicates would have been unattainable. Later pictures might have been more minute, but they would have been distorted and deceptive images.

The manner in which Dr. Codrington gathered his materials and composed his work was in some respects peculiar. He tells us that his book, "though written by a missionary, with his full share of the prejudices and predilections belonging to missionaries, is not meant to have what is generally understood to be a missionary character." He hopes that it will be of value to missionaries because he "is persuaded that one of the first duties of a missionary is to try to understand the people among whom he works." His object is to help all who may, from curiosity or from the nature of their studies, desire to obtain an accurate notion of that form of society which has been worked out on the Melanesian Islands. His book is intended to be, not a guide to missionaries, but a contribution to the natural history of mankind. Nowhere in the work have we been able to find any trace of theological bias. Nothing is presented as supporting or condemning any theological system or principle.

Another great object of the author has been "to set forth as much as possible what natives say about themselves, not what Europeans say about them." Hence his book consists almost entirely of what fell under his own observation or what was communicated to him by natives. He sought the explanation of what he saw from the natives themselves; and, before accepting their communications as true, he questioned and cross-questioned them with the keenness and persistency of a lawyer trying a difficult case. Some of the most interesting portions of his book are those in which he points out the errors and mistakes to which traders, missionaries, and visitors of all kinds

are liable in trying to gain a knowledge of the beliefs and practices of the Melanesian islanders. On page 22 he says: "It is probably true that in every account of Melanesian affairs given to the world, tribes are spoken of; but a belief that every savage people is made up of tribes is part of the mental equipment of a civilized visitor." As a matter of fact, "there are no tribes among the natives. . . . Whatever political organization can be found can never be described as that of a tribe grouped round its hereditary or elective chief." Again, in treating of the Melanesian religion, he says: "Every one, missionary and visitor, carries with him some preconceived ideas; he expects to see idols, and he sees them; images are labelled idols in museums whose makers carved them for amusement; a Solomon Islander fashions the head of his lime-box stick into a grotesque figure, and it becomes the subject of a woodcut as a Solomon Island god."

There is hardly any subject in the political, social, or individual life of a race which is not treated with more or less fulness by Dr. Codrington. He often regrets, sometimes almost pathetically, the wide interval between the work he had conceived and the work he has executed. The "Folk-Lore" of the Melanesians certainly does not receive in his treatment a prominence corresponding to that given to it on the title-page. At any rate, we have left ourselves room for a bare mention of the subject. There are translations of thirty-one stories occupying fifty-four pages. Dr. Codrington's introduction to them fills a little over a single page. Their prolixity is very great, and the repetitions of the same things in the same language and in the same story are sometimes wearisome. In constructive ingenuity they are inferior to the folk-tales of the western nations. They are fanciful rather than imaginative. As aids to the comprehension of the modes of thought and daily usages of the people they are of the greatest value. A very serviceable index completes this important work.

The Life and Letters of Charles Samuel Keene. By George Somes Layard. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. Pp. xxii, 463.

It was only toward the end of his life that the very great talent of the late Charles Keene was estimated at anything like its true value. Just now the pendulum has swung very much the other way, and his praises are sung in a high key. He was first admired and understood in France; but the English, having at last awakened to the fact that he was a true artist, seem inclined to get all the glory possible from him, and to proclaim him a greater artist than he really was. One of the signs of this tendency is the present voluminous Life. His career was absolutely uneventful. He was born and he died, and between those two events he produced a vast quantity of work of great merit. He wrote a good many pleasant, gossipy letters to personal friends, which show considerable eccentricity and manias for music and for miscellaneous collecting. This is somewhat slender material for a large book, especially as any criticism of his work is intentionally omitted; but, by dint of a rambling, slipshod style, much repetition and discursiveness, and a great many more of the very similar letters than were necessary, this stout volume has been produced. It is handsomely got up, and contains a large number of good reproductions of drawings and sketches by Keene; and these, rather than the text, are likely to prove the chief interest of the book. Most interesting of all is the carrying out of a suggestion of Mr. Pennell's in the opposing of a *Punch* engraving entitled "Forwards" with a heliogravure of the original drawing. Keene the draughtsman is the only Keene that interests the world much, and these and other plates in the present volume will materially assist in forming a true conception of him, his great merits, and his limitations.

Keene's admirers constantly speak of him as a great technician, and *Punch*, in terms which Mr. Layard acknowledges to be "hyperbolical," called him "The inimitable Charles Keene, universally acknowledged to be the greatest master of 'Black and White' technique who ever put pencil to wood-block!" It is the universality of the acknowledgment, however, not the judgment itself, that Mr. Layard objects to. The judgment he may be said to have made his own. The last part of the phrase is neither here nor there. Keene worked on the wood in his early days, but what counts in his work was done, like most modern illustration, on paper; and it is as a pen-and-ink draughtsman that he will be judged. As a pen-and-ink draughtsman, a master of technique is precisely what he was *not*. Considered with regard to its capability of reproduction, Keene's technique was notoriously bad. *Punch* has always retained the wood-engraver and refused to touch "process." As it is a weekly paper, its engraving is necessarily hasty and poor. Its blocks are unscrewed and delivered to a number of engravers, each of whom cuts his little bit without seeing the whole design. Anything but the merest "near enough" facsimile is rendered impossible by such methods, and the result must be the profound discouragement of a fine draughtsman. The result of this discouragement on Keene was to cause him more and more to neglect the question of reproduction entirely and to treat the drawing as a distinct work of art, without regard to what the engraver might make of it. As the latter was sure to butcher the work at any rate, why consider his capabilities at all? So he invented and made for himself inks of every shade except black, used rough paper to break up his lines, and a pointed stick to give a curious softness of touch. The result is altogether unreproducible except by a process like heliogravure that could as well render pure wash. What the artist suffered in the hands of the *Punch* engravers is almost incredible without the ocular demonstration afforded by the two plates already mentioned.

Considered in itself, however, and with no regard to reproduction, Keene's technique is not a pen technique at all. Working in a material the essence of which is the line, he was almost entirely indifferent to beauty of line. There is no charm of handling in his work, and there is not a square inch of it comparable as technique to that of Abbey or of hundreds of other pen-and-ink men who do not approach Abbey's wonderful perfection. His work must be judged by its contents and not by its manner, if it is to be admired; and it is, so judged, very admirable. The style is a good one only in the sense that it expresses the mind of the artist well and clearly. It is a good style *for him*, not a good pen-and-ink style *per se*.

Keene had not only little feeling for line, but little feeling for beauty as well. Mr. Layard maintains, on the strength of one drawing, that Keene could have drawn beautiful women had he liked; but he does not give the drawing, nor have we ever seen a drawing of Keene's that showed any sense of beauty. And surely, in matters of art, a lack of desire is a lack of power. To say that an artist did not care to draw beautiful faces is exactly the same thing as to say he could not. His nature did not fit him for it.

But if Keene's sense of beauty was small, his sense of character and his sense of humor were very great. The literary humor of his "legends" was, as often as not, another's; but the pictorial humor of the drawings was his own, and it is truly "inimitable." In the rendering of a type, an expression, an action, clearly and firmly, with the slightest exaggeration, yet with a distinctly humorous flavor, he is a really great artist. Although one of the most voluminous contributors to a "comic paper," he was never a caricaturist. His humor is of the fine and serious sort, and may be compared to that of Thackeray in literature. As "documents" for the future student of English middle-class life in the nineteenth century, his drawings will be invaluable. Nor must his skill as a landscape draughtsman be forgotten. His backgrounds are often even more wonderful than his figures, and the way in which wide stretches of country with all their characteristics, and with the sun and wind upon them, are rendered by a few lines and touches, is truly admirable and amazing.

The illustrations in the present volume are not always well chosen, and there is too much of preliminary sketching and scrawling, and not enough of the finished work; but to those who know Keene only from the totally inadequate wood-engraving of *Punch*, they will indeed, as Mr. Layard says, prove "nothing short of a revelation" of the great artist that Charles Keene was.

The Modern Odyssey; or, Ulysses Up to Date. With thirty-one illustrations in collotype. Cassell & Co.

"Ulysses up to date!" Up to what date? No year of date is given in all the volume from first to last. The earliest instance of a date by the day of the month is the author's departure from Honolulu, August 6, and the last instance of that sort is February 16, the day on which he reached Calcutta. In this regard the traveller clearly imitated the fox who ran into his hole and then pulled the hole in after him. But a globe-trotter must leave some telltale traces. Ulysses says that he shipped at San Francisco in July, on the same steamer with Queen Kapiolani. Chroniclers of notable events show that this Queen had landed there on April 20, 1887, on her way to Victoria's jubilee a month later. Now if the Pacific Queen thought nothing else worth seeing after the British pageant, she may have been on the home-stretch within six weeks afterwards. Our hero's wanderings then began in 1887—or a year later if the Ocean Queen deferred her return so long. The reason for thus covering up dates is not apparent. It sometimes gives a traveller a chance to dodge critics, but it oftener opens a weak side for attacks from those who infer his date from his title-page or other circumstantial evidence. Accordingly some readers will think that Ulysses must have put Puck's girdle round the globe before the year 1875, for his collotype of the Acropolis at Athens shows the Frank tower at the entrance, which Schliemann demolished in that year, still standing.

The modern Ulysses caught his love of travel from his ancient namesake. He had studied Greek enough to find the 'Odyssey' no longer "a drilled dull lesson," but the first and best

of romances. In a circumgyration of a year and a day, *visere gestiens*, he skimmed off the cream of five continents and no drop tasted sour. No wreck or even storm, or quarantine, or railroad catastrophe, or other "swift illapse of accident disastrous." Occasionally he met a Circe, or rather Nausicaa, but no Scylla and Charybdis. Only one of the Americans he encountered could he compare to Polyphemus. His sojourns were usually, like that of the wave-worn pilgrim, among hospitable Phæacians, and the last stages of both in hastening home were on a sleeping-car.

The modern Ulysses went with the sun—saw something of the Atlantic slopes, both ours and the Canadian; went westward by the Canadian line; dropped down to San Francisco by water, and so steamed to New Zealand, calling at Honolulu. In that Australian outlier he saw the geyser region, met a Cantab friend, and was then off for Tasmania. Passing to the mainland, he was in Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney, and thence by a voyage of twenty-five days arrived in Hong Kong. After a flying trip to Japan, we find him in Calcutta, lingering in cities of the Great Moguls, and from Bombay embarking for Ismailia. Cairo, Athens, and Constantinople interested him, but not, perhaps, more than Sebastopol and Belgrade. Finding at Buda-Pesth that he could reach London in forty hours, he did so.

Our traveller had little in common with that chronic grumbler, the Homeric Ulysses; but then he had nothing to grumble about except an insult to his deck-chair. His greatest hardship was jolting in a hack over New York pavements—a torture to which he feelingly alludes in New Zealand, Jeypoor, and Melbourne as more barbarous than anything in any civilized city. Whatever our Ulysses saw he made a note of. Many of his phrases—as where he terms an ex-President an extinct volcano, a pagoda a pile of hats, the Southern Cross as in shape a schoolboy's kite, and Long Island a whale stranded off New York—must stick in the memories of his readers, as perhaps stuck in his own that phrase of Lowell's in "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago," "his old hats, . . . piled like a black pagoda under his dressing-table." His eye for color is as keen as a mosaic worker's who can distinguish 17,000 nuances. His word-pictures of "September foliage in Vermont" are worthy of Ruskin; but at that season Ulysses was not in Vermont. Chronology convicts him of an alibi at the antipodes. On September 1 he was in New Zealand in "the comfort of Christ Church Club." Yet no Vermonter has so well set forth what he pronounces to be "absolutely the most beautiful sight in the world." From this instance we are led to suspect other alibis in cases where the absence of dates makes it impossible to prove them.

Careless statements of fact are too frequent. Thus, we read: "The system of laying out a city in blocks was only adopted west of India within the memory of living persons." Ulysses must be old indeed if he can remember the laying out of Philadelphia. Ulysses gives many good etymologies, but what he says as to the origin of Lachine contradicts Parkman and chronology. He speaks of Michigan as one of the Eastern States, says that Chicago's population is over a million, and yet reckons Brooklyn the third city in the Union. "The Dutch possessions in the Malay archipelago" are said to be "of recent acquisition." The fact is that they began in 1596, and were large before England had even one trading-post in India. "Ticonderoga," says Ulysses, "was held by a British garrison until the close of the Revolutionary War." It was really held by the British no more than four months during that contest, and was given up four years before Cornwallis gave up Yorktown. The chapel at West Point is declared the only place in the world in which such a trophy as a captured British color may be found. Some were, however, shown in St. Petersburg to the writer of these lines, and such trophies were numerous in Paris till the fall of the first Napoleon. "The only existing monument on which the defeat of a British fleet is recorded" is stated to be in Cleveland. Had the writer visited the Plattsburg cemetery he might have seen another. Indeed, he does himself say that "a British fleet was defeated there," but his account of that place may have been evolved, like that of autumnal Vermont, from his internal consciousness. The remark that "Washington is included in the long list of capitals in various parts of the world which have been occupied or taken during the present century by British troops," cannot nowadays vex Americans. It is atoned for by the author's doubt whether the growth of Washington is more impeded by Congressional members or by mosquitoes. But arrogance is natural in a traveller who, while swinging round the great circle, is always on English ships, in English colonies, or in countries which English commerce and the English language hold in a sort of subjugation, by bonds lighter than air but stronger than iron.

La Débâcle. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Westermann. [*The Downfall.* Cassell Publishing Co.]

It is so unusual an occurrence for M. Zola to publish a book of which much good may be said, that there is a chance of its not being praised as it deserves. The writer has got a bad name, and most deservedly so. He has wilfully and of malice prepense plunged into the vilest scenes and dragged his reader with him. What has made the judicious grieve all the more is the undoubted power of the man; there are many pages, even in his worst books, which are simply superb. In 'Germinal,' the scene where the troops are assailed by the mob of strikers is, barring the abundance of gross coarseness and so-called realism, one of the most forceful ever penned, while the description of the sunset over Paris, in 'L'Œuvre,' is a simply beautiful bit of descriptive writing. But who cares to wade through quantities of filth to pick up here and there a gem? It is to the author's credit that in 'La Débâcle,' while he has not wholly freed himself from the shackles of his besetting sin of disgusting sensuality and crude language, he has largely avoided it—rather, perhaps, been so carried away by his subject as temporarily to forget his propensity.

The book, in its construction, reminds one, oddly enough, of Corneille's 'Horace.' The first part is intensely interesting, notwithstanding a superfluity of detail akin to Victor Hugo's; the second part is as awkwardly joined on as the fourth and fifth acts of the tragedy, and with less excuse. The first part is the story of Sedan, with all its attendant horrors, miseries, and despair. The second is a wild and rather incoherent rush from the time of the Emperor's capitulation and surrender to the fall of the Commune. This latter portion may practically be left out of consideration; it is in every way inferior to the former, in which M. Zola, handling a theme which calls out his best qualities and his greatest powers, almost deserves the epithet of epic poet which some of his too ardent admirers claim for him. He shows the French army setting forth in undoubting assurance of speedy victory, and rapidly disintegrating, falling to pieces, melting away, a prey to panicky terrors, to unreasoning, mutinous spirit, to mistrust of incompetent chiefs, to hatred of the Emperor, who, pale-faced, wan-eyed, ghastly as a spectre, passes now and then across the bloody stage. The brilliant bravery of the French troops under most disheartening circumstances, the terrible encounters in which all the brutality and atrocity of war are seen, the steady purpose of the German host relentlessly closing in upon the doomed army, the horrors of Bazeilles, the desperate defence of Weiss's house, the return of Weiss's wife, her arrival at the moment when her husband is shot down by the victors, the hideous scenes in ambulances and hospitals, the mad efforts to break through the circle of fire, and the hopeless falling back of the shattered and decimated regiments—all this is told with consummate power, and justifies the praise awarded to the writer who has succeeded in drawing so vivid, so forcible, so poignant a picture of the days of doom and distress. That it has all been told before is true; but it has not been told as M. Zola tells it. Here, in spite of the mass of detail, we have real composition, a grouping of facts and events—a piece of artistic work, in a word. Marred, it has already been said, too often by the unhappy tendencies of the author, by mannerisms of style, particularly antithesis, by extraneous and unnecessary episodes, by assumption of knowledge and intuition on the part of privates which not only is not realistic but is actually impossible, 'La Débâcle,' maugre all faults, stands out as Zola's best and strongest work up to the present time.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Englishman in Paris. 2 vols. Appletons.
Apgar, A. C. Trees of the Northern United States. American Book Co. $1.
Austen, Jane. Emma. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Austen, Jane. Sense and Sensibility. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Besant, Walter. Verbena Camellia Stephanotis, and Other Stories. Harpers. 50 cents.
Black, W. Three Feathers. New and revised ed. Harpers. 90 cents.
Burt, Mary E. The Story of the German Iliad. Effingham Maynard & Co.
Castle, Egerton. "La Bella," and Others. Appletons. $1.
Chadwick, F. E. Temperament, Disease and Health. Putnams. 75 cents.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Aunt Anne. Harpers. $1.25.
Couperus, Louis. Footsteps of Fate. Appletons.
Crommelin, May. For the Sake of the Family. Hovendon Co. $1.
Daintrey, Laura. Actæon. Hovendon Co. $1.
Daremberg, G. Traitement de la Phtisie Pulmonaire. 2 vols. Paris: J. Rueff & Cie.
Dougall, Miss L. Beggars All. Longmans, Green & Co.
Equitable Taxation: Six Essays. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Fewkes, J. W. A Journal of American Ethnology and Archæology. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Ford, P. L. Essays on the Constitution of the United States published during its Discussion by the People, 1787–88. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Historical Printing Club. $5.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. XIII. Putnams. $5.
Freeley, Mary B. Fair to Look Upon. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co.
Garland, Hamlin. A Little Norsk; or, Ol' Pap's Flaxen. Appletons.
Gerard, Dorothea. Etelka's Vow. Appletons.
Green, Anna K. Cynthia Wakeham's Money. Putnam's. 50 cents.
Griswold, W. M. A Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in France. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Hall, Henry. Ethan Allen, the Robin Hood of Vermont. Appletons.
Hellprin, Louis. The Historical Reference Book. 3d ed., revised. Appletons.
Henry, Arthur. Nicholas Blood, Candidate. 2d ed. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Hoffman, B. B. The Sloyd System of Wood Working. American Book Co. $1.

Howells, W. D. A Letter of Introduction. Harpers. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. H. The Naturalist in La Plata. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Appletons.
Hull, Edward. Volcanoes, Past and Present. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Hutton, Laurence. From the Books of Laurence Hutton. Harpers. $1.
Streeter, E. W. Precious Stones and Gems. 5th ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Suess, Eduard. Die Zukunft des Silbers. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Thomas, Rev. Reuen. Leaders of Thought in the Modern Church. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Tinseau, Léon de. Thérèse de Quilliane. John Ireland. 50 cents.
Toynbee, Paget. Specimens of Old French. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Trollope, Frances E. That Wild Wheel. Harpers. $1.50.
Whittle, Rev. W. A. A Baptist Abroad. J. A. Hill & Co.
Whyte-Melville, G. J. Sarchedon: A Legend of the Great Queen. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Wilkins, Mary E. Young Lucretia, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Wilkins, Prof. A. S. M. Tulli Ciceronis de Oratore Liber III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 11, 1892.

The Week.

THE statement put in print by Congressmen Sayers and Dockery of the House Appropriations Committee shows that there will be a deficiency of $52,365,820 in the current fiscal year according to the appropriations made and the estimates of revenue submitted. The appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1893, are $507,701,380; estimated revenues for the same period, $455,336,350. Among the permanent appropriations included in the total is that for the sinking fund, $48,632,000. The law requires that this sinking-fund payment shall be made in each fiscal year, but Secretary Foster has construed *each* fiscal year to mean *any* fiscal year, and has accordingly taken credit for previous redemptions of the public debt that were over and above the stipulated amount of the sinking fund. Messrs. Sayers and Dockery say that he has no choice but to omit the sinking-fund payment. He has not the money to make it. In fact, he has not enough to make the necessary payments. The last Congress botched its job tremendously. It added $50,000,000 to the pension largess, and it knocked off $50,000,000 of income by repealing sugar duties, and then it added $10,000,000 of sugar bounties because it had repealed the duties. This depletion of revenue and paying of bounties was believed to be necessary in order to make the McKinley Bill acceptable to the taxpayers. It was necessary to show them some relief to compensate for the exactions of the protected classes. So the sugar duties were thrown over—all except what belonged to the Sugar Trust. The grand result of new pensions, bounties, and free raw sugar is a difference of $110,000,000 "to the bad" in the national book-keeping. By ignoring the sinking fund, the actual deficit for the year will be only three or four millions, but the Pension Bill will be larger in the next fiscal year—Senator Gorman says $20,000,000 larger. There may be some increase of revenue owing to increase of population and of trade, but not nearly so much as this. There seems to be no alternative but an increase of taxation.

The Alabama election proves to have been much closer than the first returns indicated. It now appears that Kolb, the opposition candidate, received fully half of the white vote, and probably a little more; and that Jones, the regular Democrat, owes his majority of about 10,000 in the whole State to the "black counties," where he secured the bulk of the negro vote. This shows that the opposition to the regulars was much more determined than had been anticipated. But it does not indicate by any means that the same division among the whites will continue through the Presidential campaign. The recent contest was between two candidates who had always been Democrats, and the Republicans could not profit by any result of the election. But henceforth the issue will be whether men who have heretofore voted the Democratic ticket in Presidential elections shall cast their ballots next November in such a way that the Republicans may be able to get more votes for the Harrison and Reid ticket than are cast for either of the other tickets. There is consequently no reason for the assumption that last week's election means that Alabama is a doubtful State in November, as national issues will doubtless bring most of the Kolb bolters back into line. The solidity of the white vote in the South since the war has been an abnormal thing, which every one of sense has recognized as only temporary. It would have been broken long since if it had not been for the threat of Force Bill legislation, and it is the threat of such legislation which assures Democratic union in this year's Presidential election at the South, however much favor the whites may lend independent State movements like that led by Kolb.

Michigan makes a happy escape from the muddle over the division of the State into legislative districts. It will be remembered that the Supreme Court recently annulled by a unanimous decision the apportionment made by the last Democratic Legislature, on the ground of its unconstitutionality in not making the districts of equitable dimensions, and at the same time passed similar judgment upon the Republican apportionment of 1885, declaring that "for many years the apportionments made by the Republican Legislatures have been thoroughly partisan and inconsistent with the direct language of the Constitution." The Governor thereupon called a special session of the Legislature, which has agreed upon a measure so just to both parties that it received almost a unanimous vote, and is admitted by Republicans to be fair. Why could not the Democrats have submitted such a measure at the regular session, and thus saved all of this bother and expense?

Judge Rumsey's decision in the Monroe Co. (N. Y.) case, declaring the Reapportionment Act passed by the last Legislature to be unconstitutional, was not unexpected. The question will now be carried to the General Term and thence to the Court of Appeals, with the prospect of a final decision early in October. Judge Rumsey puts aside two of the objections to the act, that the enumeration was taken in 1892 instead of 1895, and that the extraordinary session which passed the act did not follow the constitutional requirement that the apportionment should be made at the first session after the enumeration, by saying that they have already been settled by courts of high authority. He rests his decision on the two remaining grounds, first, that persons of color not taxed were included in the enumeration, though the Constitution forbids such inclusion; and, second, that the apportionment of several Senate districts and the division of some of the Assembly districts among the counties were so unfair as to violate the constitutional requirements. As the higher courts are to pass upon these points, it is manifestly a waste of time for laymen to express opinions upon them.

The believers in a single tax seem to have at last been able to make a practical application of their theory, according to a report that comes to us from Maryland. At a town in that State called Hyattsville, where many persons employed in Washington reside, the commissioners empowered to assess property for taxation omitted from their assessment all personal property and all improvements upon lands, thus carrying into effect Henry George's ideas. Some of the owners of unimproved property, conceiving themselves to be unfairly taxed, applied to the court of that district for a mandamus compelling the commissioners to restore improvements upon land and personal property to the assessment list, but the court refused their request, upon the ground that the Legislature had made the decision of these commissioners final. Inasmuch as the Constitution of the State of Maryland requires all property to be taxed equally and as personalty and improvements upon land are unquestionably property, we do not understand how this decision came to be made, and it may have been incorrectly reported. Undoubtedly an appeal from it will be taken, the decision of which will be of no little importance, if, as we apprehend, it shall make it plain that the single-tax men cannot apply their theory until they have amended the constitutions of our States. What they may accomplish, and what even those who differ radically with them may hope that they will accomplish, is to check the tendency to multiply taxes. Although we cannot see our way to a single tax, we may at least contrive to raise sufficient revenue with fewer taxes than at present.

The *Tribune* has devoted much time and pains to the preparation of a table of American millionaires, and has brought

together for the admiration of its readers the names, residences, and occupations of some four thousand people whose fortunes are believed to have passed the million-dollar mark. So much snobbery would clearly be wasted unless a moral were to be drawn; hence it is not surprising to find the *Tribune* remarking editorially: "The roll is an exceedingly interesting one, and the political point which it proves is unanswerable." Anybody who was disposed to "answer" the *Tribune* would be somewhat puzzled to know what was the conclusion which he must dispute. The *Tribune's* special tariff editor, who (quite in the line of his business, one might suppose) was detailed to collect the statistics, affirms that out of a total of 4,000 American millionaires, only 1,125 "obtained their wealth through protected industries." This would lead one to suppose that the *Tribune's* "unanswerable political point" was the existence of many great fortunes built up without Government assistance. We suspect that nobody will be hardy enough to contest this "point," though the labor of canvassing 4,000 American millionaires seems a trifle disproportionate to the logical results established. But the *Tribune's* tariff editor does not seem content with his axiom, and, in fact, appears uneasy lest he had actually proved too much. By way of qualification, he adds that "if all the fortunes of the United States, large and small, had been made under the protective tariff, that fact might be a powerful argument in favor of such a tariff." But if this be true, we should suppose, after the contempt with which the *Tribune* treats the insignificant item of 28 per cent., the total proportion of "protected" millionaires, that it regarded the protective idea as, on the whole, a failure.

We extend our sincerest condolences to the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency in the prolonged and irritating trouble he is having in reaching a final settlement with Typographical Union No. 6. It has been announced many times since his nomination that everything was satisfactorily arranged, and that the settlement had been formally ratified, but each announcement has been followed by fresh complications, requiring fresh settlement. There was another "final" meeting on Sunday, and though the *Tribune's* account gives the impression that the trouble is ended for ever now, there are intimations in other reports which cast grave doubt upon this point. The *Tribune* declares that all the trouble from the beginning has been caused by a "certain noisy but unimportant contingent of the organization that is more desirous of serving the Democratic party than of furthering the interests of the Union"—a statement which seems to show that the surrender of the *Tribune* to the Union has not been followed by the "turning over" of all the Union's votes to the Republican ticket. One of the Union orators, according to the *Tribune's* report, said that "Mr. Reid had really done more than was required by the terms of the settlement," but it was evident from the remarks of another orator, not reported in the *Tribune*, that he had not done more than would be required before peace would come, for this orator declared that "all Big Six has gained thus far is a foreman and a few compositors"; that "rats" were still employed in the *Tribune* office, every one of whom "must go" before the boycott against the office could be declared "off"; that members of the Union should at once be given the places held by non-union men, and that the use of type-setting machines was an anti-union device which ought to be denounced and its abolition from the office demanded.

All this shows that the "final settlement" is still in the distance, and that the crucial test of the entire negotiation will come when the demand is made for the abolition of the machines. It is a peculiarity of Big Six that its "demands" increase in proportion to the readiness with which they are granted. If it be true that Mr. Reid has yielded even more than was asked, he has invited all the trouble he is encountering, and he may as well make up his mind that the demand for the machines to "go" will come presently, and that the final delivery of the "vote of organized labor" will hinge upon that. He will learn from the resolutions adopted by the typographical union of Utica on Sunday that his yielding to Big Six has had very little influence for good upon other branches of typographical union labor, for he is denounced therein as having "been for many years the merciless, hateful foe of organized labor in every form, and especially the Typographical Union"; is charged with "persistently and maliciously attempting to destroy" that Union; is accused of having obtained his nomination by means of a "conspiracy between himself and a clique whose motives were entirely selfish, and whose action has been condemned and repudiated by those whom they professed to represent"; and the Republican party is charged with "designedly and malignantly insulting the members of this union and all wage-earners" in making Mr. Reid a candidate. Finally, the Utica printers pledge themselves not to vote for Harrison and Reid, and call upon all friends of workingmen to help in their defeat. All this must be very discouraging to the only typographical-union candidate for the Vice-Presidency that there is in the field, for it amounts to a flat refusal to deliver the goods as per agreement. The bolt in Omaha is another sign of the same purport.

It is not alone in this country that typographical unions seek to profit by the ambitions and fears of place-holders and place-seekers. The French Minister of Commerce has recently had the club of organized typographical labor shaken over his head. It seems that the principal of a school in Lyons had set out to establish a course in practical type-setting for girls. As soon as the Lyons Typographical Union heard of this, it wrote to the Minister of Commerce demanding that he veto the proposed course, and this demand was immediately seconded by the national federation of printers. This made the affair serious enough to cause Minister Roche to submit it to the Superior Council of Labor. Objection was made to the plans of the Lyons school, both on the score that women should not be allowed to engage in any unhealthy calling, and more especially that they should not be permitted to compete with men in a trade already overcrowded. Back of all lay the common trade-union hostility to training-schools of any kind, even for men. No adequate presentation of the other side appears to have been made to the Council of Labor, yet that body has so far refused to go the lengths demanded by the printers. Meanwhile Minister Roche is left in an embarrassing position. On the one hand, he dare not come out as an enemy of organized labor, but, on the other, he knows that if he decides against the training-school in question, he will next be called upon to abandon the whole system of technical education, upon which the country has already expended many millions.

Another illustration of the way the Administration used Federal offices to secure Harrison's renomination is afforded by the story of the post-office at Princess Anne, Md., as told by E. F. Duer, the late Postmaster. Duer was appointed about three years ago, and has managed the office so successfully that it was not long ago raised to a higher grade, which brought the place within the range of a Presidential appointment. The rule in such cases is for the President to name the incumbent if his record has been a good one, and if his continuance is desired by the patrons of the office. There is no dispute whatever as to Duer's efficiency, or as to the satisfaction of the local public with his administration. He filed his papers with the Department in due course on the 18th of May, and was told by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General that the appointment would not be made before fifteen days. Notwithstanding this, seven days later, W. F. Lankford was appointed, without even a notice to Duer that his claims would be heard, and without any examination by the Postmaster-General of the papers which he had filed. The explanation is that Lankford's name was presented by Thomas S. Hodson, who was a delegate to the Republican National Convention, then soon to meet. As Duer says in his letter to the Postmaster-

General: "How far these things stood to each other in relation of cause and effect, is a question which each one can decide for himself; and in view of the charges generally made as to the manner in which the President's renomination was effected, it may prove an interesting question."

Mr. Wanamaker's letter in reply virtually confesses the truth of the indictment. The Postmaster-General makes no attempt whatever to show that Duer had not been a thoroughly efficient postmaster, that his administration had not been entirely satisfactory to the public, or that he was not as much entitled to retention in his place as would be any faithful and capable clerk in his Philadelphia shop. The most interesting point in the letter is its reference to a new element in our politics—"the referee." Says Mr. Wanamaker:

"While it is true that many of the incumbents of fourth-class offices are reappointed when the offices become Presidential, there is a considerable percentage that are not reappointed, and for good and sufficient reasons not always known to the Department, inasmuch as the recommendations of the Senators, members, *or referees* resident in the districts where the offices are located, mainly are followed."

It further appears from the Postmaster-General's letter that "the referee" in the Princess Anne case was one Russum, and that the change in the office was made at Russum's demand. "I personally saw Mr. Russum," says Mr. Wanamaker, "and he told me that he desired the appointment made that Mr. Hodson recommended"—that is, the appointment of Lankford in Duer's place. In a second letter to the Postmaster General, Duer makes all the comment that seems necessary upon this extraordinary revelation, when he says:

"With the frank statement contained in your letter as to the manner in which my successor was appointed, I am compensated for my trouble I took to write to you. The referee system, which under this Administration has completely disorganized the Republican party in this district, was supposed to be based on the theory (never carried into practice) that the referee would act impartially and give his endorsement according to merit. I am glad to have it over your hand that in the Post-office Department at least the spoils system prevails to such an extent that the referee can not only bestow the offices, but can even transfer his power of bestowing."

The *World* publishes a batch of letters written by Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the Census, showing how he (Porter) had been acting as agent for a particular brand of champagne called Berton Sec while he was editor of the New York *Press*, booming it as the "great Republican wine," and that he continued to boom and drink Berton Sec after he received his census appointment. Among other incidents was the sending of five cases of the wine to President Harrison, which were refused by the steward of the White House as not ordered by him. Subsequently it was arranged with Private Secretary Halford that the wine would be received and consumed on condition that it was not to be paid for. Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss was favored with a gratuitous consignment also, as it was believed that he would know the difference between Republican and Democratic wines by taste, if not by an inspection of the labels. Mr. Bliss, however, declined to accept it, saying that he was not in the habit of accepting gifts from strangers. Various other well-meant attempts to establish Berton Sec as the party drink are recorded, among others a coolness between Porter and Chamberlin, the restaurant man in Washington, for which the latter sought an explanation and was informed by the Census Superintendent that it was because he (Chamberlin) did not keep Berton Sec. "I told Chamberlin," wrote Porter to the wine merchant, "a Republican Administration wanted Republican wine." The greatest success was scored by Porter when he got the Berton Sec adopted at the big Carnegie dinner in Washington. This triumph was described on Census Office paper, with the word "Glory" written at the top, as follows:

"Just think that the grandest banquet given here by the Administration, as it were, had no Mumm, no Pommery Sec, no Piper Heidsieck, and no other second-class wine, but only Berton Sec. In the name of heaven, have a lot of these bills printed, and let these one-horse restaurants and wretched hotels in Washington see that the best wine in America to-day is Berton Sec. Let them understand that when a man like Carnegie gives a dinner which is admitted to be the grandest of the season, that he has the good sense to select Royal Berton Sec."

The agency came to an end by reason of a dispute about $150, which the wine merchant claims is due him for money advanced to Porter to be spent for wine at the Tariff League dinner in 1889. Why does not the Tariff League pay the money at once, and stop the guffaw?

Prof. Soetbeer, the German economist and statistician, has made a suggestion to the coming international monetary conference which is entirely practicable, although it does not introduce international bimetallism. He proposes that silver coins shall be struck by all the countries at the ratio of 20 to 1, and shall be legal tender up to $20. The object of this is to lessen the danger of counterfeiting silver coins. At the present time the subsidiary coins of all countries have a bullion value about 50 per cent. less than their nominal value, while the full legal-tender coins — thalers in Germany, five-franc-pieces in France, and dollars in the United States—are more than 30 per cent. overvalued. The temptation to counterfeit is very strong. It is certainly desirable that it should be repressed, and as we are to have an international conference, it would be well to have a recommendation on this subject. It is not probable, however, that the nations of Europe which have ceased to coin silver of full legal-tender power would recoin their existing stock.

It appears, contrary to our recent comment on the political situation in Norway, that Emil Stang, Steen's conservative predecessor, and not Steen, has been recalled; further, that the King's opposition to the radical plan, and his prompt acceptance of Steen's resignation, were based, not upon the merits of the case, but on the manner in which it was presented. By handing in his resignation, Steen made himself and his measure politically impossible. Instead of discussing the question of a separate consular service for Norway in the Norwegian Council, thus allowing the King to express himself officially on the subject, Steen demanded a private audience with his Majesty, and unceremoniously tendered his resignation. Oscar, of course, as King of Norway, can accept no change in the consular service or in any other purely Union matter without first as King of Sweden gaining the consent of the Swedish Parliament and Council. This is not Swedish interference, it is merely the application of a principle of partnership that requires the consent of both parties to any change. We have little doubt that Norway's demand will ultimately share the fortune of all its predecessors, but only when it is presented in a constitutional manner and with a due consideration for the senior member of the firm.

A noteworthy incident occurring in Rio Janeiro a short time ago shows the view taken by the Catholic Church of the parties and methods at present dominant in Brazil. A Colonel of the National Guard went with his staff to the Cathedral and asked the Bishop of the diocese to bless the flag of his regiment. The Bishop refused, and, in order that there might be no mistake about his motives, made a short address giving the reasons for his action. He said that the blessing of a nation's flag signified the desire of the Church to see the legitimate glory of the country maintained and extended, and that the Church would be glad, now as in other days, to give her approval in that way to true patriotic sentiment. "At present, however," he continued, "I cannot bless this banner which is brought to me, since it does not represent simply the national sentiment, the union of Brazilians and the love of country, but is merely the symbol of a faction." He added that he would pray that the national standard might come to signify the union of all Brazilians. That the present Government of Brazil is nothing more nor less than a military oligarchy is sufficiently clear. One instructive bit of evidence bearing on the question is the great increase of the sums spent on the army since the "Republic" was introduced. In 1888, the last full year of the Empire, the budget of the War Department called for $7,500,000. In 1890, the first full year of the Republic, the amount was $14,800,000, and the budget for 1893 calls for $15,650,000.

THE WORK OF CONGRESS.

THE adjournment of Congress always brings with it a feeling of relief to the country, and it has become almost the rule to estimate the merits of this body according as it has left undone those things that it ought not to have done, but which it was feared it would do. By the peculiar Constitution of the United States, which recognized to an extent unparalleled elsewhere the institution of local government, the principal functions of the general Government were limited to the maintenance of the post and of the Federal judiciary, and to the care of foreign relations, with the necessary provisions for defence thereupon attendant. The civil war gave to the National Legislature a prominence that it had never before attained, with the result that it has steadily increased its functions and enlarged the sphere of their application. This involved increased expenditure until the country was startled to find that the last Congress had contrived to impose upon it taxes amounting to about a billion of dollars—a discovery which helped to bring about a political revolution in the constitution of the House of Representatives.

The enormous majority of the Democratic party in the present House was regarded with apprehension by its most intelligent leaders, and the result has, to a certain extent, justified their fears. To subject a vast crowd of new members—many of them owing their election to such elements as the People's party or the Farmers' Alliance rather than to the regular Democratic voters—to the discipline required to make party government effective, proved to be impossible. An unfortunate intrigue, which involved much bargaining concerning the Presidency and the Speakership, occasioned bad feeling at the outset, and the determination of a certain section to obtain free coinage for silver, persisted in so desperately as to show that, in many cases at least, it had the strength of a religious conviction, prevented that hearty coöperation which is indispensable to the success of any policy in a legislative assembly. As a consequence, the attack upon the tariff was delayed so long as to lose its effect upon the country and to enable the Senate to avoid meeting it, the scandals of the Pension Office were only recently exposed, and the Census Bureau escaped investigation altogether.

It is important to remember, however, that these failures or ineffective attempts have been disadvantageous only to the interests of the Democrats as a party, and that the interests of the country at large have not suffered by them. It was the policy of the Republican party in the Senate to stand by the tariff, and if it had been overcome, the President would unquestionably have vetoed any measure of reform. The Census Bureau and the Pension Office he is directly responsible for, and, so far as we know, no Republican voice has been heard to criticise the methods prevailing in these departments. The scandalous bank frauds in Philadelphia involved so many Republican politicians high in the counsels of the party as to make it safe to say that if the obstacles that were laid in the way of investigation had been overcome, others that could not have been overcome would have succeeded them. Upon the whole, it seems fair to say that no great reform measure adopted by the Democratic House could have passed the Republican Senate, or, if it had, would have been accepted by the President. So far as we have observed, all Republicans concur in this view. Under these circumstances it is obvious that the lack of energy on the part of the Democrats, however detrimental to themselves, has occasioned no injury to the country. Neither the eloquence of Demosthenes nor the invective of Burke would have convinced any representative of a protected interest that it was not a good thing for him to compel his countrymen to buy their goods at his shop. Such men consider that they own the Government, and the only way to deal with them is for the people to replace them with men whose views are more enlightened and whose moral sense is keener.

If we turn from the sphere of the ideal but unattainable to that of the common place but practicable, we find that the Democrats of the House have rendered much greater services to the country than has been commonly supposed. The evidence of this is to be found in a six-column account of the doings of Congress published by the New York *Tribune*. It is hardly necessary to say that this account is not likely to state the Democratic case too favorably. On the contrary, it exhausts the vocabulary of billingsgate, and, so far as general statements are concerned, makes out a Democratic record "so black that charcoal would make a white mark upon it." With a single exception, if we are not mistaken, all measures passed by the House and not concurred in by the Senate are described as the product of ignorance, folly, and knavery. Upon all points of difference the action of the Senate, as here represented, was marked by intelligence, wisdom, and patriotism. In the case of the bill for the free coinage of silver, it is true that the House rejected it after the Senate had passed it; but whatever discredit attaches to the Senate on this account, in the *Tribune's* view, belongs to its Democratic members, while all the credit for defeating the measure in the House belongs to the Republicans.

If we descend to particulars, we find that the standard of wisdom and honesty adopted by the *Tribune* is a simple one. Any attempt at economy is denounced, and every increase of expenditure, and therefore of taxation, is approved. The Democrats may well be content to go to the country upon this principle, and upon the comparative table of appropriations furnished by the *Tribune*. As to certain matters, Congress has no discretion. Thus, the *Tribune* states the permanent annual appropriations of the first session of the last Congress at about $101,628,000, while those of the present are $121,863,000. Here is an increase of $20,000,000, for which the Democrats are not responsible. The appropriation for the Post-office is about $8,000,000 more than before, but this office is nearly self-sustaining, and it is not apparent that the increased appropriation implies any increased deficiency. The appropriation for pensions has increased from $98,457,000 to $146,737,000, say $48,000,000, for which the responsibility is with the Republicans. It seems, therefore, that in order to carry out the existing laws it was necessary for the House to appropriate $68,000,000 more than was required at the first session of the last Congress. If we add to this the $8,000,000 additional for the Post-office, which presumptively does not involve an increase of taxation, we have $76,000,000 as the increase inevitable if the present Congress were to make no improvement over the last one. The *Tribune* shows that the appropriations at the first session of the last Congress were about $463,400,000, while at the corresponding session of the present Congress they were about $507,970,000, the difference being, according to its statement, about $35,000,000. There is evidently some blunder here, as the increase would be nearly $10,000,000 more than this, and probably the *Tribune* has obtained its total of nearly $508,000,000 by including the National Bank Redemption Fund, so that the proper total is about $498,500,000, the increase being $35,000,000, as stated. An increased expenditure of some $75,000,000 in certain directions being unavoidable, owing to the pension and silver and bounty legislation of the Republicans, the Democrats succeeded nevertheless in economizing in other directions to the extent of $40,000,000. If we were to compare the appropriations of this session with those of the last session of the previous Congress, which were $525,000,000, the gain to the country by depriving the Republicans of control would seem to be much greater; but this gain has still to be realized.

There seems to be still some uncertainty as to the actual amount of the appropriations, and we do not vouch for the correctness of the *Tribune's* figures. Taking them as correct, however, the Democrats need not fear the popular judgment upon them. The *Tribune* actually reproaches the Democrats for reducing the "miscellaneous" items from $7,000,000, their amount under Republican management, to $800,000. The wider the publication of such charges as this, the better for the Democrats and the better for the country. As to the other work of Congress, it has not been of special importance.

THE TYRANNY OF "LABOR."

WE have heard a great deal of late from demagogues about the tyranny of Capi-

tal. It is high time for the public to realize the tyranny which "Labor" is establishing in this country. The new despotism is that of the "Union," or "Organized Labor." A small percentage of the men employed in any industry form an association, nominally for mutual improvement and benefit. This union proceeds to lay down rules for the regulation not only of its own members, but of all other laborers and of employers. It decides what the rate of wages and the number of hours ought to be, and serves notice upon all concerned of its decision. It establishes a code of rules to regulate the conduct of its members and their relations with their employers, and it permits no violation of this code. It determines what shall constitute fidelity, industry, and proper subordination on the part of an employee, and it will allow no member to be discharged for unfaithfulness, laziness, or insubordination unless the union holds him to be guilty. It asserts a monopoly of the labor market, and will allow no man who does not belong to a union to do a job of work if the union has thrown it up. It resorts to boycotting, abuse, violence, and even murder, in order to "assert its power."

The slaveholder of the South in antebellum days enforced his rule through an overseer. The place of the overseer in this new form of servitude is taken by "the walking delegate." The walking delegate is a man who receives four or five dollars a day for doing nothing except make trouble between the employer and his employees. As he must make some pretence of earning his pay, he never means to allow a long time to elapse without making some trouble. The *Herald* of Thursday gave this picture of the walking delegate, as drawn by the Secretary of the Board of such delegates the day before:

> "They are only common, every-day workingmen, and their careers have consisted in handling their tools of trade. Each delegate is boss of his own men until meeting night, and then all hands are liable to jump on him and make him very tired. Between meetings his word is law. He can order any man under him to strike at any time, and the latter must obey without a question. The walking delegate goes round from building to building in course of construction, and if his eagle eye sees anything going wrong—non-union men at work, for instance, or boycotted material—he applies the thumbscrews at once."

The intolerable nature of this tyranny has never been made so clear as this summer. The case of the Grand Central Hotel on Broadway is a typical one, which deserves careful attention. Tilly Haynes, a Boston hotel-keeper, some time ago leased the Grand Central, and came to this city to expend $100,000 in the work of renovation, of which fully three-fourths was to go for labor. He made terms with his men which were mutually satisfactory. Work had hardly been begun, however, when the walking delegate appeared and demanded that the men should work only eight hours a day, instead of nine. Mr. Haynes acceded. A week later the walking delegate came round again, and said that some of the carpenters were working for $3.25 a day, and that they must be paid $3.50. This demand also was yielded to. A few days later the delegate informed Mr. Haynes that he had two stairbuilders from Boston, and that, although these men were union men, they could not work unless they had their union tickets changed, and paid the fee for working in this city. This trouble was settled by the return of the offenders to Boston.

The next incident is told as follows:

> "While the men were at work, the walking delegates entered the building and walked about through it at their pleasure, taking down the workmen's names and asking if they belonged to the union. One of the carpenters replied: 'None of your business.' The next day the delegate met the men when they came to work, and told them a strike had been ordered. Some of the men shed tears and said their families were suffering, but all obeyed. Mr. Haynes next received a visit from the 'Grand Council,' who informed him that their delegates must be respected. After consultation the Council agreed that the man who had insulted their delegate and the rest of the men might go back to work, but the man must by Saturday become a full member of the union. Notwithstanding this, when the men came to work the next morning, the delegate declared that not one should go to work until the man who had insulted him was discharged. The difficulty was finally compromised by the man being given his wages in order that he might immediately go and pay his dues and become a member of the union. It was three days, however, before he could get himself into regular standing, and during this time none of the men were permitted to work."

This was by no means the end of Mr. Haynes's troubles with the walking delegate. He had made a contract with a Boston firm to put in some new marble, and on learning this the delegate for the third time made the men quit work, though, upon Mr. Haynes's assurance that no marble from Boston was actually being laid at that time, they were permitted to resume work. Then Mr. Haynes learned that the delegates were going about among the men collecting one dollar from each for allowing them to work. When the marble from Boston arrived, the delegates refused to allow it to be unloaded, and when Mr. Haynes sought the protection of the police, the delegates called out all the carpenters and painters. Then the representatives of the steam-fitters told Mr. Haynes that he would have to send his engineer back to Boston, and on his refusal the union fitters were made to stop work.

By this time Mr. Haynes decided that he had suffered enough from the tyranny of the walking delegate, and he decided to employ no more men who were the slaves of such delegates. He secured a full force of non-union men, whom he finds better workmen than the union men, and who are not at the beck and call of any loafer who calls himself a walking delegate. From eight to a dozen of these loafers spend the day watching the front and rear of the hotel, and constantly insult and annoy the workers. For doing this each delegate receives from the unions $4.50 a day and his expenses.

We have told this story in detail because it is a typical one, and because it is only from such details that the public can comprehend the intolerable nature of this despotism. It is a patriotic service which Mr. Haynes rendered the community when he raised the standard of revolt. There are signs that the builders and contractors contemplate following his example, as the only way of securing relief from their troubles, and they will deserve no sympathy if they fail to do so.

CONGRESSMAN OATES'S REPORT.

It is refreshing to read an official report on the Homestead affair which tells the truth from beginning to end and is not tinged with demagogism in any part. Such seems to be the character of the report drawn up by Mr. Oates, Chairman of the House Committee appointed to investigate the Homestead trouble. The report contained too much truth to be acceptable to the other members of the Committee; so it seems probable that the Chairman will be in a minority of one. Whether there will be any such thing as a majority report is not yet known. Whether there be such a thing or not, and however widely it may differ from the report of the Chairman, nothing can detract from the force of the latter, or prevent it from carrying the weight which belongs to official deliverances on public questions.

We take notice, first, of Mr. Oates's concluding paragraph, which says that Congress has no power over the questions involved in the Homestead troubles. The phase of the trouble which led to the appointment of this committee was the presence of the Pinkerton men and the conflict which ensued. It was thought by some well-intending people that Congress had jurisdiction over the subject-matter. Mr. Oates tells us that there is nothing in the laws of Pennsylvania to prevent Mr. Frick from employing men from other States to protect the property under his care, although he thinks that it was unwise to do so in the manner and at the time when he did. He ought to have appealed to the Sheriff first, and waited to see what that official would or could do. Mr. Frick took the course which a business man would naturally take. He anticipated that the Sheriff's movements would be sluggish, so he took steps to protect the property in any event. He entered into early negotiations with the Pinkertons, calculating to have the men at Homestead about the time that the Sheriff ought to be there with an adequate force but probably would not be. This, Mr. Oates thinks, was an error of judgment, although not an infraction of law, and here we think Mr. Oates is entirely right. The indignities and outrages perpetrated upon the Pinkerton men, he says, were a disgrace to civilization. It required some moral courage to say this at a time when most people, including the major part of the Senators and Representa-

tives who have said anything about the Pinkertons, were denouncing them as hired assassins, Thugs, and even as traitors to their country. Mr. Oates adds another obvious truth, that if it was lawful for the Pinkerton men to go to Homestead for the purpose of protecting the works, it was unlawful for anybody to oppose their landing, and that all who did so are answerable to the law.

Touching the question of wages, Mr. Oates holds that the company has the right, in equity and good conscience, to a part of the saving effected by improved machinery. By this is meant that rates of wages, when paid on the basis of so much per ton, might be equitably reduced when the amount of labor which enters into a ton is considerably lessened. At the same time he thinks that Mr. Frick's method of dealing with this question was too harsh, and that a more diplomatic course on his part would have led to better results. This is a conclusion at which the public had already arrived, but it is said on the other side that the experience of the company with the leaders of the Amalgamated Association during a series of years had left no other course open than that which was followed. If the case is to be tried before the jury of the whole people, the specific acts of the Amalgamated leaders should be made known. But, of course, the company is under no obligation to submit the case to a town meeting or to an arbitration of any kind.

Finally, Mr. Oates tells the truth about arbitration, saying that the enactment of a satisfactory arbitration law is well-nigh impossible. The reason why it is impossible is, that there is no way to coerce either of the parties. Men cannot be compelled to work if they do not wish to. Employers cannot be compelled to make goods if they find no profit in doing so. The missing link in all arguments for compulsory arbitration is an inexhaustible fund out of which to pay the award of the disinterested tribunal. Give the arbitrators sufficient bread and beef to make good all losses which their verdicts involve, and the difficulty would disappear.

The fact that Congress has nothing to do with affairs of this sort is perhaps the most important announcement in the report. But we do not expect that Mr. Oates's remarks on this head will have any weight with Congress itself, so many members are eager to put themselves in evidence as friends of labor at every outbreak, and so many more are afraid to vote against any investigation which is heralded as being in the interest of labor. Mr. Oates is entitled to the thanks of the community, however, for daring to say the right word.

A TYPICAL PROTECTED INDUSTRY.

THERE are many reasons why the case of the Arlington Mills of Lawrence, Mass., deserves the prominence given it by the recent debate between Senators Vest and Allison. In the first place, Mr. Whitman, the Treasurer of this corporation, has invited the public to give attention to its affairs by causing his statement concerning it to be published in the *Congressional Record*, and by proclaiming that there are not many men in Massachusetts who would question his truthfulness or accuracy. In the second place, Mr. Whitman is understood to be the author of certain paragraphs in the McKinley tariff bill which are believed to have raised the duty upon cotton-warp fabrics manufactured by him from 15 to 30 per cent., or even more; the increase being claimed as a necessary compensation for the duties upon the wool used in these fabrics, but the statute being so worded, through Mr. Whitman's sagacity, as to grant the increased duty also upon the cotton warps. According to our calculations, the duties upon some such dress-goods as Mr. Whitman produces range from 80 to 120 per cent., but this also is a matter which will be better understood when Mr. Whitman makes the further explanation which the circumstances require.

Furthermore, Mr. Whitman, according to the statement printed in the *Record*, has said that the present tariff law ought to be satisfactory to all woollen-manufacturers, as every branch of the industry has been well cared for by it; that every man who clamored for the repeal or modification of this law was inimical to the industry; that he had put all he had into this industry, and that he expected to use all the power of which he was capable to prevent any tinkering with the present tariff. Under these circumstances, Mr. Whitman says, all that he asks is to be let alone. In other words, Mr. Whitman is anxious that the tax with which he is "proud to have been identified," which compels Americans to purchase their dress-goods from him, should not be disturbed, because he is extremely well satisfied with the gains which it enables him to make. We consider, however, that as Congress has been induced to tax the American people in this manner, for this purpose, and with this result, the people are entitled to know what these gains amount to. If there were no other reason for seeking this information, it would be enough that we should at last learn just how much protection a protected manufacturer regards as completely and permanently satisfactory.

After a careful examination of the speeches made in the Senate and of Mr. Whitman's letters and declarations upon the subject, we do not think that he has made out his claim to be regarded as unimpeachably truthful and accurate. Senator Vest, making use of a technically inaccurate expression, said that the Arlington Mills had declared last year a dividend of nearly 50 per cent. Mr. Whitman indignantly replied that this was absolutely false, that the dividend that year was 6 per cent., and that it had rarely exceeded that rate. But it appeared that what Senator Vest meant was not dividend, but balance of profit and loss, and that this had been reported to the State of Massachusetts for the year 1891 as some $932,000, the capital of the corporation being $2,000,000. It also appeared that Mr. Whitman had reported to his directors in 1890 that he had been their treasurer for twenty years, and that the average earnings had been 20.8 per cent. upon the capital. He added that the earnings the last year had been nearly three and one-half times those of the year before, and that the coming year was likely to be the most profitable one in the history of the company. In his last published interview his only reply to Senator Vest's allegation that the Arlington Mills had put $900,000 into their surplus in 1891 was, that the charge was false and malicious. As to the statement concerning average earnings, Mr. Whitman says that Senator Vest inferred from this that the net profits were equal to the sum named, whereas every business man knows that earnings and net profits are different things.

It can scarcely be denied that the impression naturally derived from Mr. Whitman's language is that the Arlington Mills put no such sum as $900,000 into their surplus in 1891, and that the net profits of the stockholders have been little more than 6 per cent. Indeed, he points out that these mills paid no dividend until 1877, eleven years after their organization, and that the average dividend since then has been between 6 and 7 per cent. It does not seem to us that a man who had stated to the stockholders that the average earnings of their mills were 20.8 per cent. is quite frank or accurate in giving the public the impression that these stockholders had received dividends of but 6 or 7 per cent. during little more than half the time that the mills had been in operation. Mr. Whitman says that in 1869 the stockholders paid into the treasury of the mills a sum equal to the whole amount of its capital stock, $240,000, to make it good. It seems that the capital stock is now $2,000,000. We understand that in 1886 it was $1,000,000. Does Mr. Whitman wish the public to get the impression that the present capital stock represents the amount of cash paid in by the stockholders? If this is not the case, we think that a man who prides himself upon his reputation for truthfulness and accuracy should explain to the public what part of his capital and surplus consists of accumulated earnings, and what percentage of the capital paid in in money these accumulated earnings represent.

Mr. Whitman also, in the letter in which he denounces Senator Vest's statements as false, says: "There has been no strike at the Arlington Mills of recent date," and no cut-down in wages since the passage of the McKinley Law. It seems that at the end of last March the Boston *Herald* reported a strike at the Arlington Mills. The *American*, a Republican sheet published at Lawrence, spoke at the same time of "another strike" as occurring at

these mills. We have no space to go into the details of these strikes, which are reported by these papers to have been caused by reductions in wages, and one of which seems to have occasioned the interposition of the State Board of Arbitration, and to have been followed by the discharge of a number of workmen. We admit that the accounts of these strikes, printed at the time in the Boston and Lawrence papers, were probably exaggerated, as such accounts usually are. But when Mr. Whitman alleges that no strike has taken place at the Arlington mills of recent date, and appeals to his reputation for truthfulness and accuracy to confirm his statement, we are obliged to say that, considering the statements which we have here reviewed, we find it less credible that two newspapers should have minutely described events which never occurred, than that Mr. Whitman should have failed to be strictly truthful or strictly accurate.

COAL WASTE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

MAUCH CHUNK, July 23, 1892.

A FEW days' systematic driving through the anthracite region of Eastern Pennsylvania gives one a vivid and oppressive sense of the reckless waste with which the present generation is using up the reserve stores of coal that have so long awaited the advent of man in this desolate region. The river is black with dust; unsightly heaps of coal-waste vie with the mountains themselves in magnitude all over the area, while preparations are in progress on every hand to increase the output of the mines already opened, and to open others whence the greatest product can be obtained with least expense. If anything can be more desolate than a deserted coal village, it is a coal village that is not deserted, where everything is black with dirt, where the children of tender years seem to revel in it, and where children of larger growth join their mothers in spending the long hours of the day in picking over the waste heaps and carrying the saved lumps of coal to the nearest merchant to barter for the necessaries of life. Much as one is shocked with the labor of women and children in connection with the coal mines of Belgium, he will be even more so in some places in Pennsylvania.

The philosophical problems forced upon one's attention by the waste of coal in Eastern Pennsylvania are staggering, whether he try to reconcile it with the benevolence of the Creator, or whether he attempt to prescribe a proper course of human conduct with respect to it. First and foremost is the fact that it is not man, but Nature herself, who has been most regardless of the waste. Without question the coal deposits originally covered the whole area from Blue Ridge to the bituminous coal-fields of the western part of the State. But the crumpling up of the earth's crust which elevated the region above the sea, occurred so long before the beginning of the modern era of civilization, or even the advent of man upon the earth, that ninety-nine-one-hundredths of all the original deposits in the central and eastern parts of the State have been removed by the slow but ceaseless activity of Nature's erosive agencies.

All the anthracite coal of the State (which is nearly all in the world) is now that contained in scattered areas in the eastern part, amounting to two or three hundred square miles. These areas are in several long synclinal or trough-like basins which constituted the bottoms of the folds into which the crust of the earth was pressed by the forces that elevated the Appalachian Mountains. The upper, or anticlinal, portions of the folds have disappeared, with all the wealth of stored-up energy which was originally upon their sides and summits. In repeated instances the unreflecting tourist, in an hour's ride on the cars, passes across the base of an anticlinal arch of carboniferous age which formerly rose higher than the Alps, but which now is so completely worn away that its place is occupied by a depression. In general, where were once the mountains we now find the valleys, while the bottoms of the ancient valleys are the mountains of to-day. Such has been the wastefulness of Nature. The problem presented is insoluble.

Nor does the apparently necessary wastefulness of man offer a much easier solution. At the present time the most improved processes of mining do not save one-half the amount contained in the areas mined, and these processes are from 15 to 20 per cent. more economical than those of ten years ago. It is not alone the vast heaps of mingled slack and comminuted shale so disfiguring to the coal regions which constitute this waste, but to a considerable extent it is the pillars of anthracite which have to be left in the mines to prevent the roof from falling in upon the workmen. In both these forms of waste, however, it is possible for the optimistic theorist to see blessings for the future. More thrifty and economical generations than the present may glean in these fields, and live for centuries upon that which this generation could not afford to obtain. As the women and children eke out a tolerable livelihood by picking over the waste heaps of the past decade, so in a more systematic way coming generations may extract like good from the discarded waste of the present time. A less hopeful view is to be taken of the inevitable wastefulness of present modes of combustion, in which far more heat goes up the chimney than is converted into economic uses. But human nature is such that it is useless in the present stage of the world to urge any marked reform in this respect, for the general impression seems to be that there is an inexhaustible store of coal at our command, or that, if coal fails, something else will be discovered to take its place. At any rate the day of evil to the human race appears so far distant that present economy for the sake of problematical good to posterity cannot be made to seem an urgent duty. Many are, however, waking up to the fact that the problem is nearer at hand and more urgent than anybody had heretofore supposed. When one sits by one of the great arteries of the coal traffic, as I now do, and hears and sees on two rival roads the almost endless trains of loaded cars pass by in one direction, and the ceaseless procession of empty ones return, he gets a new sense of the figures which express the rate at which our supply of coal is being depleted.

The growth of modern civilization is coördinate with the consumption of coal. At the present time no other source of power which man utilizes is to be compared with it. To our coal mines we resort for more than nine-tenths of all the power which runs our factories, propels our steamers and railroad trains, and furnishes our stores of electricity. Gen. Wistar estimates that if all the water fall in Pennsylvania was utilized with a head of 150 feet, it would not furnish one-tenth the power now derived from steam in the State. Following the example of calculations made in England a year ago, of which I gave an account in these columns, the same authority has endeavored to get an approximate estimate of the date at which our own coal fields will be exhausted. The result is almost as startling with reference to America as that with reference to Great Britain. At the present rate of increase of consumption the English coal supply will begin to fail, and its use become economically unprofitable, in about half a century. In America the evil day can apparently be delayed only about a century and a half, or perhaps three centuries. Any greater delay than that would involve such a check in our industrial development as to amount almost to a catastrophe.

At the present time the civilized nations are in a condition of industrial and commercial exuberance resting on a basis much resembling that of the lately popular endowment societies during the first few years of their existence. The consumption of coal in the United States was twice as great in 1890 as it was in 1880. Such is the capacity of modern mechanical and industrial machinery that this use is likely to increase in geometrical ratio until nearly the time of the total exhaustion of the coal fields. Still, there is no occasion to despair of the future of the race. Necessity is the mother of invention. Localities may lose their relative importance. The star of empire may pass from the great coal-producing countries to the arid regions of the earth, where concentrated rays of sunshine may be made to drive the busy wheels of industry, or to the regions where the trade winds or the tides now waste their energies in unproductive labor; but, in learning the economy which will eventually be necessary, the world will perhaps have opportunity to develop a higher order of virtues than now seems possible amid the fresh discoveries of so many of Nature's reserved stores.

Perhaps also we were wrong in saying that Nature's waste of coal presents an insoluble problem, for in one other respect also there is an apparent compensation both in Nature's wastefulness of the coal deposits and in man's. Gen. Wistar does, indeed, after careful calculations, forebode evil to present forms of animal life in the vast addition to the stores of carbonic-acid gas consequent upon the present rapid consumption of coal. He estimates that when the coal is all consumed, the atmosphere will be so laden with this poisonous product that only such unwieldy animals as characterized the Mesozoic period can flourish in it. But from this gloomy presentiment we are relieved by that benevolent wastefulness of Nature which has removed the larger part of the original coal deposit from our reach. The vast quantities of carbon which have been carried into the depths of the sea by erosive agencies have so mingled with the ooze at the bottom that there is no probability that it will ever be resurrected to add to the pollution of the atmosphere by combustion. In this there has been a comprehensible and positive gain to man in the apparent wastefulness of Nature. Having cleared the atmosphere once, both her own waste of the product and that of man combine to prohibit subsequent pollution. The purity of the atmosphere is at any rate secure. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

WITH BERNHEIM AT NANCY.

NANCY, June, 1892.

ACCORDING to the Nancy view, there is nothing abnormal about the hypnotic sleep. It

is normal sleep artificially produced, and the method of producing sleep artificially—suggestion—is nothing more than a skilful and professional use of the hitherto unrecognized fact that our normal life is full of responses suggested to us by our surroundings. Of our usual surroundings, persons are the most important elements; in other words, our social environment, our living *milieu*, gives constant tone and support to our lives and aids our development. The much-talked-of fact that hystero-epileptic patients are most hypnotizable, simply means that they are most suggestible, because of their characteristic neuroses; but all men are suggestible, nevertheless, and the difference is one of degree.

On this theory the passes, rubs, magnets, etc., of the Paris school become so much machinery, merely, of suggestion—concrete signs to the patient of what is expected of him; and he goes to sleep, wakes, passes from stage to stage, etc., because it is suggested, not because he is rubbed or magnetized. When the Paris men find a certain physical touch or rub necessary to induce a given phenomenon, it is simply because they have themselves taught the patient to wait for that particuiar signal; for this reason the "signals" are in reality a part of the hypnotic manifestation in those patients who have been thus brought up. This view, it is evident, requires support from the ordinary facts of the reactive consciousness, and it is to the exhibition of them, to the exhibition of the analogies afforded by phenomena of imitation, natural somnambulism, contagion of opinions, etc., that the books of Bernheim are in part devoted. And in establishing this point, a contribution of the first importance has been made to psychological theory, whether we accept suggestion as an adequate theory of hypnotism or not. We are but now beginning to understand the profound meaning which may be imported into the expressions, "environment," "social tissue," "solidarity," etc., hitherto employed with partial understanding of this meaning. The lamented Guyau must have been right in claiming that suggestion was to be one of the corner-stones of our reconstructed theory of primary education.

But, true as this is, the Nancy men seem to run into two extremes. To bring normal mental reactions and hypnotic reactions under the same formula, they deny some of the most characteristic aspects of each. "Will?" says Dr. Bernheim. "What is will? There is no such thing as will—it is all suggestion!" Now, analytical psychology means something very definite by volition. "Trance? There is no such thing as hypnotic trance—it is sleep, normal sleep." But who has been able to put a normal sleeper through the performances of the commonest hypnotic somnambules? True, there are sleep-walkers in many homes; but it may be a truer interpretation to say that they are no longer normal sleepers. No doubt great service has been rendered by the Nancy men in showing the artificiality of the Paris categories; but the true explanation of hypnotic sleep is probably yet to be advanced, just as a true explanation of natural sleep is yet to be advanced.

The patients in the hospital at Nancy seem to illustrate Dr. Bernheim's theory. They go off quietly into a deep, lethargic sleep. Somnambulism is comparatively rare, being developed by suggestions of walking, etc. Bernheim's manner is imperative and authoritative to the last degree. His first and last word to a patient is, "Dors, dors absolument!" He generally closes the eyes with his hand, then doubles up the patient's fists and starts them to revolving round each other in front of the patient's face, the whole arm being actively engaged in this circular movement. As soon as the movement lags, he seizes the fists and starts them again vigorously, at intervals straightening out the arms quickly to test their tendency to catalepsy. If the patient opens the eyes, or shows any signs of persistent wakefulness under this treatment, it is repeated more vigorously, accompanied by vocal expostulations and commands. Nearly everybody succumbs! It must be added, also, that Bernheim now claims to be able to carry normal sleepers over into the hypnotic state without waking them up.

The question of "criminal suggestion" is at present uppermost at Nancy. Prof. Liégeois of the department of law, formerly known as a political economist, has studied the legal aspects of hypnotism and written several important papers. In a recent article on criminal suggestion in the *Revue Philosophique*, he insists upon the reality of the phenomenon, and points out its great danger to society and the State. He finds that some somnambules—a relatively small number—are liable to a so-called "second state," in which criminal suggestions take certain and immediate effect. By this hypothesis, which rests upon frequently reported experiments in the hospitals, he explains several cases of crime committed, as he believes, under influence—cases which have agitated French society and nonplussed the legal profession. For example, he analyzes and explains the famous Bompard case. He promises in another article to explain in the same way several other criminal cases which have remained mysteries in the records of the courts. Liégeois proposes, in view of the facts, that a hypnotic official be appointed before whom all children shall be brought. If a child be found relatively unsuggestible, well and good. But if liable to hypnotic suggestion, the official's business should be to suggest that no one else, as long as the child should live, should be able to hypnotize him. This suggestion would take effect, and the child would then be free from all such influences in the future.

On the other hand, many deny the possibility of criminal suggestion altogether. While not disputing the reported cases in which the somnambule does under command what would ordinarily be criminal, they claim that he knows all the time that the performance is a sham. He not only gets the suggestion, consciously given, of the act, but he also gets the suggestion, unintended by the operator, that in this case he is playing a part with others in a farce. When we consider the enormous exaltation of the faculties shown by many somnambules, and reflect that just such an hypothesis of subconscious suggestion is one of our last resorts in explaining a great number of facts which look like thought-transferrence, we begin to see the reasonableness of this position. It is argued with force by Delbœuf in a recent issue of the same review.

Yet there are one or two senses in which it is clear the phrase "criminal suggestion" cannot be used. It is about demonstrated that there are no post-hypnotic criminal suggestions—that is, suggestions made to the patient of criminal acts to be performed after he has been restored to his normal life. Suggestions of acts which are morally colorless may be post-hypnotically realized; but when a suggestion has moral coloring, the patient may deliberate upon it in quite a normal way and resist it. Again, it must not be understood that the patient becomes a criminal or that his moral nature is even temporarily debased when under the influence of a criminal suggestion. On either of the hypotheses mentioned above, this is not the case. The question is, Does he perform the act knowing that it is not really a criminal act, and consenting because he knows it, or does he perform it as an automaton would, because he is temporarily a non-moral machine? In view of the conflicting evidence now before us, and the probability of new light in the near future, it is just as well to suspend judgment on this important question.

The Nancy men have a very practical test to propose, one which offers an heroic opportunity to an enthusiastic experimenter. A man of straw was put to bed, in one of the experiments, and a somnambule, in a highly suggestible state, was told to go stealthily from an adjoining room and stab his friend, the occupant of the bed, using a knife then put into his hand. We are told that he took the knife, that his face became dark and angry, and that, with stealthy tread and soft, he sneaked into his friend's bedroom, and stabbed the man of straw. Now, say the *savants* of Nancy, if any one in Paris does not believe this, let him come and take the place of the man of straw! As yet no one has accepted the challenge. The reason of their backwardness, as one of those concerned in Paris intimated to me, may be that they know how cordially they are hated in Nancy, and are well aware that if any one should play the man of straw, his professional friends in that city would take great pains to see that the somnambule understood his business!

The wards of the Nancy hospital present a very remarkable appearance since the introduction of hypnotism as a therapeutic agent. Bernheim and his assistants and students, perhaps fifteen or twenty, go through the halls inquiring after this patient and that, putting this one to sleep in order to banish a pain from his head, leg, or side, commanding a semi-paralytic to use his limbs, working hard to overcome the resistance of a new-comer. Here sits a girl with arms akimbo, left for a period in a cataleptic state; there stands a sluggish somnambule; and further on the voice of the master is heard urging a reply from a man who is not conscious enough to frame one. Then he goes to his private reception room, where new cases are brought in. A mother brings her child with pains in the feet, an old man comes with a crick in his back, headaches in endless variety abound, and coughs *ad infinitum*. Each patient is questioned carefully, then told to sit and remove hat or bonnet. Remonstrances are vain. Eyes are closed, fists set to turning, and in all the noise of come and go, question and answer, one by one they fall aleep. Then the proper suggestion is made to each one: "Your head is well," "Your back shall never ache again," "Your legs are as sound as mine," iterated and reiterated. Then they are awakened. Do their pains persist? Then they must go over again, *nolens volens*, into another sleep. When they leave, they say they are cured, and Bernheim believes they tell the truth; but on grounds stronger, certainly, than their word alone or the fact that they do not return to the hospital.

Indeed, the therapeutic value of hypnotism is believed in at Nancy as nowhere else, perhaps. The English translation of Bernheim's 'Suggestive Therapeutics' is, of course, well known in America. Patients are taken just as they come from the city streets into the hospital and thrown, as a matter of course, into the hypnotic trance. Some of the reported cases

of cure are certainly remarkable enough—if they are cures! The Nancy physicians ought to know. Yet elsewhere doctors remain sceptical. Perhaps it is true that their scepticism renders their own efforts less successful; for in this mysterious realm, more than elsewhere, it seems to be faith that removes mountains. Perhaps others cannot cure because they do not know how. Be this as it may, let the Nancy cures go on; and if they finally demonstrate the difference between scientific caution and professional prejudice—demonstrate, further, the primary influence of the moral over the physical—demonstrate, finally, that moral environment is the tremendous thing, that force of character and influence is in some way relative to active belief, and that reality is in great measure what we choose and will with all our might—then the physicians will no doubt join the psychologists in saying, Amen!

J. Mark Baldwin.

LETTERS OF IPPOLITO PINDEMONTE.

Italy, June 25, 1892.

"Felice te che il regno ampio dei venti,
Ippolito, a' tuoi verdi anni correva."

sang Foscolo to Pindemonte anent his long sojourn in England, France, and Germany during the eventful years that closed the eighteenth century. During this tour the brilliant young Veronese wrote constantly to his friend the Contessa Isabella Teotochi Albrizzi, who was enamoured of *la belle France* and of all that related to the people with whom her nature sympathized more than with the Italian. The Italian cities through which he passes, even his native Verona, do not furnish him with any very interesting topics, but as soon as he touches Geneva he is enchanted. "Though the city is not particularly beautiful, the neighborhood and the lake are superb. Lately I made a tour in the mountains of Savoy; there and on the Lake of Geneva Nature has shown all that she can unite of the beautiful, the terrible, and graceful. You know how natural scenery moves me. I am always hungry for the country when mewed up in cities, and can never have enough of fresh air, trees, mountains, and green fields." But the balls and the French opera enchant him equally, and the society in which he mixes is of the pleasantest, as he meets "many persons of distinguished merit, and the general culture is above mediocrity." He begs Isabella to tell him of her amusements, of her health, and of her studies, and especially of all that is happening in Venice.

Pindemonte arrived in Paris in the spring of 1789, just as the famished multitude in all the cities (not only in *les bonnes villes*) and in the country districts had elected the members of the États-Généraux. He was present on "the great day," the 4th of May, when the 1,200 deputies, the King, Queen, Court, after listening to the "Veni Creator" in Notre Dame, went in procession "with all Paris" to Saint Louis; Mirabeau present, Sieyès absent. The Assembly opened, no longer in the King's château, but in the immense Salle des Menus. The speeches of the King and of Necker dwelt entirely on the virtues and the abnegation of the superior classes who had so nobly consented to share their privileges with the "lower orders." The King and the nobles retaining their hats, the third estate uncovered, on which the King, to prevent "these airs," took off his own hat also.

"The events that are happening in Paris are worthy of imitation by other nations. I shall always congratulate myself on being present at the opening of the Assembly. It will be difficult ever again to witness a spectacle which, for the aim in view and the form, should prove as grand, interesting, and beautiful. It is true we have revolts, rebellions, killed and wounded; but all these are minor matters, say the politicians, if we succeed in gaining a constitution, which half France maintains does not exist."

Pindemonte remains in Paris throughout July and August, and to his friend who writes alarmed for his safety, he answers:

"I am very grateful for your anxiety, but really the situation here is not so critical for us as the Englishman who hurried from Paris to Venice has led you to believe. His own fears have exaggerated the circumstances. I can't say that a sojourn in Paris at the present moment is void of peril—many visitors have fled; but curiosity, and the delight of witnessing a great revolution in a great country, are such powerful incentives to remain that I have not once thought of quitting the city. At present no more heads are being cut off. Of course all is in confusion, but this is inevitable when the old order is destroyed and the new régime not yet established. Chaos is terrible but indispensable when a Government is to be utterly changed. If the new constitution be not *ottima*, it will be the fault of the Assembly, which is now omnipotent, seeing that the King has no control over it. I do not write more as I suppose you will read the news in the *Gazette*, or learn all particulars from your friends, which is the method that best pleases you if I mistake not. Towards the end of the month I leave for London."

And from London Pindemonte writes on the 4th of September. He "has arrived safely despite the malefactors who now infest France." Londoners are all in the country, and he goes there also, expecting to enjoy himself, "even without the spectacle of a revolution. You will, though you don't read the newspapers, have heard of all the horrible scenes in France; but probably you do not know that the spectators who enjoyed them most were of your own sex." Of course he chooses the most fashionable resort, and his next letter is dated:

"Bath, October 4, 1789.

"I write to you from one of the most beautiful and at this season one of the gayest cities in Europe. People come here in numbers to take the baths and drink the waters, but the majority come for the gayeties which abound here, and I am, thanks be to heaven, among these. Balls are among the most popular amusements, and you will hardly believe the good figure that I cut in the throng. Alas, to dance a minuette well is not the same thing as winning a battle, and to shine in a contredance not the same as giving a good constitution to France. Apropos of France, does it not seem to you that your French people are most unjustly accused? True it is that they have displayed great ferocity, but any other people whatsoever would in similar circumstances have shown equal ferocity; the want of bread and the fear of famine renders the gentlest populations furious. Now that the French King, to save his civil list and pensions, has sacrificed his silver buckles, peace and calm seem to be restored to Paris. The destinies of France depend now on the Assembly. No obstacles can arise save in its bosom. Should it succeed in establishing a wise Government, no praise will be too great. You know that the English nation only during the course of many centuries and by dint of long struggles secured the liberties which they now enjoy, nor have they shown much wisdom or prudence throughout the many circumstances that have led to the situation in which they now find themselves. France, on the contrary, has made her great journey in a single step."

Pindemonte remained nearly a year in England—"sufficient time," writes Foscolo, "to become familiar with her literature. Some of his poems dedicated to Englishmen who became his friends, prove the enthusiastic admiration which this illustrious Italian felt for their country." English parks were his delight, and the beautiful cemeteries inspired a poem which Foscolo quotes with praise.

"My health is excellent," he writes to Isabella in April, 1790; "the climate and methods of English life suit me admirably. I have collected some English books. Gray I long since owned. It is in my little library at Venice, and is at your service if you mean to continue your study of the English language. Many of your friends will dissuade you, but perhaps this is a reason to persevere. Gray has not written much, but all that he has composed is excellent. After the 'Elegy,' his poem entitled 'The Bard' pleases me best. The subject treats of a tradition that Edward the First, after his conquest of Wales, ordered all poets to be killed because their songs excited the people to rebellion. Gray supposes that one of these bards or singers beholds from the summit of a mountain Edward's army marching in the plain, and, seeing the massacre of his countrymen, poetically curses the tyrant and predicts the misfortunes that will befall him and his descendants. The bard then flings himself into the sea. The argument, as you see, is a fine and grand one, and the treatment is worthy of the subject. As to Richardson, I am sorry to tell you that he is not so much esteemed by the English as in my opinion he ought to be. Perhaps he is less read because he treats of manners and customs that have passed away in great part, but he represents human nature which exists always. I don't know whether you have read a novel by Miss Burney, called 'Cecilia.' Here you have the England of to-day faithfully depicted."

In November he writes from Vienna, where he does not seem "at home" as in England:

"Most just are your words about Alfieri, and if you come to know him intimately, you will become ever more his admirer because you will better understand the gifts which adorn his writings. I know no such lover of the right, such an enemy of all that has the least taint of injustice. Then how docile he is, though he knows his own powers; delicate and graceful qualities unite in his heart with strong and virile virtues. His two Brutuses also seem to me greater than on the first reading. No other writer who has treated the same subject, has placed in such strong and clear relief the insuperable necessity of the one to kill his adoptive father, of the other to cause his children to be killed. 'The hand that trembled so it could not wound' (Act V. of 'Brutus the Second'): what a new and marvellous inspiration!"

France attracts Pindemonte again, and he next writes from Marseilles—

"*bien jolie* and the port superb. The country is tranquil on the whole. It seems to me that the provinces are much more aristocratic than Paris. . . . I find a great difference between the culture of the provinces and of the capital; this is more of a commercial than a literary city. True, there is here an Academy of Sciences, but the members are dispersed on account of the troubled times, justifying the proverb, 'Timid as a philosopher.' The Abbé Raynal is here, and is worth a whole academy; but he is very old and begins to *radoter*. I see him often, though, because the *radotage* of such as he is better than the wisdom of most. Were it not for fear of wearying you, I should tell you of Avignon and Vaucluse, and of Petrarch, whom I seem to see there always; and of Nîmes and her superb antiquities. What a delightful sensation it is to come from the North to the South, and to find spring and almost summer in October. At Munich such leaves as were still on the trees were yellow and dead, but as you come South all is green and bright and living."

In June, 1793, he writes: "I fear that we shall have *your* Frenchmen in Italy if the Emperor does not send reinforcements, and if the English fleet tarries." From Florence in 1795 he writes of Alfieri:

"He is in good health; is not writing anything, but studying the classics, Greek and Latin, as if he were beginning his education. Singular man! the greatest genius that I have ever known. . . . You wish him to write a poem, but do you think that the creative faculty is exhaustless? Nineteen tragedies and

many other things not yet published, are not these likely to have exhausted even his productive faculties, at least in part? I wish you were here to see his tragedies performed. Yesterday 'Saul' was given, and you would have been converted, as was Zacco, who denies, however, that it is a tragedy. I do not speak of the effect it produced on me only, but on the whole audience, though the actors were poor. 'Saul' is the favorite tragedy of the Florentines."

Pindemonte seems always travelling, and the Countess is often on the wing, so that the letters, which extend over thirty years, are extremely interesting, giving a picture of the famous men of the time, of their literary works, of the success and failure of these; but it is remarkable how little interest the poet takes in the politics of the time: of the fate of the kingdom of Italy, of the cession of Venice to Austria, he seems to take little note.

"You are out of spirits," he writes in 1797, 11 Vendemmiale, from Venice. "First of all, war is not decided on—on the contrary, the chances seem for peace. But let us suppose that war breaks out: from a political point of view I see no reason to regret it, as the consequences (not the immediate and transitory, but the permanent and decisive) will be beneficial to us. From a humanitarian point of view, tell me what difference there is between 50,000 individuals whom you do not know killed in Friuli and Carinthia, and the numberless Romans who perished centuries ago on the battlefields of Pharsalia and Philippi? Did you ever write pathetic letters to any Ippolito for those Romans? You have seen some 800 sick, and the sight has perturbed you; but if you had remained in Venice, you would not have seen them. And why should I flee from Venice because I hear of disasters beyond the Brenta? You say that this is no time for writing tragedies, and this you say because you know that the tragedy which I am now composing causes the time to pass as swiftly as when I pass it with you.

"Still, your letter is welcome for the tidings that you mean to pass the winter in Venice. Your delineation of the character of Cervoni is true to life. It is not true that you are losing your sight; your eyes penetrate to the depths of men at first sight. Salute the brave and virtuous general for me. Gianni is working at his poem, but the liberty which is to beatify Italy is still on the Alps, whence he beholds its rays illuminating Rome, penetrating the sepulchres, and awakening Cicero, who sends back an oration to liberty. Does the idea please you? will it please Franceschini? Adieu, my beautiful and amiable Isabella. Keep yourself beautiful, amiable, and the friend of PINDEMONTE."

In 1805: "I did not send you from Verona the plan of Bonaparte's route because I thought that the motives which aroused your curiosity no longer existed. Here it is: Cremona, Brescia, the camp, Mantua, Modena, Bologna, Parma. He will reach this city [Verona], not on Saturday, as was announced, but on Sunday. In his speech to the Legislature which I have just read in the papers, he says that he hopes to preserve peace on the Continent. But he privately assured the Minister Felici that he feared war to be inevitable." In this letter, without even a fresh paragraph, he continues: "If you were enchanted with Mme. de Staël, she was no less so with you. She arrived here Monday morning, and at once wrote a courteous note asking me to visit her directly, as she could remain only a few hours. I went and found her at dinner; she begged me to accompany her to the amphitheatre in her carriage, whence she started for Brescia. She wished to visit my apartment, and found my physiognomy, I fancy, very different from the portrait in my works."

Foscolo comes in for some kindly criticism; at the same time Pindemonte tells Isabella that she is prejudiced "on account of his disapproval of the French poets and of Delille especially;" that Foscolo thinks well of her 'Portraits of Celebrated Men,' barring certain errors of diction which Pindemonte had already corrected. For this expression of opinion Foscolo is reproached by Isabella, who seems to have been much spoiled by her various admirers. Later, Pindemonte says: "I am afraid Foscolo is vexed with me, as he has not written to me again. I have finished my 'Answer' to his 'Sepulchres,' but it needs much correction, and I have been much perturbed while composing it. You will be surprised that I have not yet read Monti's letter. These are not the brightest days of my life, and I grow indifferent to many things that used to interest me." But his joviality soon returns in the midst of his family of sisters and brothers, nephews and nieces, to whom he seems most sincerely attached.

The death of Alfieri stirs the philosopher. He follows eagerly all the signs of posthumous fame; tells Isabella that the mausoleum sent from Rome to Florence is to be placed in Santa Croce between the monuments of Galileo and Michelangelo, that the Countess of Albany receives half of the pension which the English Government paid to the Cardinal of York. The edition of Alfieri's works by Rosini will be magnificent: first are to come the published, then the unpublished poems; but Pindemonte expects greater things from Bettinelli's biography.

Of Canova there is frequent mention: "Landi the painter says that his works are each one greater than the last. I can hardly hope that Canova will come to Verona," he writes in 1810. "He will go to Ferrara, to Bologna, and to Florence. How noble and grand is his intention to erect that temple in his native city. I felt my soul soar and expand when I read that in your letter." He begs her not to frank her letters because they are rather heavier than usual. "I am richer than I need be, especially after the pension from the Institute, which was conferred on me quite spontaneously. I am working steadily on the 'Odyssey,' and striving for exactitude, keeping ever in mind that in original compositions one is responsible only for one's own errors, but in translating one becomes responsible for one's own, and also for those which we cause our authors to make. I am reading conscientiously Lambert's observations on the 'Iliad'—this as a Homerist."

Foscolo, in his essays on Italian literature, published first in England, writes:

"There are several versions of this poem [the 'Odyssey'] in Italian, but none have obtained that fortunate and complete success which the favorable vote of the *letterati* of a nation can alone insure. Probably Pindemonte preferred this second Homeric poem to the 'Iliad,' conscious that the characteristics of his style are not such as to render the energetic, imaginative, picturesque majesty which that divine poem holds. The first two cantos of the 'Odyssey' were published some time since, and Italy, delighted with the poetic attempt, impatiently awaited the whole, which has just appeared. The time that has elapsed is too brief for it to be seen what is the judgment of the *letterati* on its merits."

Pindemonte's 'Odyssey' went through four editions in his lifetime, and is still reprinted in the popular editions of the day.

In February, 1814, he writes: "The scene is changed. Yesterday, a little before noon, the Austrians entered Verona, and communications are reopened with Padua." And on the 1st of May: "To-day the consecration of the new King of France takes place at Rheims. The Emperor of Austria will return on the 15th. You will know what happened to Napoleon and his family. The Prince [Eugene Beauharnais] and the Princess are to leave Milan also to-day. It seems that no Italian save Assalini will accompany them to Munich." Often he dilates on the *finesse* of the Italian language. After saying that he "sospira" not for Paris, but for the Calle delle Ballotte in Venice, he adds: "Note that *sospirare*, which is the *regretter* of the French, though they say we have no equivalent for it, whereas we have another also, which is *piangere*. Here are both in two verses of Tasso's:

"'*Piangiti* riposi di quest' umil vita,
E *sospirai* la mia perduta pace.'

Excuse the pedantry." In several letters he defends Lord Elgin for despoiling Greece of her marbles, saying that the Parthenon is going to ruin, and that in England they will be cared for; much to the disgust of Isabella, who, however, entertains the despoiler, as he is a celebrity.

Pindemonte takes up warmly the question then raging over Count Ugolino, not yet settled by the faculty:

"Niccolini has expounded a new opinion anent the canto. He insists that Ugolino ate up his children, and founds his belief in this fine act on Dante's line—

"'Poscia, più che il dolor, potè il digiuno.'

"Prof. Carmignani is of the same opinion, but another professor in the same University has arisen to confute them, and rightly too, in my opinion. I speak of Rosini. You can hardly believe the ferment in Tuscany caused by this controversy. I fear that Gargallo will enter the lists, and I say fear because I have reason to believe that he will not take the right side. . . . Rosini writes joyfully of the discovery made at Rome of an edition of Dante annotated by Tasso, and adds with infinite satisfaction that the publication of this treasure will be his last typographical labor. A new expositor of Dante has arisen in Piacenza: a grand assembly, a great crowd, great admiration. One would think that in Italy one had never heard of Dante before."

Again:

"Carmignani has republished his letter. He declares that there is at Pisa a very ancient picture in which Count Ugolino is depicted with a long beard hovering over the corpses of his sons in the act of devouring one already half unfleshed. For me this proves nothing. I hope that Gargallo will print nothing."

Nothing seems to us more surprising than that such a controversy should ever have arisen. Dante finds Ugolino with his teeth fixed in the nape of his arch-enemy. Archbishop Ruggieri, and promises that if he can prove reason for such atrocious vengeance he will do him justice in the upper world. And the still anguished father tells his harrowing story—how his four sons died one after the other in six days of hunger; how he for other three days hung over them, calling on them by name though dead; then, fasting more than sorrow killed him also.

Throughout 1827 and the first nine months of 1828 the letters continue in the same bright, vivid tone. The last letter, written in his own bold, clear handwriting, is from Verona on the 20th of October, 1828, and is one of the best, treating of certain pictures of Raphael which Toschi of Pavia is engraving; reminding Isabella that last year at this time he was with her in the city "che nel tranquillo mare curva si specchia"—his own description of Venice, "mirrored while bending o'er the tranquil sea." But on the 10th of November of the same year comes a letter in the handwriting of Lorenzo, his servant, dictated from Verona: "The slight fever which always promises to go never really abandons me, but let us hope for the best. Benassù is ill also;

but I hope to see him to-morrow, as he is much better. I know nothing exactly about Casa Pompei. Lorenzo, my valet, reveres you. Remember me affectionately to Giuseppino. Addio!"

It was the last adieu. The "perfect and worthy gentleman" died within that month of November, 1828. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

LINTON'S VINDICATION OF PAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review in the *Nation* some weeks ago of Mr. Conway's 'Life of Paine,' that book was spoken of as *the first serious defence of Paine*. I have not the exact words before me now, as I did not at the time feel called upon to notice a mistake scarcely concerning any one but myself. However, this week the mistake is repeated in the *Tribune*; and as it may go the round of the press, I would ask to be allowed to correct it where it first occurred.

More than fifty years ago, in 1840, I published in London a 'Life of Paine,' defending him from the then current calumnies since so continually repeated. I say nothing of any merit in my work, a book of fifty-four pages of 250 words, except that it was in earnest, and that it plainly, and with authority of personal friends of Paine then known to me, fully, particularly, and very distinctly met all the charges against him.

Fifty-two years ago may well account for the book being forgotten, and I know it has been long out of print; but for ten years at least it had a considerable sale, going through several editions. I only state so much, caring not to lose here in America the honor of having been the first so publicly to do justice to the character of Thomas Paine. W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., August 6, 1892.

UNSECTARIAN THEOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An editorial paragraph in your issue of July 28 calls attention to the establishment of a non-sectarian School of Theology at Boulder, Colorado, as a "novelty worth attention." All that you say of it might with equal truth have been said of the Harvard Divinity School at any time within the past dozen years. This school was reorganized on a non-sectarian basis as long ago as 1879. At that time it made an appeal to its friends for a new endowment, with the express understanding not only that it should impose no denominational tests upon either instructors or students, for this it had long ceased to do, but that it should distinctly disregard the precedent which it had until then followed of looking usually to the Unitarian denomination for its professors, and should seek them wherever the best men were to be found. The money asked for was given within a few months upon this understanding. The first appointment made under the new endowment was that of a Baptist scholar. The next appointment was that of a Unitarian clergyman, and two others following soon after were, one of a Baptist clergyman, the other of a Unitarian layman, whose previous training had not been in the line of theology. The first vacancy was filled by one of the most distinguished scholars of the Orthodox Congregational denomination. During this period of twelve years, lecturers have been drawn from every shade of religious opinion. The only limitation upon absolute denominational indifference has been that all parties have agreed that the form of theology known as "Unitarian" shall always find a hearing in the school, and this is really not a limitation, but rather a pledge of liberality. The school will welcome the foundation of chairs of theology by any body which is willing that its students should have the same teaching of Hebrew, Greek, Church History, Ethics, the History of Religions, and the Philosophy of Religion that is now given to the students of the school. The fact that such chairs are not founded is only one of many which go to show beyond a doubt that the sectarian spirit, far from being, as you suggest, in decay, is actually governing professional theological instruction in this country.

Non-sectarian instruction in theology in Cambridge is no longer an experiment. It has been in practice long enough for results to show themselves. The Divinity School, with a largely increased and greatly strengthened Faculty, which works in the closest relations with the general life of the University, has just about maintained its numbers. It has not become a popular resort for students of denominations having theological schools of their own. Even its graduate department, in which growth has been more marked, has not one-tenth of the students that ought to be attracted by the great advantages of a final year at Cambridge, and by the instruction given in subjects not generally touched upon in other theological schools. There is abundant evidence to show that this result comes from two causes—first, the *odium theologicum*, and, second, the fact that the school has distinctly set its face against the indiscriminate pauperizing of students which unhappily prevails in so many theological seminaries.

Ephraim Emerton.

Cambridge August 4, 1892.

POLITICAL PURITY IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are sundry events in the political life of our newer States which show a wonderful tendency in our younger politicians to eliminate the decalogue from politics as Ingalls once advised them to do.

I think a few of the many illustrations in this State would be of interest to your readers. During the recent county conventions I do not recall a single Federal officer who did not take part in the wire-pulling. In Yakima County, for instance, among the delegates were the Indian Agent and his employee, the Register and Receiver of the U. S. Land Office, the Postmaster in the leading post-office, etc. When it is remembered that the local land officers occupy positions of a judicial nature, further comment is unnecessary. But perhaps the most disgraceful example of the spoils system is to be found in Thurston County, where the friends of a candidate for the Supreme Court insisted on the convention appointing a committee to wait on him and obtain a list of the delegates whom he desired to have sent to the State Convention. The candidate returned his list, and they were selected by the Convention. When we remember that he was at the time on the Superior bench, that his leading supporters "pointed with pride" to this as an indication of "strength," and that no adverse criticism has yet appeared, ought we to be surprised that so many admired Hill's snap convention?

The effect of all this is as degrading to our political life as one would expect. It is well known that some of our Superior judges formed combinations with attorneys to secure their positions, and thus give us a living example of the blessings New York enjoyed under Boss Tweed. I am informed on unquestionable authority that an attorney in the central part of the State boasts to his clients that he owns the judge, and two-thirds of the community believe him, yet they are apparently willing to allow him to continue the ownership. Men who are reasonable and honest in most things show a wonderful disinclination to credit any man with a sincere desire to obtain better officers. If one says Federal officers ought to be removed for going into politics, he is a theorist or a crank. Mugwump means hypocrite, or one who changes politics for personal ends, and in its Eastern sense is entirely unknown here. Citizen.

Seattle, Wash., August 2, 1892

EDMUND L. STEWARDSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The death of the young sculptor, Mr. Edmund L. Stewardson, who was drowned on the 3d of July, while sailing at Newport, is a misfortune to American art. That he was so little known is natural, since he did not live to be twenty-eight; it is more significant that he was known so much, and that the work his brief years accomplished had already earned the high esteem and expectations of every artist who saw it.

Mr. Stewardson was a Philadelphian, and began his serious studies in the Life Class at the Academy of Fine Arts, which he entered in February, 1882. He was then seventeen. There were no good chances to learn modelling, but he profited instantly by the admirable teaching of Mr. Eakins in the treatment of muscular action, and developed a power to give the muscles a coherent play throughout any figure, which is a thing seldom mastered except by mature workers. In this young beginner it astonished the instructors at the Paris École des Beaux-Arts, where Mr. Stewardson presented himself for examination in the autumn of 1887. He passed first among seventy-two competitors, French, English, German, and of all countries. This brilliant beginning brought him at once into notice, and during 1888 he was selected by M. Chapu to work with him. In 1889 his nude figure "La Baigneuse" won a mention in the Salon. The excellence of this study got Mr. Stewardson his admission to the Society of American Artists. He was the youngest member ever elected.

In 1890 he started his studio in Philadelphia. During the two remaining years, he worked with ardent industry. Besides many studies, he completed four portrait busts. For two of these he had no live model, and studied from death-masks and photographs — discouraging and unfavorable conditions. Yet as likenesses these busts satisfied the families, while artists were struck with their singular skill and strength. During this last year Mr. Stewardson's merit was becoming recognized. The distinction of his talent, and his just and competent taste, had made an impression even on Philadelphia; and for the coming year he had been appointed to instruct both at the University and at the Academy of Fine Arts. The men in Paris were watching Mr. Stewardson's career, and have been quick to express their distress at his untimely loss. But it will be sufficient to quote Mr. St. Gaudens, who has said: "I was impressed not only by his skill,

but by his personality. My opinion of him both as a sculptor and as a man was such that, had I taken the decorative sculpture on the buildings of the Exposition at Chicago, I had selected Mr. Stewardson to have charge of it all. Without question he would have been a leading sculptor—he was such already among the younger men." O. W.

PHILADELPHIA, August 5, 1892.

Notes.

Two illustrated books by Dr. Charles C. Abbott are announced—'Recent Rambles,' in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.; and 'Recent Archæological Explorations in the Valley of the Delaware,' to be published by Ginn & Co.

D. Appleton & Co., also, have in preparation a book of outdoor life, 'In Gold and Silver,' by George H. Ellwanger, with illustrations by W. H. Gibson, A. B. Wenzel, and W. C. Greenough, in two editions—one "de luxe."

The first volume of an illustrated edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People' will soon be published by Harper & Bros. Several colored plates will reinforce the wood-engravings, and the portrait-gallery will be large.

S. C. Griggs & Co. have nearly ready 'England and its Rulers,' by H. Pomeroy Brewster and George H. Humphrey, and 'Eclectic Shorthand Phrase-book,' by J. G. Cross.

'German Orthography and Phonology,' by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan, is shortly to be issued by Ginn & Co., who set down for the autumn 'Fourier's Series, and Spherical, Cylindrical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics,' with an introductory treatise by Prof. Byerly of Harvard.

D. C. Heath & Co. will soon publish 'The Bible and English Prose Style,' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

A Life of Sir Henry Sumner Maine is promised in the autumn by John Murray, as well as an abridgment of the memoir of Jenny Lind.

Cánovas & Traynor, 3 Calle de Santa Catalina, Madrid, invite subscriptions to a reproduction of the first geographical chart of America (1500), by Juan de la Cosa, Columbus's sailing-master in his first and second voyages. It will be a facsimile at scale, and in the original colors, from which black, by the way, is absent. The price for the popular edition, on satin paper, is twelve shillings. There will also be editions on parchment, hand-colored (£20), and on vellum (£1).

The 'History of Education,' by Prof. Painter of Roanoke College, Va., has been translated and published in Japanese. The same author has ready for publication a 'History of English Literature.'

The Appletons have just brought out a third, revised edition of Mr. Louis Heilprin's 'Historical Reference Book,' which is quite the most compact, convenient, accurate, and authoritative work of the kind in the language. It is a happy combination of history, biography, and geography, and should find a place in every family library, as well as at the elbow of every scholar and writer. The "Chronological Table of Universal History," year by year, has been extended from May, 1886, to May, 1892, and has also been overhauled from 1883. The "Chronological Dictionary of Universal History" has received numerous additions, sometimes at the expense of a trivial omission, like the capture of Arica by Chili. The "Biographical Dictionary" has kept up with the death-roll, and in the case of ex-President Grévy the birthdate is explicitly corrected, adding six years to his life. There are also probably several insertions, but De Amicis is the only one we chance to have remarked. The typography remains ideally good for such a manual.

Roberts Bros. continue their charming edition of Jane Austen's novels with 'Emma' in two volumes, with the customary etched frontispiece vignette to each. And now comes a formidable rival in a dainty English edition devised by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan). The elegant typography is somewhat more condensed, and the volumes are consequently lighter to the hand than in the American edition. The photogravures, after designs by William Cubit Cooke, are more numerous; and in the opening work ('Sense and Sensibility') the frontispiece is from an interesting portrait of Miss Austen at the age of fifteen. The text followed is that of the last editions revised by the author, and the original order of publication is observed. 'Lady Susan' will be omitted. A sketch of Miss Austen prefaces the work before us. Finally, the binding is tasteful in the extreme.

In the latest issue of the Peacock novels, 'Gryll Grange' (Macmillan), the editor owns to some falling off in the author, but he confines it to quantity, and thinks that in quality the book is, within its limits, "as good as any that ever came from Peacock's pen." Ethically he regards it as an advance, and he especially recommends it to the man of letters over its companions because "in none of them is there so much agreeable and instructive talk about books." The novel is published in two volumes.

'The Best Letters of Charles Lamb,' edited with an introduction by Edward Gilpin Johnson (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), represents very fairly Lamb's qualities as a letter-writer,' and also conveys necessarily much information about himself and his friends. What was lacking in the way of autobiography is amply supplied by the editor. The little volume makes a very good shelf-companion to Elia, only it should have an index.

The first volume of Henry Craik's 'Swift: Selections from his Works' (Macmillan) is abundantly provided with editorial helps, in the shape of a Life of unusual excellence on both the historical and literary sides, and in addition brief introductions to each body of selections, and very full and minute notes explaining the mass of contemporary incident, character, and allusion. The first volume covers only the period to 1712, and includes specimens of the early poetry of Swift, the 'Tale of a Tub,' and the Journal to Stella, besides other pieces. The arrangement, however, is not chronological in detail. The volume is solid, containing nearly 380 pages of text. Two volumes of these dimensions and edited in this way should provide quite enough acquaintance with Swift for any except the specialist; but it is rather to older students that such an author appeals. Though a text-book, and carefully made decent, it is not for boys and girls.

A volume that is for boys and girls may be found in 'Select Essays of Addison, together with Macaulay's Essay on Addison's Life and Writings,' edited by Samuel Thurber (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). The preface descants on the teaching of literature, and the notes illustrate a new method, new, at least, in degree. Instead of explaining various simple matters, the scholar's attention is called to the need of his finding out for himself what is wanted, and some hints are given as to what volumes he had better consult, usually books that ought to be at hand in a well-equipped high school. This certainly has the advantage of teaching the scholars something at least of method, and accustoming them to use books collectively. The selections from Addison are unexceptionable; but in the excellent reference to authorities on the period Forster's essay on Steele, replying to Macaulay's studied depreciation, should not have been neglected.

The second volume of Dr. K. A. Schmid's 'Geschichte der Erziehung vom Anfang an bis auf unsere Zeit' (Stuttgart: Cotta), in the preparation of which the editor is aided by "a number of scholars and schoolmen," has just appeared. It is a large octavo of more than a thousand pages, divided into two parts, the first of which begins with a chapter on "Christian Education in its relation to Judaism and to the Ancient World," by the late Prof. Gustav Baur of Leipzig, who is also the author of the final chapter, on "Jewish and Mohammedan Education." The second chapter, on "Education in the Middle Ages," by Prof. Hermann Masius, treats of cloistral and elementary schools, as they then existed, and is supplemented by a chapter on "Mediæval Universities," in which Prof. Otto Kaemmel gives an admirable account of the origin and organization of those institutions, the subjects taught, the methods of instruction, the life and character of the students, and the results of the training they received. The second part of the second volume sketches the history of education in the age of humanism, and the influence of the Reformation as shown in the principal Protestant Universities. We may add that the first volume, published in 1884, was a comprehensive study of education before the Christian era, and that the third volume, which is to be issued before the close of the present year, will be devoted to education in modern times.

M. J. Chailley-Bert patriotically admires the colonizing aptitude of his fellow-countrymen, especially as exhibited in Tonquin, but he has come to the conclusion that the ill success of the French as colonists is due to their lack of foresight and their habit of imposing their laws and ways upon the natives. He has therefore written, under the title 'La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine: l'Expérience Anglaise' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), a study of British methods of colonization and government of conquered Eastern lands. He has selected Hong Kong and Burmah as striking examples, and from the history of these two colonies draws lessons of practical importance which he begs the French people and Government alike to lay to heart.

An edition of Alphonse Daudet's 'L'Obstacle' (B. Westermann & Co.), brought out in the thoroughly artistic style of the Paris house of Flammarion, will please readers by its appearance. The piece itself is in four acts, and turns upon the question of hereditary madness. It is not a strong work, and does not display very much of Daudet's unquestionable talent.

The lithographers are as unwilling as the etchers to be copyists only, if we may judge by the formation in Paris of a society of "Peintres-Lithographes," on the lines of the painter-etchers' association. They announce a quarterly album of ten plates by ten different lithographers. Among the contributors to the first number are M. Jules Cheret and M. A. Willette. The price of the forty annual plates will be 240 francs. The Paris publisher is M. E. Sagot (New York: F. W. Christern).

The principal article in the July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is a description of various journeys in Sierra Leone, by G. H. Garrett. The most important of these was a mission to the Almadi, the ruler of a Mohammedan kingdom on the Upper Niger. This man, who is better known as Samory, was formerly a slave, but has gained his present position by his ability, aided by a reputation as a prophet. His career of conquest, recently checked by the French, is marked by an almost unexampled destruction. Mr. Garrett travelled "four hundred miles through a destroyed country, not a single town or village left, the whole way strewn with bodies in every stage of decomposition to bleached skeletons." Samory's army consists of both horse and foot, and exhibits a remarkable order and discipline. The Mendis, one of the interior tribes, is ruled by a "secret politico-religious society," known as the "Porroh," into which the natives are initiated after a novitiate of from one to four weeks, being tattooed and receiving a new name. "Wars are arranged and stopped, heirs to chiefdom approved or disapproved, and laws generally are made, by the Porroh." The Government has some resemblance to the old feudal system, and trial by ordeal is common.

We are gradually being brought nearer the makers of the much discussed "bird tracks" of the Connecticut River Valley. In "Notes on Triassic Dinosauria," in the *American Journal of Science* for June, 1892, Prof. Marsh of the United States Geological Survey figures and describes portions of the skeletons of three recent and suggestive discoveries. The skull of *Anchisaurus colurus* might at first sight be taken for that of a bird if it were not for the teeth, thirty-six or more in each set. The bones were thin-walled and light. The fore foot had three digits functional in walking, the fifth being rudimentary and the fourth too short. The hind foot also had the fifth digit rudimentary, while the first was so short that the foot would make, as Prof. Marsh says, a three-toed track very much like the supposed bird-tracks of the Connecticut River sandstones.

Fanny D. Bergen contributes to the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for April-June a useful group of popular American plant-names, by way of encouraging this branch of dialect and folk-lore. Of a certain fungus called "death-baby," she notes that as it is fabled to foretell death in the family, she has "known of intelligent people [in Salem, Mass.] rushing out in terror and beating down a colony of these as soon as they appeared in the yard." There are several excellent papers on superstitions and proverbs in Virginia, Baltimore, North Carolina, and Arkansas, furnishing numerous parallels, as in the injunction to put the roof on a building "when the little moon hangs down, so the shingles won't turn up." Indian myths and usages receive their usual attention. The editor, in a book review, disputes the tradition of Miss Eliza Quincy's mother feeding with a snake out of a bowl of bread and milk, and restraining its greed by taps on the head with her spoon. He thinks that Mrs. Quincy honestly appropriated to herself a snake legend known in France and in Germany.

The centenary of the witchcraft delusion at Salem, Mass., lends especial interest to a "Genealogy of the Nurse Family for Five Generations" in *Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine* for July. A frontispiece shows the house of Rebecca Nurse at Danvers. A monument to this good woman, bearing the names of her neighbors who courageously if vainly testified to her character, has just been erected over her grave.

We read in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* that Mr. Sidney Perley of Salem has begun the arrangement of the genealogy of every person who lived in Essex County, Mass., before 1800. In the same number it is noticeable that Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" are placed at the very end, for convenience. This instalment possesses quite the average interest, and has much to tell of the connection of the Wards of Ipswich, among others. It is preceded by a valuable table of the will-registers of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, prepared by Mr. J. C. C. Smith, of the Probate Registry, Somerset House, London. We may also mention a paper by Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis on the "Exhibitions of Harvard College prior to 1800," being an antiquarian research into gifts and bequests for scholarship during that period of which the founders' names have been more or less obscured by a merging of the exhibition accounts. Women figure largely in the list, and the very first gift, £100, was made by Lady Ann Mowlson of London, in 1643.

A properly managed Congress of scientific men from all parts of the world, convened to present and consider investigations in specific lines of research, cannot fail to exert an important influence on the progress of science, whether pure or applied. As part of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the Columbian Exposition, the general Committee on Mathematics and Astronomy, of which Prof. G. W. Hough is Chairman, has issued a preliminary address inviting the coöperation of all persons and societies interested in these departments of physical science, and bringing the general subject of the Congress to the notice of scientific men everywhere. In particular are advice and suggestions sought with reference to the questions to be discussed. The Committee have divided their large field into (1) Pure Mathematics, in which the main sections are arithmetic and theory of numbers, analysis, and mathematical physics; (2) Astronomy, with sections embracing the history of astronomy, astronomical instruments, methods of observation, physical astronomy, and observatory buildings; and (3) Astrophysics, to include spectrum analysis, astronomical photography, and stellar photometry. An Advisory Council has been appointed, with the chief mathematicians and astronomers of the world as members, who will make recommendations of themes to be discussed by the Congress; and the entire movement ought to bring about a closer and more effective international coördination in scientific work than can be said to obtain at present.

—The *Academy* of July 16 published the list of pensions granted during the last year and charged upon the English Civil List. Among those granted on account of scholarship or literary eminence, we note one of £100 a year to the widow of the late Mr. E. A. Freeman, the historian; one of £25 a year to each of the three daughters of the late Rev. F. H. A. Scrivener, "in consideration of the eminence of their father as a Biblical scholar, and of their inadequate means of support"; and one of £50 to the widow of Mr. G. H. Bettany. Mr. Edward Walford receives a pension of £100; Dr. George Gore one of £150; Mr. H. D. Macleod one of £100—all for services rendered to science or literature. Mr. Henry Bradley's admirable work on the 'New English Dictionary' is recognized by a pension of £150. Most people will hear with surprise of the £40 granted to Mrs. Mary Gray Garden, "in consideration of the literary merits of her father, the late James Hogg." The Ettrick Shepherd died fifty-seven years ago, and that a daughter of his is still alive is an unexpected revelation. There are seventeen pensions in all, and their amount is £1,200. Two things are noteworthy in the list: the meagreness of the amounts granted, and the painful addendum that comes back like a refrain at the end of almost every one of the announcements—"in consideration of inadequate means of support." However, the disclosures recently made in the case of Miss A. B. Edwards and her pension may show that the phrase is only a conventional formula.

—'Notes for the Nile,' by H. D. Rawnsley (London: W. Heinemann), is the work of an enthusiastic lover of ancient Egyptian art and literature. The first part contains an account of the methods of the construction and decoration of the tombs, together with the burial ceremonials. This is followed by a description of Mr. Flinders Petrie's work at the Medum Pyramid, showing in a fresh and interesting way the manner in which excavations are now carried on. A chapter upon the great Pharaoh tells in a graphic manner the story of the recent discovery and removal of the royal mummies from their desert tomb to Bulak. This removal, according to Brugsch Bey, who superintended it, was accompanied by a most striking demonstration of grief by the natives. "There arose from all the land of Egypt 'an exceeding bitter cry,' and women wailing and tearing their hair, men casting dust above their heads, came crowding from the villages to the banks to make lamentation for Pharaoh," as the flotilla bearing the bodies passed down the stream. Mr. Rawnsley has also brought together in a readable form the main facts in the life of Seti I., the father of the Pharaoh of the bondage of Israel. The second half of the volume contains some metrical translations of ancient Egyptian hymns, including a portion of the heroic poem of Pentaur and the 'Precepts' of Ptah-hotep. The teachings of this latter book, the oldest in the world, since it was written in the century preceding, 3266 B. C., are marked by simplicity and directness, as well as by their humanity, as the following extract shows: "If thou become great after thou hast been little; if thou hast become rich after thou hast been poor, when thou art at the head of the city, know well how to use the position that thou hast gained. Harden not thy heart because of thy rank; remember that thou art become only the steward of the good things of God. Put not behind thee thy neighbor who is as thou once wast. Treat him as an equal." Among the pictures of the native life of the present day drawn by Mr. Rawnsley, the pleasantest is that of the workpeople of Mr. Petrie, who, without the stimulus of either whip or overseer, work with zeal, industry, and honesty. This leads the author to plead urgently for the abolition of the kurbash, with which in every other part of Egypt the natives are still driven to their work.

—If there were any occasion to doubt the activity and effectiveness of the younger generation of American astronomers in dealing with current problems affecting the future of their science, it would speedily be removed by examination of any such "Account of the Progress of Astronomy" as that now published biennially in the Smithsonian Report, and compiled by Mr. William C. Winlock, an assistant to Prof. Langley, and himself one of the

younger workers who have attained a reputation worth having. To take, for example, the last issue of this periodical paper, which has recently appeared in separate form, perhaps the most significant and far-reaching work of the period in question is that relating to the motions of planetary nebulæ toward or from the earth, by Prof. Keeler, who has lately left the Lick Observatory to become the Director at Allegheny, Pennsylvania. Not only were the nebular movements in space made a subject of careful determination, but the character and position of the brightest line in the nebular spectrum were thoroughly investigated under most favorable conditions of atmosphere and instruments. One of these latter was a Rowland diffraction grating with 14,438 lines to the inch. Whoever has been fascinated by the meteoritic theory of Lockyer will find in Keeler's work a rather harsh damper of his ardor; for in no one of the nebulæ observed has the critical line been found coincident with the fluting of magnesium, as Lockyer maintained, but the signal observations of Dr. Huggins have met with the fullest confirmation, and the chief nebular line has at no time and under no circumstances appeared anything like a fluting.

—Prof. Barnard, still remaining upon the staff of the Lick Observatory, is hardly less well known, and his enthusiastic labors have received frequent comment in these columns; and a third young member of that staff, Prof. Schaeberle, has achieved much distinction more recently by his contributions to solar theories, and to eclipse research as well. This latter, calling for expeditions not infrequently to remote parts, has formed an attractive field which the younger astronomers of America have not been slow to harvest—Pickering employing important modifications of spectroscopic appliances in California; Todd inventing and using in Africa a novel method of operating any number of photographic instruments as a mechanical automaton; and Bigelow, assistant astronomer on this latter expedition, developing to a satisfactory conclusion a form of portable telescope which promises much for the future. But this note must be concluded with briefest mention of a half score of other names—some of them very prominently known, and all of them recognized in scientific circles the world over, because of their work: Chandler, whose researches upon variable stars are unsurpassed; Boss, whose standard star-places are authority in every observatory and upon every survey; Elkin, the precision of whose stellar distances ranks his work with that of the great Bessel; Crew and Hale, who are manifesting remarkable ability in solar studies; Payne and Wilson, engaged upon miscellaneous astronomical problems, Comstock and Porter upon star positions and the investigation of astronomical constants; the younger Hall, determining anew the mass of the planet Saturn; Sanford, making important researches into the psychology of personal equation; Very and Hutchins, attacking with marked success the intricate questions which are presented by the lunar radiations; while the activities of many others whose names do not occur at this moment are scarcely less worthy of mention. All told, there seems in America to be a distinct growth in astronomical interest unexcelled elsewhere, except, perhaps, among the French.

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—I.

The Founding of the German Empire by William I. By Heinrich von Sybel. Translated by Marshall Livingston Perrin, Ph.D., of Boston University, assisted by Gamaliel Bradford, jr. Vols. III., IV., V. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1891-'92.

In Von Sybel's second volume Bismarck was inducted into the premiership of Prussia, and began to smooth the way for the struggle with Austria. By the aid rendered to Russia during the Polish insurrection, he strengthened the dynastic sympathy already existing between that country and his own; and he gratified the French Emperor and initiated better relations with France by a commercial treaty which considerably lowered the duties levied by the German Customs Union.

In his third volume the historian describes the united diplomatic action of Prussia and Austria against the German Confederation on the one hand and Denmark on the other, and their joint conduct of the Danish war. The treaty of peace left the allies in possession of Schleswig-Holstein, but in their joint tenancy lay the germs of discord and conflict in the near future. In his fourth volume the author traces the growth of the quarrel down to the outbreak of the Austro-Prussian war, and in the fifth he describes that war and the formation of the North German Confederation. The third and fifth volumes are largely occupied with the military movements of 1864 and 1866. This part of the history, often recounted in official reports and in the writings of military experts, we pass over, remarking merely that Von Sybel's narrative is always clear and interesting. The real contribution to historic knowledge made by these three volumes is the detailed account, from the Prussian and other archives, of the Prussian and European diplomacy of the years 1864 to 1866 inclusive.

The complicated Schleswig-Holstein question has never, we think, been treated with equal lucidity. It is interesting to note that the historian achieves clearness of statement by insisting on the same distinction which underlies the diplomacy of the statesman—the distinction of the constitutional question in Schleswig-Holstein from the dynastic question. The almost unanimous demand of the German people (supported at the time by Von Sybel himself) was that the dynastic question should be placed in the foreground. Holstein and Schleswig were to be separated from Denmark by compelling Denmark and Europe to recognize the Augustenburg claimant as rightful proprietor of the duchies. Bismarck, however, insisted on postponing the dynastic question, and conducted the diplomatic campaign on the constitutional issue—on the claim that the duchies had constitutional rights guaranteed by European treaties which Denmark was violating. It is easy to see now how much wiser this policy was than that advocated by the Prussian Diet and the German people. The dynastic question was not absolutely clear; the constitutional claim hardly admitted of dispute. On the dynastic issue the hands of Prussia were tied by the London treaties of 1852, to which she was a party, and which had set aside the Augustenburg claims. On the constitutional issue Prussia had the best of rights to interfere actively, for in the treaties of 1852 Denmark had promised Austria and Prussia that Schleswig should not be incorporated in the Danish State, but should remain autonomous. Denmark was now trying to incorporate Schleswig; she had issued a common constitution for Denmark and Schleswig. This was a violation of her treaty obligations, and Austria and Prussia had a clear right to force her to observe those obligations.

Of course they had the alternative right of declaring that their assent to the exclusion of the Augustenburg claimant had been invalidated by Denmark's failure to keep her promises. In the treaties of 1852 those promises had been expressly declared to be the ground of that assent. In legal phrase, Austria and Prussia had the right either to demand specific performance or to rescind the whole contract. Had they elected the latter course, they would have been free to recognize Frederick of Augustenburg as Duke of Schleswig-Holstein. But they would then have had no right to make war upon Denmark for the purpose of installing Duke Frederick in Schleswig. Acting as German powers and through the German Diet, they could establish him in Holstein, but in Schleswig the German Confederation had no authority. The invasion of Schleswig in behalf of the Augustenburger, had it been attempted, would have been without color of right, and all Europe would have been arrayed on the side of Denmark. The result would probably have been the permanent incorporation of Schleswig in Denmark; and this, as Von Sybel shows, was the result which the dominant party in Denmark, the "Eider-Danes," desired. They were willing to let Holstein go in order really to secure Schleswig.

It was objected at the time that the course of action pursued by Bismarck would result in the reëstablishment of the personal union of both duchies with Denmark. This was, in fact, what Austria and nearly all German conservatives desired. The liberation of the duchies, attempted in 1848, was associated with the national and revolutionary ideas of tha period, and was therefore abhorrent to all good Tories. It was supposed that Bismarck shared these views. But Bismarck, as we now know, neither desired the reëstablishment of the personal union, nor did he anticipate it. War once declared, he saw that the prize of victory would be whatever the victors chose to make it. But he could not well say this, for such a declaration would have frightened Austria out of the alliance and would have consolidated European sentiment against Prussia. By recognizing, for the time, the personal authority of Christian IX. in the duchies, and by restricting Prussia's initial demands to the reëstablishment of Schleswig's autonomy, he carried Austria with him and disarmed the jealousy of Europe. The condemnation which was showered upon him by the diets of Prussia and other German States, and by popular meetings all over Germany, was ingeniously turned to account and made to serve his policy. "See," said Bismarck (in effect) to Austria and to the other Powers, "how revolutionary is the demand of the German people. They desire, in defiance of the European treaties of 1852, to separate Schleswig-Holstein entirely from Denmark. We, on the other hand, take our stand on those treaties and seek simply their enforcement. If you resist our just and moderate demands, we must retire from the conduct of affairs, and ministers in sympathy with the popular desire must take our places." Alarmed by such a prospect, Austria joined forces with Prussia, and Europe endeavored to persuade Denmark to grant the Austro-Prussian demands. But this, as Bismarck foresaw, Denmark could not do. King Christian, indeed, wished to withdraw the Constitution which had been proclaimed for Denmark and Schleswig; but the Eider-Danish Ministry, backed by the sentiment of Copenhagen, refused its coöperation, and the King found it impossible to form a Conservative Cabinet. So it came to war, and

the result of the war was such as Bismarck had hoped from the outset.

Through all the preliminary negotiations, as we now learn, Bismarck avoided committing Prussia in any definitive manner to the personal union of the duchies with Denmark. He recognized this as the existing legal status, but he refused to bind Prussia to the maintenance of this status after hostilities should have begun. In January, 1864, when the treaty of alliance between Prussia and Austria was still under discussion, Austria proposed that no other solution of the question than the personal union should be adopted, save by agreement of both the allies. Bismarck amended this clause so as to make it read that the future position of the duchies should be determined only by agreement between the allies. The difference was very important: the Austrian draft would have enabled Austria to hold Prussia to the personal union, while Bismarck's draft gave Prussia the right to veto the personal union. The Austrian Ministers did not fail to appreciate the distinction, but they were by this time so far committed to the Prussian alliance, and so apprehensive of Bismarck's retirement and the appointment of a radical cabinet in Berlin, that they accepted the amended reading. Later in the same month England, France, and Russia tried to obtain from the allies a pledge of Denmark's territorial integrity. Austria wished to give the pledge, but Bismarck refused.

After the first victories of the allies and during the first negotiations for peace at London, Prussia agreed with Austria that the personal union, with proper guarantees for the autonomy of the duchies, was "to be preferred"; but the Danes, as Bismarck expected, refused to discuss this arrangement. From that moment the personal union disappeared entirely from the Prussian programme, and Bismarck refused to consider any solution except the complete separation of Holstein and at least the major part of Schleswig from Denmark. The further victories of the allies and the quiescence of Europe brought Denmark to terms, and in the treaty of peace Schleswig-Holstein and the little duchy of Lauenburg were ceded to Austria and Prussia. The question was then, of course, what should the allies do with the duchies? Austria, carried far beyond her original programme by the course of events and the astute diplomacy of the Prussian premier, fell back upon the candidacy of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg. She had originally opposed his claims, identified as they were with the national and revolutionary impulses of the German people; but the organization of Schleswig-Holstein as an independent State was now the only alternative to the annexation of the duchies by Prussia, and the Augustenburger was almost universally regarded as the rightful Duke. This was a solution which Bismarck did not desire—he was not inclined to erect a new principality in North Germany; but he did not refuse to discuss the proposition. He demanded for Prussia, however, certain naval and military rights in Schleswig-Holstein. Prussia, he declared, was entitled to some advantages in return for her expenditures of blood and treasure; and the duchies, left to themselves, were not strong enough to resist Denmark. Without disputing these assertions, Austria intimated that Duke Frederick should first be recognized and that negotiations should then be opened with him. Bismarck preferred to have the negotiations precede the recognition. An informal interview with the Duke showed him to be quite disinclined to make the concessions which Prussia desired. In the meantime a change of ministry took place in Vienna, and the new Cabinet, while admitting that Prussia might reasonably claim certain privileges in the duchies, protested against her demands as excessive. Schleswig-Holstein, thus "protected," would not be an independent State.

In the spring of 1865 the relations between the allies were seriously strained. Again, as in the early stages of the Schleswig-Holstein complication, Bismarck carefully studied the European situation. Napoleon was anxious to embroil Prussia and Austria, and hinted at an alliance with the former Power. Bismarck did not desire the French alliance, for French support could be recompensed only by the sacrifice of German interests. With Italy, however, an alliance could easily be arranged without the abandonment of any German territory. All that was necessary was to promise her Venice. Napoleon seemed favorably disposed towards such an alliance. At a full Cabinet meeting in Berlin, May 29, 1865, Bismarck and Moltke gave their voices for the annexation of Schleswig-Holstein and war with Austria. But King William decided to adhere for the time to the demand for a Prussian protectorate over the duchies. This being still refused, the Augustenburg candidacy disappeared from the Prussian list of possibilities as completely as the idea of the personal union with Denmark had previously disappeared. An official opinion of the Prussian Crown jurists, in June, 1865, denied the validity of Duke Frederick's claims. His father had renounced his rights and taken money for the renunciation; King Christian IX. had been the rightful Duke of Schleswig and Holstein until he ceded them to Austria and Prussia; nobody had now any rights of sovereignty in the duchies except these two Powers. Fortified by this legal opinion, King William called upon the Emperor Francis Joseph to coöperate with him in expelling the Augustenburger from the duchies. No satisfactory answer was received and war seemed inevitable. But another change of ministry took place in Vienna, and the quarrel was patched up by the treaty of Gastein. According to Von Sybel, Bismarck was at the moment less sure than he liked of the attitude of Italy and France, while the Austrian Ministers found the army and treasury in such a condition that they shrank from an immediate war. The terms of the treaty are well known. Prussia and Austria agreed to divide the administration of the duchies, Austria holding Holstein and Prussia Schleswig. Prussia also obtained Lauenburg outright, for a money consideration, and the control of the harbor of Kiel. But the great advantage which Prussia registered at Gastein was the practical repudiation by Austria of the Augustenburg claims, and her tacit recognition of the correctness of the Prussian position—that nobody but Austria and Prussia had any rights in the duchies.

The separate administration, however, occasioned no less friction than the joint administration. The arrangement was felt on both sides to be provisional, and Austria soon returned to the Augustenburg candidacy as the most desirable settlement of the question. The encouragement given by Austria to the Augustenburg party aroused increasing bitterness in Berlin; and when, at last, Austria submitted the Schleswig-Holstein question to the Confederate Diet, Bismarck declared the treaty of Gastein broken and Prussian troops were sent into Holstein. This, in his view, was merely the reëstablishment of the joint administration; but Austria pronounced it an act of war. The Austrian representative in the Confederate Diet moved the mobilization of the Confederate troops against Prussia; and, this motion being carried by a majority vote, Prussia declared the Confederation dissolved.

Before the outbreak of the war, Prussia had secured the alliance of Italy and assurances of French neutrality. The negotiations which led to this result constitute a singularly tangled web of intrigue. After the conclusion of the treaty of Gastein, La Marmora suggested to Austria the sale of Venice to Italy and an alliance against Prussia. The fruits of victory were to be, for Italy, the Italian Tyrol, and for Austria, Silesia. At about the same time Bismarck offered to buy out Austria's interest in Schleswig-Holstein. These proposals were offensive to the pride of the Imperial State, and they were both rejected. Italy, with the authorization of Napoleon, then turned to Prussia; and, after much haggling, due to the suspicious temper of the Italian negotiators, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded, April 8, 1866, which was to hold good only in case hostilities should begin within three months. Austria, getting wind of this treaty, offered Venice to Napoleon, April 26, in return for French and Italian neutrality. Napoleon inquired (not for the first time) what Prussia would pay for French neutrality, but obtained no definite answer. Bismarck, informed of the offer of Austria to abandon Venice, and uncertain of the attitude of France, considered, for a moment, the possibility of a reconciliation with Austria. It was very late for such an attempt, for Austria, Italy, and Prussia were all mobilizing at full speed. But certain ingenious proposals for a settlement were made by one Gablenz, a Prussian subject himself, but with influential Austrian connections, his brother being a general in the Austrian service. Gablenz's suggestions were: (1) Schleswig-Holstein to constitute an independent State under a Prussian prince; (2) Prussia to receive the harbor of Kiel and to pay Austria five million thalers; (3) Schleswig-Holstein to pay Austria twenty million thalers for her expenses in liberating the duchies; (4) the military control of Germany to be divided between Prussia and Austria, Prussia commanding all the troops of North Germany and Austria those of South Germany. It seems, according to Von Sybel, that these proposals recommended themselves to Bismarck, and that Gablenz was authorized to see what he could do in Vienna. Here also his plan appears to have met with some favor; but the Austrian Ministers, impelled to war by internal troubles and impending bankruptcy, decided that it was too late to think of a peaceful settlement.

During these months (April and May, 1866) Napoleon and his Cabinet, playing to some extent at cross-purposes with each other, were negotiating simultaneously with Prussia, Austria, and Italy; and the attitude assumed by France, judged even by the lax canons of international morality, verged upon perfidy. The alliance between Prussia and Italy had been concluded not only with the knowledge but with the approval of Napoleon. His old sympathies for Italy and his vague enthusiasm for the "principle of nationality" led him to welcome a combination which would carry the unification of Italy a step further, and which might lead to a more compact organization of North Germany. Personally he seems to have believed that the friendship of Germany was worth more to France than territorial gains coupled with rancor. But such a policy did

not recommend itself to the French people or to his own Ministers. They demanded tangible advantages for France in compensation for the disadvantage entailed by the strengthening of her neighbors. Prussia, though often sounded, would promise nothing definite. Bismarck sheltered himself behind his King; he himself was "more Prussian than German," but King William would not agree to the cession of a foot of German territory. Napoleon admitted that the attitude of the King was an honorable one, but authorized his Minister of Foreign Affairs to negotiate with Austria. According to Von Sybel, an arrangement was concluded by which, in the event of Austrian success, that Power was to have Silesia and to cede Venice to Italy. But the States of the Church were to be enlarged and the kingdom of Naples, it seems, was to be reëstablished. In return for this sacrifice by France of Italian unity, Austria agreed to sacrifice German unity. France was to rectify her eastern frontier, and the Confederation of the Rhine was to reappear in Southwestern Germany. All this if France would remain neutral and hold Italy back. But of course all these results were contingent upon the outbreak of the Austro-Prussian war; and Bismarck, uninformed, indeed, of the arrangements between France and Austria, but aware of the negotiations, did his best to make Napoleon believe that Prussia might still come to terms with Austria. One thing at least was perfectly clear—that Napoleon was anxious to see the war begun; and Bismarck, who desired from France nothing but neutrality, played upon Napoleon's anxiety with complete success. France pledged neutrality without any counter-pledge on the part of Prussia.

Meanwhile Italy had been informed that she was to have Venice in any case—even without fighting for it. Italy urged that she was bound to fight by the treaty of April 8. This Napoleon could not but recognize; but he counselled, or permitted his Ministers to counsel, that Italy should adhere to the letter rather than the spirit of her engagement. This, according to Von Sybel, explains the extremely lax conduct of the ensuing campaign by La Marmora.

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE'S PARADISE.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. III. Paradise. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

DANTE'S third canticle is the least known and the least understood; nor need we be surprised that this is the case, because the "Paradise" is the most ethereal of all great poems. Readers who are startled by the terrific pictures in the "Hell," are not always able to rise to the sublimity of the "Paradise," to appreciate which a deeper insight and stronger imagination are needed. Shelley, we know, ranked the third canticle highest, and we have heard Mr. Lowell ratify this opinion. A little reflection will show why this theme should be so difficult. Eternal bliss is the one thing that man can form no adequate conception of; he can imagine pain as being prolonged for ever—that is hell; but he can experience no single pleasure which would not become a pain if it were to endure for ever. How, then, describe the unimaginable bliss of Paradise? How attribute to heaven's hosts employments which shall not seem insipid or become monotonous? How portray the citizens of heaven with individual features, and not merely as vague embodiments of virtues? Dante has done all this, which, had he not done it, we should declare to be unachievable. By suggestions, by parallels, and often enough by silence, he has enabled those who read wisely to catch, as he himself caught, glimpses, symbols if you will, of that state of perfected souls which we call heaven. Wonderful, indeed, is the effect which he produces by his references to music and to light; most wonderful is the way in which Beatrice, the beatified woman, his ideal on earth, his guide in heaven, irradiates his ascent to the very throne of God. "Das Ewig-weibliche zieht uns hinan," said Goethe; Dante shows us in supreme fashion how ideal womanhood leads man upward to the empyrean where the mere human is merged in the divine.

Such high themes must necessarily be above the ordinary comprehension; but there are other difficulties which account for the comparative neglect of this canticle. It is concerned with scholastic theology, whose terms have become obsolete except to students, and whose propositions seem narrow and inadequate to the modern enlightened mind. Even Dante cannot always charge this theology with human interest, and his truest admirers must concede, therefore, that there are in the "Paradise" certain dreary patches, where only the antiquary or the theologian will care to linger. As a whole, this canticle is the least picturesque, because it is impossible, except by hints, to describe the scenery of heaven. Hell, with its murk and flames, its whirlwinds and precipices and frozen pool, could be painted most vividly; not so Paradise. Yet in no other part of his epic has Dante displayed so conclusively his mastery of what we may call the architectonics of poetry, reducing all his material to proper proportions, and maintaining, canto by canto, that correspondence of contrast needed to emphasize the difference among souls in Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. Goethe, in the Second Part of "Faust," attempted an analogous development, but his work, in spite of many fine details, is mechanical as a whole; whereas Dante has hidden his machinery, and never allows us to hear the grinding of the wheels and the click of cog in cog. Though his theme is heaven, he constantly creates the impression of reality by references to earth, and in no other part of the 'Divine Comedy' does he admit us so intimately into the secrets of his own personality. In the famous apostrophe to the Roman Eagle, in Cacciaguida's account of uncorrupt Florence, he shows us his political ideals, and in many other passages he reveals his nature. Finally, the music of his verse pervades even those theological wastes we spoke of, and in neither of the other canticles can be found single lines or longer passages to be more treasured, whether for the beauty of their expression or the preciousness of their thought.

We set down thus, almost at random, a few of the impressions which a re-reading of the "Paradise" in Mr. Norton's translation, with the original at hand, has made upon us, because, having but little to say in criticism of the translation itself, we wish, as far as we may, to turn other readers to this crowning portion of Dante's epic. The translation is uniformly excellent, and almost invariably superior to Mr. Butler's. As an illustration of this take the well-known lines:

"Quale allodetta, che in aere si spazia
Prima cantando, e poi tace contenta
Dell' ultima dolcezza che la sazia,
Tal mi sembiò l'imago della impronta
Dell' eterno piacere, al cui disio
Ciascuna cosa, quale ell'è, diventa." (xx, 73-78.)

These Mr. Butler renders thus: "Like a lark which goes abroad in air, singing first, then holds her peace content with the last sweetness which sates her; such seemed to me the image of the imprint of the eternal pleasure, according to its desire for which each thing becomes of what sort it is." Mr. Norton's version runs: "Like as a little lark that in the air expatiates, first singing, and then is silent, content with the last sweetness which satisfies her, such seemed to me the imprint of the Eternal Pleasure, according to whose desire everything becomes that which it is." Here, as in numberless other instances which might be quoted, the superiority is fundamentally one of style, the power to put into better English more exactly the meaning of the Italian.

A minute criticism of Mr. Norton's translation might unearth particular words for which Dante scholars might prefer to substitute others, but we have noted no sentence which does not fairly interpret the original, and the choice of a particular word is largely a matter of taste. Thus, the *traligna* (xvi, 58) is represented by "degenerates," although the figure called up by the original is lost. Again, the much-discussed *si liqua*, in the first line of the fifteenth canto,

"Benigna volontade, in che si liqua,"

does not wholly satisfy us in Mr. Norton's "manifests itself." In xii, 99, we prefer to take *alta vena* as the object rather than the subject of *preme*, reading, "he went forth like a torrent which pours out a deep vein." So *ultimo* (xviii, 57) is better rendered "utmost" than "latest." *Ventre*, in xxiii, 104, is translated "bosom," in xxxiii, 7, "womb"; it would be well to use the latter word in both cases. How far English words which, if not obsolete, are at least unusual, may profitably be employed, is another question to be decided by individual taste. Thus, *convento* (xxx, 129) is rightly translated "convent," if we understand Dante to speak figuratively, but if he means, as seems more probable, a "coming together" or "assemblage," then the English "convent" is perhaps too quaint; for, though the Elizabethans used it as equivalent to "assemblage," custom has long since restricted it to specify the abode of monks or nuns. On the other hand, many of Mr. Norton's happy renderings deserve to be mentioned, as "crisis" for *punto* (xxx, 23), "bolted again" for *ricerna* (xi, 22), "paw" for *pianta* (xvi, 39); but they are part of the general excellence of the work, and it would be too long to enumerate them.

The notes, as usual, elucidate without going into discussion over the disputed points, and ought to suffice for any reader who wishes to get an understanding of Dante's general purpose. In the 'Divine Comedy,' as in the other supreme works of literature, the meaning of the really important passages is seldom perplexing; it is around details of phrase and textual minutiæ that commentators wage their too heated strife. The best advice that can be given to any beginner in Dante, or Shakspere, or Homer, is to master the essentials before turning aside into the maze of criticism.

In taking leave of this translation, we are reminded that within a generation America has produced the three most eminent English-speaking students of Dante—Longfellow, Lowell, and Norton, all neighbors at Cambridge. This is a fact for national pride, which too often exults over fleeting achievements in literature, to rejoice at. That Dante should be in large measure the master of three such men is also a significant fact, to be understood best by those who best understand Dante himself. His permanence was long since assured. His

theology has grown antiquated, his philosophy has been superseded; these were but the transient conditions of his time for which we make due allowance, and in spite of which his poem lives, and will live, because above all other poems it deals with the permanent concerns of the human soul. Besides Dante, only Shakspere had traced the full circuit of man's life. It is unnecessary, it would be idle to say which is the greater—such comparisons are for schoolboys; but we may say that in his direct influence in shaping character, Dante has no superior. From him whoever will may learn, as he himself learned from Brunetto Latini, *come l'uom s'eterna*, how man makes himself eternal.

But Dante is not only a great moral guide, one of the four or five men who have fathomed deepest the spiritual nature of humanity; he is also the consummate artist. His ethical power might have been forgotten had it not been interfused with his poetic genius. And at the present time it were well that any one who desires to express himself through literature should study Dante long and wisely. In his art is a corrective for the "Impressionists" of the hour, on the one hand, and for the shallow disciples of "art for art's sake," on the other. His compression rebukes the diffuseness which characterizes nearly all contemporary writing—he exhausts in a single passage an episode which would now be rolled thin through three volumes. His intensity, laying bare reality at one stroke, rebukes our Epidermists who, through lack of imagination, heap up innumerable petty details, in the hope that thereby they may produce at least a skin-deep semblance of reality. Dante teaches nothing more clearly than that the cumulative process can never do the work of the imagination, nor mere observation that of insight. Dante deals constantly with essentials; our literary workers, whether in prose or verse, deal too generally with what philosophers term accidents. Hence it would be a good augury for the future of our literature if those who are now seeking guidance from Muscovy and Scandinavia, from Paris and Madrid, would turn to Dante, the great example of what is permanently beautiful, the great antidote against literary aberrations. Those who cannot read him in the Italian will find in Mr. Norton's translation all that it is possible for a translation to give of his preëminent qualities.

FRANCE OF THE JULY MONARCHY AND THE SECOND EMPIRE.

An Englishman in Paris: Notes and Recollections. D. Appleton & Co. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xv, 332; xv, 352.

THIS is an entertaining book crammed full of anecdotes about Frenchmen and Frenchwomen who were prominent in literature, art, and politics between 1830 and 1870. The first volume treats of the reign of Louis Philippe, the second of the Second Empire. The author, while giving some clues to his identity, conceals his name; and the easiest way to show a proper appreciation of the amusement he provides is to respect his incognito. He evidently belongs to an English family of distinction, was educated and married in France, where he was also well connected and where he spent most of his life; he never had any difficulty in becoming acquainted with the leaders of any of the several worlds which make up the world of Paris, and he seems to have had a truly Boswellian *flair* for celebrities, whether in the chrysalis or in the butterfly stage; he is quite devoid of every tincture of British insularity, and almost the only prejudice which can be laid to his charge is a very strong one against the bourgeoisie, imbibed during his youthful intercourse with the artists and other Bohemians who gave its peculiar character to the Quartier Latin in the thirties.

The Quartier Latin furnishes the theme of his opening chapter, which is mostly taken up with a description of the pranks, frolics, and practical jokes of the art students who inhabited a tumble-down building of five or six stories called "La Childebert," in the street of the same name, and many of whom achieved abiding fame; as witness Paul Delaroche, Tony Johannot, Aimé Millet, Eugène Delacroix, to mention only those whose reputation extends beyond France. As the building was too shaky to make dancing a safe amusement, the frequent festive gatherings of its inmates generally took the form of fancy-dress *conversazioni*, the peculiar feature of which was a strict adherence to the local color of the various periods represented. On such occasions

"the guests of the inmates of 'La Childebert' not only managed to out-Herod Herod in diction and attire, but, to heighten illusion still further, adopted as far as possible the mode of conveyance supposed to have been employed by their prototypes. The classicists, and those still addicted to the illustration of Greek and Roman mythology, though nominally in the minority at the 'Childebert' itself, were as a rule most successful in these attempts. The ass that bore Silenus, the steeds that had drawn the chariot of the triumphant Roman warrior, the she-goat that was supposed to have suckled Jupiter, were as familiar to the inhabitants of the Rue Childebert as the cats and mongrels of their own households. The obstructions caused by the former no longer aroused their ire; but when, one evening, Romulus and Remus made their appearance, accompanied by the legendary she-wolf, they went mad with terror. The panic was at its height when, with an utter disregard of mythological tradition, Hercules walked up the street leading the Nemæan lion. The aid of the police was invoked, but neither the police nor the national guards, who came after them, dared to tackle the animals; though they might have done so safely, because the supposed wolf was a great dane and the lion a mastiff, but so marvellously padded and painted as to deceive any but the most practised eye." (Vol. i., p. 14.)

When these scapegraces went to their favorite Théâtre Bobino, they joined in the choruses of the songs, and drowned the dialogue with interpolations from all parts of the house, until the noise rose to such a pitch that the manager came out and addressed them in a stereotyped speech, which they knew by heart, and in which he pointed out that the police would close the place if the audience disturbed the peaceful evening hours spent by the neighboring inhabitants in the bosom of their families; "which remark was always followed by the audience intoning as one man Grétry's 'Où peut-on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille?' the orchestra—such an orchestra—playing the accompaniment, and the manager himself beating time." For the rest of the evening there was comparative quiet.

Although taking much delight in the society of these budding artists, it was the men who had already made their mark whom our author preferred in the world of literature. His great hero is Dumas (the elder), and he is never tired of sounding his praises, to which he gives up nearly all of his third chapter, with frequent references in other parts of the book. When speaking of the personal charm of Horace Vernet, he says that the only one of his contemporaries who exercised the same spell on his companions was Alexandre Dumas; in his account of the Duc d'Orléans, the oldest son of Louis Philippe, he calls him "one of the most charming men I have known. I always couple him in my mind with Benjamin Disraeli and Alexandre Dumas the elder. I knew the English statesman almost as well during part of my life as the French novelist. Though intellectually wide apart from them, the Duke had one, if not two traits in common with both: his utter contempt for money affairs, and the personal charm he wielded." (Vol. i., p. 294.)

The chronic impecuniosity of Dumas is much dwelt upon, and is favorably contrasted with that of other men, as, for instance, Lamartine. It was the more remarkable from the fact that for forty years Alexandre Dumas could not have earned less than $40,000 per annum, and that he neither smoked, drank, nor gambled, besides being a most frugal eater. Nevertheless, "it rained writs and summonses around him, while he himself was frequently without a penny."

"M. du Chaffault one day told me of a scene *à propos* of this which is worth reproducing. He was chatting to Dumas in his study when a visitor was shown in. He turned out to be an Italian man of letters and refugee on the verge of starvation. M. du Chaffault could not well make out what was said, because they were talking Italian, but all at once Dumas got up and took from the wall behind him a magnificent pistol, one of a pair. The visitor walked off with it, to M. du Chaffault's surprise. When he was gone, Dumas turned to his friend and explained: 'He was utterly penniless, and so am I; so I gave him the pistol.'

"'Great Heavens! You surely did not recommend him to go and make an end of himself!' interrupted Du Chaffault.

"Dumas burst out laughing. 'Of course not. I merely told him to go and sell or pawn it, and leave me the fellow-one in case some other poor wretch should want assistance while I am so terribly hard up.' " (Vol. i., p. 86.)

Work was a pleasure to Dumas, and while writing he would sometimes burst into a roar of laughter at the sallies of his characters. On one occasion, when he had been out shooting all day and was tired, he walked to a farmhouse to have a sleep; but, as the place was too noisy for that, he wrote a play in one act, "Romulus," which he sent to the Comédie-Française under a pseudonym, as the work of a young unknown author, and which was accepted without a dissentient vote.

Eugène Sue, who at one time divided the popular favor with Dumas, but has been distanced in the long run, does not fare nearly as well at the hands of our author, who accuses him of inveterate snobbishness, and of dandyism which was offensive because it did not sit naturally upon him. He was admitted to the Jockey Club as one of its original members, but made himself so offensive by the airs he put on after the success of his works had turned his head, that his name was dropped from the roll because, owing to a momentary embarrassment, he failed to pay his subscription; a rule being enforced against him which was almost a dead letter, but was seized as a pretext for getting rid of him. He endeavored to neutralize his expulsion by sending in his resignation, but the Committee adhered to its action. It is hard to realize at this distance of time what a sensation was created by 'Les Mystères de Paris' while it was appearing in serial form in the *Débats*, although on a larger scale it was similar to what we have witnessed in the case of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward.' Perhaps a further resemblance may occur to the reader of the following passage:

"In reality, Sue was in the position of Molière's 'bourgeois gentilhomme,' who spoke prose without being aware of it; for there was not the smallest evidence from his former

work that he intended to inaugurate any crusade, either socialistic or philanthropic, when he began his 'Mystères de Paris.' He simply wanted to write a stirring novel. But, unlike M. Jourdain, he did not plead ignorance of his own good motives when congratulated upon them. On the contrary, he gravely and officially replied in the *Débats* without winking. Some of the papers, not to be outdone, gravely recounted how whole families had been converted from their evil ways by the perusal of the novel; how others, after supper, had dropped on their knees to pray for their author; how one workingman had exclaimed: 'You may say what you like, it would be a good thing if Providence sent many men like M. Sue in this world to take up the cudgels of the honest and struggling artisan.' Thereupon Béranger, who did not like to be forgotten in this chorus of praise, paid a ceremonious visit to Sue, and between the two they assumed the protectorship of the horny-handed son of toil." (Vol. i., p. 57.)

Another famous writer of whom glimpses are afforded in these pages is Alfred de Musset, of whom we are told that, like Balzac and Dumas, he was even something more than a man of genius: he was a man of the world and a gentleman, who thought it worth his while to be an agreeable companion.

"Unlike Victor Hugo, Lamartine, Chateaubriand, and Eugène Sue, all of whom I knew about the same time, they did not deem it necessary to stand mentally aloof from ordinary mortals. Alfred de Musset and Alexandre Dumas were both very handsome, but each in a different way."

"De Musset improved upon better acquaintance. He was apt to strike one at first as distant and supercilious. He was neither the one nor the other—simply very reserved, and at the best of times very sad, not to say melancholy. It was not affectation, as has been said so often; it was his nature. The charge of superciliousness arose from his distressing short-sightedness, which compelled him to stare very hard at people without the least intention of being offensive." (Vol. i., p. 44.)

We have allowed so much space to authors that we have almost crowded out the painters, musical composers, actresses, princes, and politicians, to say nothing of other kinds of magnates at whom our Englishman takes his snap shots. On page 65 of the second volume, speaking of Persigny, he says that this statesman "frankly averred that he preferred Walewski's undisguised and outspoken hostility to De Morny's very questionable cordiality. 'The one would take my head like Judith took Holofernes,' the other would shave it like 'Delilah shaved Samson's, provided I trusted myself to either, which I am not likely to do.'" To Persigny the author attributes a very important part in the creation of the Empire. He pronounces him the superior of Louis Napoleon in energy and activity, and the prime mover in the *Coup d'État*. He says that "in Persigny's mind the whole of the scheme was worked out prior to Louis Napoleon's election to the Presidency." "He did not want a republic, even with Louis Napoleon as a President for life; he wanted an Empire." He asserts that as late as Nov. 26 Napoleon endeavored to postpone the stroke for a month, but that "De Persigny showed his teeth and insisted upon the night of the 1st or 2d of December as the latest."

Of Napoleon III. he speaks with toleration, and has a high opinion of his abilities; his view has much in common with that expressed in the memoirs of the Duke of Coburg. He says that he knew Louis Napoleon very well for nearly a quarter of a century, and felt as little competent to give an opinion of him on the last day of his acquaintance as on the first. Concerning his pronunciation of French he says that "the moment he became excited the *f's* and the *t's* and the *p's* were always trying to oust the *v's*, the *d's*, and the *b's* from their newly acquired positions, and often gained a momentary victory." He relates that in Napoleon's first interview with Bismarck the former complimented the latter on his French as follows:

"'M. de Bismarck, I have never heard a German speak French as you do.'

"'Will you allow me to return the compliment, sire?'

"'Certainly.'

"'I have never heard a Frenchman speak French as you do.'"

Of Gen. Cavaignac, the only serious opponent of Napoleon in his candidacy for the Presidency, our author speaks with the utmost contempt. He believes that

"the nobodies who have governed or misgoverned France since the fall of Sedan were, from an intellectual point of view, eagles compared to that surly and bumptious drill-sergeant, who had nothing, absolutely nothing, to recommend him for the elevated position he coveted. He was the least among all those brilliant African soldiers whose names and prowess were on every one's lips; he had really been made a hero of, at so much per line, by the staff of the *National*, where his brother Godefroy wielded unlimited power. He was all buckram; and, in the very heart of Paris, and in the midst of that republic whose fiercest watchword, whose loudest cry, was 'Equality,' he treated partisans and opponents alike, as he would have treated a batch of refractory Arabs in a distant province of that newly conquered African soil. He disliked every one who did not wear a uniform, and assumed a critical attitude toward every one who did. His republicanism was probably as sincere as that of Thiers—it meant 'La République, c'est moi,' with this difference, that Thiers was amiable, witty, and charming, though treacherous, and that Cavaignac was the very reverse. 'Thiers, c'est la République en écureuil; Cavaignac, c'est la République en ours mal léché,' said a witty journalist." (Vol. ii., p. 10.)

The highest praise is bestowed on Eugène Rouher, who was sometimes called the Vice-Emperor. He "was, both in public and private life, an essentially honorable and honest man—as honest as Louis Philippe in many respects, far more honest in others, and absolutely free from the everlasting preoccupation about money which marred that monarch's character. He was as disinterested as Guizot, and would have scorned the tergiversations and hypocrisy of Thiers. The only blame that can be laid to his charge is that he allowed his better sense to be overruled by a woman; but that woman was the wife of his sovereign."

The sentence last quoted leads to the remark that our Englishman lays the misfortunes of France at the door of the Empress Eugénie. He devotes a good deal of his space to her doings, and comments with more or less of sarcasm on her attempts to create a court out of rather unpromising materials. He disapproves, in words, of the manner in which the old noblesse showed their contempt for her, but seems to take pleasure in describing it. He relates that on the day of her marriage "portraits of the new Empress and her biography were hawked about. There was nothing offensive in either, because the risk of printing anything objectionable would have been too great. But there was one picture, better executed than the rest, which bore the words, 'The portrait and the virtues of the Empress; the whole for two sous,' and that was decidedly the work of the Legitimists and Orleanists combined. I have ample proof of what I say."

It is impossible, within the limits of an article like this, to give more than a bare indication of the abundance of interesting matter contained in the volumes before us. We could have filled our whole space with a condensed transcription of the anecdotes and amusing stories they contain—such as, for instance, that of the model who was told by David d'Angers that she would not do because she was too fat, and bounced out of the room with the remark, "Monsieur can't expect me to go into a consumption for two francs fifty an hour"; or the saying of a Frenchman about Lord Brougham, who often made himself ridiculous in Paris in a way not in keeping with his position at home: "Quant à Lord Brougham, il n'y a pour lui qu'un pas entre le sublime et le ridicule. C'est le Pas de Calais, et il le traverse trop souvent."

The Tempest. A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. IX. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1892. Pp. xi, 465.

MR. FURNESS gives us, in his preface to the Variorum Edition of the "Tempest," an appetizer, as usual, for the feast of the commentators. It is an exposition of "the human and poetical side of *Caliban's* character." The central point is, that he had a soul imparted to him by *Miranda* as she taught him language. He never heard language from other lips than those of *Miranda* and *Prospero*. Mr. Furness sketches a lovely picture of summer night on the Enchanted Island from the glimpse which Shakspere gives when *Caliban* says that his mistress showed him the man in the moon with his dog and bush. With such a teacher, at such hours, it would be impossible to resist the atmosphere of poetry whose charm pervades the Enchanted Island. He always speaks in rhythm. It is he who gives the descriptions of the island which make it the "one magic isle of our imaginations."

One of the striking features of the volume is the number of beautiful passages from the commentators. The study of the play seems to have an effect on the students similar to that which *Miranda* and the island had on *Caliban*. Hazlitt, Hugo, Mrs. Kemble, Lowell, Ruskin, Dowden, Furnivall, Coleridge, Schlegel, and others of great name and fame rival each other in an eloquent admiration and happy exposition which takes a tone from the play itself. Allegorical interpretation is another striking feature of the commentaries. Shakspere is *Prospero*, *Miranda* is Art, *Ferdinand* is Fletcher; or may be *Prospero* is King James, and the teaching political; or it is a polemic against witchcraft, or a drama of reconciliation. Some of these speculators talk of the love tale as an episode, and complain of the *Miranda* and *Ferdinand* scenes as too long. Dry old heads these are. To simple youth all the rest is only a frame for these scenes.

There is a copious collection of discussions of the date of composition of the "Tempest"—thirty-four great fine-print pages. It would seem impossible to believe that it was one of the early plays, but that is argued at great length. Such argument belongs to the period before development ruled men's thought, when genius was regarded as something miraculous, a wonder-working power; the stranger the product attributed to it, the more readily it was believed—*credo quia impossibile*. A youth could write a book embodying the experiences of age, just as a world full of series of fossils could be made in an instant. One now can hardly help seeing that the author of "Romeo and Juliet" looks at *Juliet* and her father, and the author of "Hamlet" looks at *Ophelia* and old *Polonius*, from a very different

point of view from that from which the author of the "Tempest" looks at *Miranda* and *Prospero*. They are young eyes which see old *Capulet* and *Polonius* as superannuated old bores. Those are grave old eyes which give to *Prospero* a gleam that never was, on sea or land. He does not seem to be very wise in worldly wisdom, does not utter maxims like *Polonius*. He has traits of the weakness of age; he keeps calling attention to what he is saying, as though he fears he is not listened to; he scolds with harsh language, but feebly, without discrimination—*Ariel* as harshly as *Caliban*, and even *Ferdinand;* but he has a halo around him. The two or three passages which are so universally thought of as expressions of Shakspere in his proper person, bidding farewell to the stage, and which are so sad and grand, give a pathetic grandeur to *Prospero*.

"We are such stuffe
As dreames are made on: and our little life
Is rounded with a sleepe"—

this Shakspere has passed through the distressed questionings of the *Hamlet* period; he worries no longer. But his thought is like that of the heathen councillor in Beda who compares life to the flight of a sparrow through the banqueting hall, from darkness into darkness.

The text of the "Tempest" is one of the very best of the First Folio, and yet the commentary is very copious. The few passages which are obscure have been endlessly discussed. Mr. Furness suggests that it may be because this play is first in the Folio and other old editions, and the critics come to it with unspent zeal. Mr. Furness usually gives a satisfactory decision very briefly. In the longest collection of all, that on the passage where *Ferdinand*, dreaming of *Miranda* as he piles logs, says:

"I forget:
But these sweet thoughts doe euen refresh my labours,
Most busie lest, when I doe it,"

Mr. Furness thinks *Ferdinand* is apologetic, excusing himself for stopping and dreaming, on the ground that it will refresh him for more work. That seems rather a feeble lover, a *Hamlet*. He may be simply rejoicing in his thoughts, and encouraging himself to go on briskly by remembering that they refresh his labor even when he works most busily (most busiliest). Any meaning which makes "lest" emphatic makes woful metre. The criticisms of the Shakspere Society of Philadelphia, 1864-'5, are strikingly good. This Mr. Furness thinks is the oldest Shakspere Society in existence, having had continuous life from 1851 to the present day.

Dryden's version of the "Tempest" is here reprinted, with very slight omissions, and "The Fair Sidea" in English translation. Some Germans, with eyes such as Mr. Weller desiderated—double million magnifying gas microscopes of extra power—see in this play the source of Shakspere's. The appendix on the sources is very full and interesting, forty-five pages. There are discussions of the duration of the action, the music, costume, and many other matters; among the rest, a good deal of etymology and other philology.

Early Greek Philosophy. By John Burnet, M.A. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Pp. 378.

THE modern interest in origins is continually shifting the centres of consequence in history and transforming unimportant tracts of human experience into important. This book deals with the first 175 years of Greek speculation, from about 600 B C. to the Peloponnesian War. Beginning with Thales and his immediate successors, Mr. Burnet traces the Ionic current through its aberrations in Pythagoreans, Eleatics, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, Leucippus, until it shoals upon Hippon, Diogenes, and Archelaus, and is ready to enter the Socratic gulf. Of course the Sophists are not included, nor is Democritus. It is a well-demarcated section of history, possessing a distinct character; yet, though it is one of the most constructive portions of Greek philosophy, hitherto it has received less attention from English scholars than the decadent days of Ciceronian eclecticism. Half-a-dozen essays on it have appeared, and it has been described at somewhat greater length, though still in popular fashion, in Ferrier's, Mayor's, Benn's, and Marshall's general histories. The only authoritative account, however, previously accessible to English readers was that of the two volumes of Zeller's history which are translated under the title of 'Pre-Socratic Philosophy.' Mr. Burnet shows a proper respect for Zeller, but differs from him freely. His book is based on an independent study of the sources, and enjoys the distinction of being at once a solid piece of scholarship and the only volume written in English which considers exclusively this first division of Greek philosophy.

The noteworthy peculiarity of Mr. Burnet's treatment is the extreme stress which he lays on the cosmological character of the period. These men, he holds, were not philosophers at all; they were, without exception, devotees of physical science, their single question being, How must body be regarded if we consider it the ultimate reality? With Hegelian or Platonic ideas they had nothing whatever to do.

"When an early Greek philosopher speaks of τὸ ὄν, he does not mean Being, but Body; τὸ μὴ ὄν is simply space, and not Not-being. There is always before the mind of an Anaximander or a Heracleitus a perfectly clear pictorial idea; his system is thoroughly *anschaulich*. When, therefore, we seek to understand these systems, what we have to do is not to think them by means of rational concepts, but to picture them in our minds by means of images. We do not understand the view we are studying till we have done this, and we ought even to be able to draw a diagram of it on paper."

From this point of view everything is interpreted, even that which at first sight seems most adverse to physical construction. Anaximander's "boundless" easily becomes boundless substance. It is declared an anachronism to connect a numerical philosophy with Pythagoras. He was an animistic "medicine man," with little interest in morals or mathematics. He founded no secret league, but prescribed certain ceremonial religious observances or "taboos," teaching metempsychosis and the doctrine that a kind of dualism is involved in the physical elements of the world. To suppose Xenophanes a monotheistic missionary is also a mistake. He really concerned himself with showing how the ground of the physical world must be sought within the world itself. Parmenides pushed his doctrine one step further when he demonstrated that there is no such thing as empty space. Heracleitus's fire is the veritable fire that burns and crackles; his justice, the observance of a balance between the elements of fire and water of which the world is composed. The Love and Strife of Empedocles are not forces, but corporeal elements, just like the other four. Even the *nous* of Anaxagoras is a body occupying space; and his ultimate molecules, or "seeds," contain not qualities but "things."

No one has ever doubted that Greek philosophy began by asking what the world is made of. But this inquiry itself has seemed to most historians to involve a metaphysic which men became progressively aware of. The common view admits that the early Greeks laid strong stress on the physical aspects of existence; but it maintains, as it seems to us with justice, that no abrupt break occurs between the first rough physical guess of Thales and the dialectic subtleties of Plato's 'Republic.' The interest of this early philosophy lies largely in the fact that it is dominated by intelligence at unawares, and so that it naïvely discusses in physical terms problems whose idealistic significance the next century began to perceive. Perhaps Mr. Burnet would not deny this. But he so subordinates the philosophic import, notably in his treatment of the Eleatic School, that the "body" which these men talk about often appears to be a thing exclusive of mind. Yet that is impossible. Before body and mind have been discriminated, primitive substance possesses the attributes of both. Between cosmology and philosophy there is then no distinction. If, however, Mr. Burnet's dislike of Hegel has induced in him an occasional blindness, he has at any rate done good service in pointing out the prominence of the corporeal factor in early Greek philosophy. Unquestionably he throws great light on many obscure topics. He writes with full knowledge of the German literature of the subject. He has subjected to fresh criticism an enormous mass of historical material, and he has produced a weighty and intensely interesting book with which every student of Greek philosophy hereafter must reckon.

Henry Boynton Smith. By Lewis F. Stearns, D.D., late Professor in Bangor Theological Seminary, Maine. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

WE must go back to the first volume of the series, 'Jonathan Edwards,' by Dr. A. V. G. Allen, for another that compares with this in the importance of its subject and the adequacy of the treatment it receives. Edwards was, of course, a much greater subject than Prof. Smith, and his biography, well handled, made a book of much greater interest than Prof. Smith was able to inspire. But Prof. Stearns has been moved to write a very clear and strong and sympathetic life of one who was a leading theologian of the Presbyterian Church in our own time, and to do it in such a way that those who are least attracted by his thought will find in his character and personality, as here described, much of that charm by which the living man drew to him a host of friends.

Prof. Smith was born and bred a Unitarian. He entered Bowdoin College in 1830, and while there "experienced religion" in the orthodox manner, and proceeded straightway to adjust his creed to his experience. His conversion was one of many in the College, which had grown considerably in grace since 1810, "when the heart of President Appleton was cheered by the admission of a single Christian student, there being no professed Christians in the College"—one sign of many that the religious as well as the political views of Jefferson were in the ascendant in the first decades of the century. Smith had none of the hatred of Unitarianism which generally marks its converts to the orthodox ranks, and something of its liberality was always characteristic of his intellectual operations, though other influences, and much more important, contributed to the same result, viz., those of his theological studies in Germany, whither he went in 1837, and

whence he returned in 1840. It is significant of the distrust of German studies which affected religious circles at that time that his superior training was a bar to his success on his return. For two years and a half the only friendly advances came from such liberal Unitarians as Channing and Parker and Clarke and Ripley and Hedge. For Ripley he translated something for his 'Specimens of Standard Foreign Literature,' and for Hedge's 'Prose Writers of Germany' he translated passages from Hegel and wrote a sketch of him. He was never taken in the Hegelian snare. He feared the Greeks bringing gifts even in those "fine days for theology," when so many found in Hegel the philosophical counterpart of the traditional creed. But his general faith in philosophy as the ally of revelation was not diminished by his distrust of the Hegelian system, so that it was only natural that, after a brief pastorate at Amesbury, Mass., he should become Professor of Philosophy in Amherst College.

While holding this position, he made, in 1849, the most significant effort of his whole career, the address at Andover on "The Relations of Faith and Philosophy." As a reply to Bushnell's "Dogma and Spirit," given at the same place the year before, it marked the position which he always held thereafter, opposing at once the most radical and the most conservative tendencies of the Congregational and Presbyterian bodies; in Prof. Stearns's phrase, he was "a mediating theologian." There was no more disparagement of reason in religion in his than in the Unitarian doctrine. But for "the central influence and the controlling energy" of his whole system he went to Revelation, and he assumed that Revelation stood inflexibly for the traditional scheme. There is something actually pathetic in his unconsciousness of critical science as a third factor in the business—one that would reassort and reinterpret the contents of the New Testament, and make it necessary to determine upon rational grounds the value of its different tendencies and parts. Prof. Smith had no suspicion of the fact that he was simply an apologist, the advocate of a foregone conclusion; but so it was, and all his brave philosophy was pledged to justify his theological beliefs.

From Amherst he was transferred in 1850 to Union Theological Seminary, where he was first Professor of Church History. An Old School man as a New England Congregationalist, he was a New School Presbyterian in his new position. Less advanced than Andover, he was more so than Princeton. He could not keep up with Park, but must keep ahead of Hodge, for whom Jonathan Edwards was not quite "true blue." In 1855 he was promoted to the chair of theology, and was at length exactly where he wished to be. From his teaching, the Seminary secured a consideration and an influence which it had never had before. As editor of a succession of Presbyterian Reviews he proved himself a master of polemics, and brought a searching criticism to the books which in succession challenged orthodox opinion, 'Essays and Reviews,' Renan's 'Life of Jesus,' and so on. But his criticism of Hamilton's doctrine of the unconditioned and of Mansel's 'Limits of Religious Thought' was much more valuable. Revelation without reason had for him no charms. To destroy reason in order to make Revelation indispensable was to make a wilderness and call it peace. His interest in the anti-slavery struggle and the war proved that he had not, in becoming a theologian, abdicated the functions of a man. No one was more active than he in bringing about the reunion of the Old School and New School Presbyterians. Prof. Smith did much better service as a thinker than as an "Ecclesiastical Statesman," and less by the particular results of his thinking than by his encouragement of the habit of thought, and by his conception of the theological field as embracing philosophy and literature and general history. For the annexation of science the time had not yet come.

The Silva of North America. By Charles S. Sargent. Part IV. Rosaceæ-Saxifragaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Sargent's fourth volume is devoted almost wholly to one natural order of plants, for of the forty-one trees which are described and illustrated, forty belong to the order *Rosaceæ*, and the forty-first is the only saxifragaceous plant within our borders which is fairly a tree. These two natural orders are very closely related, the genus *Spiræa* being rosaceous, and *Astilbe*, which is counted saxifragaceous, differing from it in only the slightest degree. The *Rosaceæ* include by far the larger proportion of the fruit-trees of the north temperate zone, such as cherries, plums, peaches, apples, pears, quinces, service trees, medlars, and hawthorns, besides the humbler bramble-berries and strawberries; and for this reason not only is this most careful account of our native rosaceous trees of great present interest, but in future years, when our native cherries, plums, and apples shall have been improved by cultivation and hybridization, it is to this volume that the pomologist will turn for a full description and history of the original stock.

The cocoa plum (*Chrysobalanus Icaco*) is a tropical American (and African) tree which occurs in Southern Florida. Its plums are pronounced sweet and rather insipid; they formed a favorite food of the Caribs four hundred years ago, and are still eaten by both whites and negroes. The genus *Prunus* is treated in its most comprehensive sense, and includes not only plums and cherries of all kinds, but also almonds, peaches, apricots, and laurel-cherries. Not all these sub-genera are found naturally in North America; but the author has something of interest to say about all of them in the foot-notes. Fourteen species of *Prunus* are described, seven of them plums and seven of them cherries of one sort or another. The choice of English names for the various trees shows no improvement over the earlier volumes, for no less than three species of *Prunus* have given them as vernacular appellations only the name "wild plum." A systematic botanist, in writing a work of this kind, has a splendid opportunity to fix and establish good distinctive common names; and one cannot but regret to see the opportunity neglected. The medicinal virtues of the wild black cherry are very properly referred to. A curious thing might have been mentioned in connection with it, viz., that the medical faculty generally write *Prunus Virginiana* when *Prunus serotina* is really intended, thus prescribing syrup of bark of the choke cherry instead of the black cherry.

The spiræas are none of them trees, and the *Nuttallia cerasiformis*, the oso-berry of California and Oregon, is only a shrub, and is therefore not recognized in the 'Silva.' The same is true of the interesting genera *Neviusia*, *Cowania*, and *Purshia*. The mountain-mahogany (*Cercocarpus*) is a tree, however, and both species of the genus have their place in this volume. *Vauquelinia* is a West American genus, of which one species forms a tree in Arizona and California conspicuous for its leaves, which are snowy white on the lower surface. The fruit is capsular and inedible.

The Linnæan orthography *Pyrus*, rather than the ancient classical *Pirus*, is properly adhered to for the name of the genus which includes apples, crabs, pears, choke-berries, and the various kinds of mountain ash. Of true apples three North American species are recognized—two in the Atlantic and Mississippi Valley regions, and one on the Pacific. They have all been cultivated for ornament, and varieties of some of them are already attracting attention for their fruit. It would seem probable that hybrids between Old-World apples and these American species will eventually furnish varieties able to withstand the cold of the far Northwest and yielding abundance of delicious fruit. The small fruits of the Oregon crab, with their pleasantly acid flavor, are gathered and consumed by the Indians. We have two species of mountain-ash, both much resembling the European rowan-tree; one of them (*Pyrus sambucifolia*) extends as far north as Greenland and even into Kamtchatka. There are described no less than fourteen species of thorn (*Cratægus*), in which genus this continent is far richer than Europe. The berries, or haws, of all of them are edible, though, as the seeds are large and the pulp scanty and very acid, they are fitter for making jellies than for eating in their natural condition. *Heteromeles arbutifolia* is a Californian tree with large panicles of small acid berries, and is said to be very beautiful in winter—"more beautiful, perhaps," the author says, "than any other North American tree." The Eastern shadbush, with its two varieties, and the northwestern (species of *Amelanchier*) come next. These yield the service-berries, which are gathered in great quantities by the Indians, and are dried into a kind of cake after being thoroughly crushed by pounding. *Lyonothamnus floribundus* is a saxifragaceous tree found only on some islands off the coast of California. It has large cymes of white blossoms, and leaves singularly like those of the sweet-fern (*Myrica asplenifolia*) of the eastern part of the continent. Our native species of mock-orange (*Philadelphus*) are only shrubs, and so do not have a place in this work.

Mr. Faxon keeps fully up to his high standard of artistic excellence; the shading on his apples and plums is especially worthy of high commendation.

Dynamics of Rotation: An Elementary Introduction to Rigid Dynamics. By A. M. Worthington, M.A., Headmaster and Professor of Physics at the Royal Naval Engineering College, Devonport. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

This little volume of only 155 pages will be very useful to those persons who have a slight knowledge of the most elementary principles of mechanics, giving them in a dozen sittings, or not many more, all that is necessary to render their previous knowledge applicable to practical problems. It is written, too, in no perfunctory way; but the author has seriously addressed himself to the problem in practical psychology of how to bring a mind uncultivated in mechanical conceptions into a state comparable with that of a good mechanical engineer, and has produced a successfully working solution of it. Having judiciously divided his subject, so as to separate the difficulties which the learner must encounter, he begins, under each branch, by pointing out

either familiar phenomena or else simple experiments to be performed; and by reflection upon these—by comparing and analyzing them under the guidance of the author—the student is gradually brought to a conception mathematically clear, which is at the same time firmly attached to well-recognized facts of observation. The result, we are confident, will be found to be that, considering the small amount of mathematics this little book supposes or teaches, the mastery it imparts to the student will be very satisfactory. As a good instance of the author's care, the mathematician should look over the explanation he gives of the gyroscope. We do not know where we have seen another, equally elementary, that has been so clear and detailed as this.

The merits of the work are such that we must forgive a few little slips of logic. Some persons might object that it does not cover the whole ground, in that, not only in the broad realm of rigid dynamics, but even in the narrower province of the dynamics of rotation, it does not teach all with which every man of good ordinary education ought to be well acquainted. But we are inclined to think that the author has exercised sound judgment in restricting his subject as he has done.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XIII. Nos. 1301-1371. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE papers in this volume of the collection are pleasanter reading than most of those which have previously been published. They relate principally to operations in Paris in 1775 and 1776, when the French Ministers were trying to persuade Lord Stormont, the English Ambassador, that their intentions were pacific. With this view, they did not hesitate to give the most positive assurances of their wish and intention to live in peace and friendship with Great Britain. They promised that they would not directly or indirectly give the "American Rebels" any sort of assistance. Yet the Count of Vergennes, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, did not resist the temptation of pointing out to his Lordship that England had herself to thank for her troubles, which were the natural consequences of the entire cession of Canada by France to Great Britain. "I was at Constantinople when the last peace was made," said the Count. "When I heard the conditions, I told several of my friends there that I was persuaded England would not be long before she had reason to repent of having removed the only check that could keep her colonies in awe. My prediction has been but too well verified" (1306).

Lord Stormont, meanwhile, was not deceived by the friendly professions of the Ministers. He suspected the connivance of the French Government at the sending of arms and stores to America. He had spies in the seaports and in Paris. But the nation as well as the court was against him. "The almost universal partiality of the French to the Rebels," says he, "makes it as difficult for me to collect information of what relates to the American agents as it is to get intelligence in an enemy's country" (1368). His Lordship's suspicions were not unfounded. The French Government was in fact conniving at the sale of munitions of war to American skippers, and was considering the policy to be adopted toward the "Bostoniens." Vergennes was a good friend to America at this juncture; he egged on his colleagues, he tried to excite the sluggish mind of the King. We have here several of those long documents emanating from his office in which the advantage to France of weakening her ancient enemy is elaborately set out.

There is nothing new to students of the period in all this, but the story is told in these papers with a minuteness hardly found elsewhere.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anstey, F. The Travelling Companions. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Biagi, Guido. Gli Ultimi Giorni de P. B. Shelley. Con nuovi documenti. Florence: G. Civelli.
Chetwynd-Stapylton, H. E. The Chetwynds of Ingestre. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Clarke, F. M. A Maiden of Mars. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Dewall, Johannes van. Dear Elsie. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Gréville, Henry. The Heiress. Worthington Co.
Jefferson, Samuel. Columbus: An Epic Poem. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Jones, E. E. C. An Introduction to General Logic. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Lewis, Rev. A. H. Paganism surviving in Christianity. Putnams. $1.75.
Littell's Living Age. April—June, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macalpine, Avery. A Man's Conscience. Harpers. 50 cents.
MacDonald, George. The Hope of the Gospel. Appletons.
Machar, Agnes M. Marjorie's Canadian Winter. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Markham, C. R. A History of Peru. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. $2.50.
The *Critic.* January—June, 1892. The *Critic* Co.
Tournemire, Salhias de. Pougatcheff. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

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[Continued from page iii.]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1892.

The Week.

THE Civil-Service Commissioners have done well to issue a proclamation calling attention to the provisions of the law which forbid political assessments and prohibit discrimination against or in favor of any employee by a superior because of his action in reference to contributions for political purposes. The request with which the proclamation closes, that any person having knowledge of any violation of the law lay the facts before the Commission, and the promise that "it will at once take action upon them," shows that its members "mean business." After such a declaration, it ought to be possible to get through the campaign without any of the old scandals about "voluntary contributions."

The Republican managers out West have evidently concluded that more is to be made this year by defying the Prohibitionists than by truckling to them. In State after State, conventions are held which refuse to put a single word regarding the liquor traffic into the platform, even though, as in Iowa, the last previous platform endorsed prohibition; or, as in Indiana, contained a local-option plank; or, as in Minnesota two years ago, endorsed high license and pledged the party to a continuance of this policy. It remains to be seen whether this change of base will prove to have been wise. There are signs, however, that in every such State the Prohibition party will cut more of a figure this year than ever before, and at present it looks as though the Republicans would lose fully as many votes to the third party as they can hope to keep from voting the Democratic ticket by their non-committal position on the liquor issue.

Mr. Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the Census, delivered what the *Tribune* assures us was a "highly interesting and instructive address on the growth of religious denominations" at Asbury Park on Sunday. The speaker's effort in the main, says the same authority, "was to urge a federation of the churches with a view to more Christian harmony and less creeds." As Asbury Park is a rigid prohibitionist resort, there seems to have been a peculiar fitness in getting the enthusiastic advance agent of the "great Republican wine" to deliver an address there. The "Christian harmony" of the occasion might have been greatly enhanced by the reading of choice extracts from Mr. Porter's letter showing the skilful manner in which he had promoted wine-drinking among Republican statesmen. He sent five cases of the "great Republican wine" to the White House, another case to Cornelius N. Bliss, tried to get Vice-President Morton to buy some, and "was glad to hear that Mr. Whitelaw Reid is patronizing the wine which all true Republicans should drink." His struggles to make every hotel at which he stopped keep the wine, and thus spread the sway of the "demon drink," are graphically set forth in his letters. He "made a scene" in every hotel which did not keep the wine, and refused to drink any other, in one instance drinking Bass's ale instead—"Result—I am not feeling at all well to-day." Though born and reared in England, Porter has such a ferocious American stomach that English ale makes him ill. Finally, he induced Mr. Carnegie to make all the guests at his great tariff banquet drink nothing except the "Great Republican wine," and crowed about it as the grandest achievement of his career as a wine-agent. For aught the Asbury Park Prohibitionists may know to the contrary, Porter may have composed his address under the stimulating influence of American wine—not the brand which he "boomed" in his letters, for the proprietor of that is suing him in the courts for money advanced in the business, but some new brand which agrees better with his digestion.

There is a division of sentiment among Republican editors as to the wisdom of pushing the Force Bill issue. The Philadelphia *Bulletin* represents a class which opposes any further agitation of the matter, and questions whether such a law would do any good. Referring to Mr. Lodge's silence regarding the matter in his recent speech, the *Bulletin* says:

> "It is undoubtedly true that the practical value of any Force Bill is being doubted by more Republicans every day. Northern capital and emigration are doing for the South what legislation could not possibly perform. It is to these agencies that more conservative Republicans look to right the wrong; and if Congressman Lodge has joined this number, he has in all probability adopted the wiser course."

On the other hand, the New Haven *Palladium* takes the position that "the question of free suffrage and honest elections is one that takes hold of the foundations of our system of government"; that "the Republican party of to-day looks upon the question as the most important before the country"; that "the party is committed to the theory that free and honest elections can be best secured through Federal legislation and the protection of the Federal Government"; and that, "if Mr. Harrison is reëlected, there is no doubt that the most earnest efforts of his Administration will be extended towards the passage of a Federal election law by Congress similar to that which passed the House of Representatives of the last Congress."

A striking illustration of the importance of the Force Bill issue in the South is afforded by the recent action of ex-Congressman Ewart of the Ninth North Carolina District. Born of a Southern family, Mr. Ewart became a Republican in 1872, and was soon a prominent local leader in his party, being twice elected Mayor of Hendersonville, later a member of the Legislature, and in 1888 a Representative in Congress from a district which has a majority of white Republicans. The Force Bill came up during his first session, and he distinguished himself by making a statesmanlike speech against the measure. He characterized the Lodge Bill as "a sectional measure, designed almost entirely for the South," declared that "it would bring about bloodshed, terrorism, riot, and disorder," and told his Northern Republican brethren that the only remedy they could apply was to "mind your own business and treat the colored man of the South with 'wise and salutary neglect.'" Mr. Ewart's standing with his party at home was not injured by his revolt against the Force Bill. On the contrary, he is now stronger than ever. The district, which is always a close one, was carried by the Democrats in the "tidal wave" of 1890, but the Republicans hoped to recover it again this year, as in the last Presidential campaign. Mr. Ewart was universally recognized as their strongest man, and they asked him again to accept the nomination, but he has refused. His reason is that he cannot endorse the Force Bill feature of the Republican platform, and his opposition to this policy is so strong that he will vote the Democratic ticket as the only sure way of making his opposition effective. Mr. Ewart is by no means alone in taking this stand. A number of other prominent Republicans in the district have announced their intention to follow his example, and the party is likely to lose the district on this issue.

Even those who used to advocate the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" now bear witness that the South has not needed appropriations from the Federal treasury to enable her to build up a good system of public education. Next to ex-Senator Blair, the Rev. A. D. Mayo was the strongest supporter of the scheme, and only a few years ago he was wont to declare that it was impossible for the South to get along without such help. Now he is delivering an address in which he says that "Virginia gives a five-months' free country school to its whole people, at an annual cost of $1,500,000; has rehabilitated its old academic and collegiate system, so that never before were so many of its youth in the secondary and higher schools; subsidizes the best institution for the training of the negro, and supervises

the best seminary for the manual training of the white youth in the South; with State normal schools for both races." Other Southern States are but little behind Virginia, and the influence of her example is spurring on the laggards. The best feature of it is the fact that this great educational advance is the work of the South herself, paid for by her own people, and so much prized by them that they are willing to pay more for the same purpose every year, instead of a sudden and unhealthy growth, fostered by Federal bounty, and so dependent upon such bounty that it would wither if the supply of cash from Washington should be stopped.

One of the most absurd performances by Congress at the demand—or supposed demand—of Labor was the passage at the recent session of a law which says that no person shall be employed more than eight hours, "except in cases of extraordinary emergency," by the Government, "or by any contractor or sub-contractor upon any of the public works of the United States." Although there is room for a difference of opinion as to what constitutes "a public work," there seems no warrant for doubt that this law will be held by the courts to apply to all contractors who do work for the Government. The effect of such legislation was clearly stated during the discussion in the House by Representative Mutchler of Pennsylvania, who said:

"There are in this country a number of corporations which do work for the Government and also for private individuals and other corporations, and all this work is done by the same employees. Take, for instance, the town of Bethlehem, Pa., in my own district, where work is being done for the Government. The employers must necessarily, under such a law as this, have two sets of employees; one set engaged exclusively upon Government work, and the other upon work for railroad corporations or for private individuals. Look at the embarrassment and annoyance that a plant of that kind will be subjected to by such a law. When the eight hours have expired, those who are engaged on Government work must stop, leaving the others to continue, because they will go on to work two hours longer and thereby earn more pay."

Already this absurd law has advanced the cost of contract work in one case 20 per cent., and we fear the Philadelphia *Press* does not exaggerate when it estimates that it will cost the Government $20,000,000 a year.

The strike among the switchmen of the Reading system in Buffalo has come to a head so suddenly as to surprise the public, which reads of violent outbreaks of lawlessness almost before it was aware that there was any dispute between employers and employed. The trouble appears to have arisen over a demand for higher wages on the part of the switchmen employed in the yards at Buffalo. It seems that Buffalo is the dividing line between the Eastern and Western roads, and that the Western roads pay higher wages to all employees than do the Eastern roads, these higher wages applying to the switchmen of Western roads in Buffalo. The Reading switchmen in Buffalo demanded the same wages as are paid to switchmen of Western roads in that city, but the company refused to grant the advance, on the ground that they could not yield it without also raising the wages of their men in New York, Philadelphia, Reading, and everywhere else on the system, which was impracticable. The only question then remaining was whether the company could find men who were satisfied to take the places of the strikers at the old wages. The officials claim that they have plenty of such men, and the attitude of the strikers indicates that this claim was well-founded, for they immediately resorted to wholesale violence, evidently fearing that, if they maintained the peace, the company would have all the switches manned within a few hours. Of course the merits of the strike are no longer in question, as the strikers have forfeited all claim to consideration by their resort to arson, their attacks upon the Sheriff's officers, and their threats to kill any new men who dare take their places.

It seems clear that violence was deliberately adopted by the strikers as the chief feature of their "plan of campaign" before the crisis actually came. President McLeod quotes from the report of a meeting of the men held on July 22 the following passage:

"The Worthy Master said that the present occasion would be a good one to decide how the strike should be conducted. McNamara said he was in favor of using force should it become necessary to do so; that his plan would be to run cars off the track, go through the yard, knock holes in engine-tanks, cut hose, etc., so as to disable engines. Murray, Smith, and others spoke against too much violence; agreed, however, that a little would be a good thing."

At the same meeting it was arranged that the strike should be declared at midnight, and the Buffalo men gave their word that all arrangements had been made to run off the track and wreck freight and coal cars enough from twelve o'clock midnight up to two A. M. to block up the whole road for a week, as the yard was full of cars. This plan was carried out to the letter, and now that it has been carried out, it is virtually endorsed by the union to which the strikers belong. It is true that Grand Master Sweeny makes this perfunctory declaration of disapproval: "Of course, no lawlessness can be upheld. The men should win by peaceable means." But no striker is going to be deterred from further violence by reading such mild and meaningless words as these. As at Homestead, so at Buffalo, "Organized Labor" resorts to violation of the law as the only hope of achieving its end, and there comes from no organization of laboring men any effective protest against this policy. The end must be the same at Buffalo as at Homestead—a growth of public sentiment against all labor unions, so long as they are conducted in this way.

It would be difficult to conceive of a more flagrant abuse of executive power in cases of capital crime than Gov. Buchanan of Tennessee has committed in commuting the sentence of Col. Henry Clay King from hanging to imprisonment for life. Col. King was proved beyond question to have been guilty of as deliberate and cold-blooded a murder as any man ever committed. He walked up to his victim in the public streets of Memphis and, placing a pistol against his body, shot him without warning and without giving him a chance to defend himself. Every court in the State before which the case was tried pronounced him guilty of murder in the first degree. There were no extenuating circumstances, a fact which is sufficiently emphasized by the successive findings by several courts of verdicts of murder in a community in which verdicts of that kind in "affairs of honor" are rare occurrences. That they were rendered against King, who had been a distinguished soldier in the Confederate Army and a brilliant member of the bar since the war, was an encouraging sign of advancing civilization in the State. The Governor has done all he could to check this advance by his indefensible course.

The *Tribune* asserts that "apparently" we did "not quote Senator Hiscock fairly" in respect to the effect of the tariff on farm products. The only quotation we made of the Senator's words was taken from his revised speech in the *Record*, where it stands precisely as we cited it. He said: "No one claims that they [agricultural products] were affected by the provisions of the McKinley Act." The *Tribune* regards this statement as "erroneous," inasmuch as the prices of "barley, live animals, of wheat, of eggs, and of some kinds of vegetables . . . and many other articles have been enhanced at some points in the country by the new duties imposed in the McKinley tariff." This raises the question whether the *Tribune* is able to quote fairly from itself. "Apparently" it is not, as on August 2 it declared that "the prices of food products were absolutely unaffected by the schedules of the McKinley Bill," and on August 4 it thought that "it can scarcely be necessary to explain that the new tariff was in no appreciable degree responsible for the change in the cost of food."

The continued fall in the price of silver is ascribed in some of the foreign journals to a prevailing belief that forced purchases of silver bullion by the Government of the United States will cease within a measurable period. This is a very reasonable supposition. Public opinion in this country touching silver is not what it was six months ago. The first symptom of change was the action of the House on the Bland Bill.

This was a House, be it remembered, that was expected to pass a free-coinage bill by a two-thirds majority. The Democrats had a two-thirds majority, and it was confidently predicted that there would be as many Republicans voting for free coinage as Democrats voting against it. Such was the common belief when the complexion of the House became known and for some time afterwards. Protection against a depreciated currency was looked for in a Presidential veto, and this Mr. Harrison virtually promised in his Albany speech about one year ago. He would hardly have taken pains to say what he did on this subject unless he had supposed that the danger was imminent. The Coinage Committee of the House was organized to put such a bill through under a high head of steam, but when the time came to report the Bland Bill, it was found that a most determined opposition to it had arisen, and when the vote was taken it failed to pass. Then the Democratic National Convention adopted a platform against free coinage on the present ratio of sixteen to one, and in favor of the unconditional repeal of the present Silver Law. Notwithstanding this plain deliverance, the Senate passed a free-coinage bill and sent it to the House, where it was beaten by a much more decisive vote than that which had been given on the Bland Bill a few months earlier.

Nobody will buy silver now except from hand to mouth. The market has got into the position that the promoters of the Anti-Option Bill wanted to make for wheat and cotton—those who deal in "futures" are out of it altogether. They have left silver to the manufacturers of tableware and ornaments, and to the few mints that continue to receive it for coinage. Our esteemed contemporary, the *Financial Chronicle*, thinks that the present decline may produce so much trouble in Europe as to give fresh interest to the coming conference, although it does not expect international bimetallism as a consequence. We have always maintained, and we now believe, that the greater the fall of silver, the smaller will be the chances of any action looking to its reinstatement as a money metal. The statesmen and people of Europe will congratulate themselves that they have little of it on which to make a loss—not more than they can easily manage. England's interest in India, in so far as it is commercial, differs in no wise from her interest in China, Mexico, or Chili, which are all silver-using countries. We never hear of anxiety in England on account of the silver currency of those countries. England's political interest in India is a trifle in comparison with her home interests, and these are strongly against bimetallism. England's greatest interest is that silver should sell for exactly what it is worth in a free market. This is the world's chief interest, our own included.

Mr. Gladstone's speech on August 9 marked the break-down of the last Tory prophecy, that he would not be able to handle his heterogeneous following. It was impossible even for his opponents not to admire the easy mastery with which he met the difficulties of his political situation. The Tory demand that he should announce his policy in detail before asking the Government to resign, he met by saying that never before had an Administration refused either to resign or to propose any policy in the face of an adverse majority returned in general elections, and, moreover, that there could be no Liberal policy until there was a Liberal Cabinet. The Conservatives had got a great deal of comfort out of the foregoing speeches of the Irish members, who had pretty plainly laid down the conditions on which they would support a Liberal Government, but Mr. Gladstone's remarks on Irish affairs were so skilfully conceived that he dissipated the Tory hopes of an Irish defection. He pledged himself on the general question of home rule in such a way that no Irish member could vote against him, and yet he refused to commit himself, as some of the Irish extremists wished, in regard to evicted tenants and imprisoned agitators. Some of them, especially the Parnellites, will vote with him with much grumbling, yet they will vote. In short, the prediction that Mr. Gladstone would fail for lack of tact and finesse in dealing with the Parliamentary situation was about the most baseless fabric of a vision imaginable, and the Tories have had to fall back on the dismal prophecies about his failing strength.

The tactics and taunts of the Opposition to Mr. Gladstone in Parliament are unintelligible on this side of the water. A majority of forty is larger than we are accustomed to see in the House of Representatives at Washington, although there happens to be a larger one now. Any party which shall enter the next Congress with the same proportionate strength that the Liberals have in the House of Commons, will be esteemed strong enough for all purposes. Of course our executive government is not a committee of the House of Representatives, and hence the conditions are not parallel. Nor does a majority here consist usually of parts of a party, as the Liberal majority is now made up. But on this point it must be said that on the main question at issue the Gladstonian parts are just as well united as the anti-Gladstonian. If the former consist of Liberals and Home-Rulers, the latter consist of Conservatives and Liberal Unionists. The cohesion of Mr. Gladstone and Mr. McCarthy is quite as likely to be permanent as that of Lord Salisbury and Mr. Chamberlain. One advantage possessed by the Opposition—that of holding the negative in debate and not being responsible for anything—it would be useless to ignore, but neither should that advantage be anticipated before the new Government is announced. All of Mr. Chamberlain's taunts are wasted upon our ears because we do not understand a system of government under which they would be considered appropriate or even permissible. The first thought of every American, when a new government comes in power, is to give it a fair chance and not to condemn it before it is tried. Yet the whole of Mr. Chamberlain's indictment and of all the rest of the Opposition speeches was tantamount to saying: "You have a majority, but you cannot use it; you are strong enough to turn us out, but you are not strong enough to govern the country after you come in." As that is the very thing to be proved, and as it can be proved only by experiment, we, in our provincial way, should say that such taunts might be best postponed for a few months—more especially since nothing under heaven can now prevent the Gladstonians from ruling till next February at all events.

The session of the Austrian Reichsrath just closed has been unusually rich in legislation. Besides deciding on the reform of the currency, the two houses have approved of important commercial treaties, and adopted proposals looking to the development of the city of Vienna and the steady employment by the Government of large numbers of laborers, in the regulation of the River Wien, the construction of canals, etc. This activity has unquestionably redounded to the credit of the Taaffe Government, to whose direct initiative all these measures were due. The German Liberal party has but grudgingly supported Count Taaffe and given him a working majority. It has just suffered a great loss in the death of Dr. Herbst, its most eloquent leader against the aggressions of the Czechs, whose demands grow louder and louder. In Bohemia the conservative counsels of the old Czech leader, Rieger, have been contemptuously set aside, and in Carinthia, Carniola, and Styria the Slovens are imitating the Young Czechs in their opposition to the German Liberals and in their insistence on the predominance of the Slavic tongue. Laybach, particularly, the capital of the province of Carniola, and ten or fifteen years ago to all intents and purposes a German city, has been gradually transformed into a Slavic one, and the Government has connived at the change, even overlooking a protest of the Municipal Council of Laybach against the festivities connected with the unveiling in that city of the statue of the great Liberal poet Count Anton Auersperg. It would not be strange if the German Liberals should refuse to serve Taaffe's purpose much longer, and should once more come out in open opposition to him. Seemingly sure of the Emperor's favor, he will rule with them if possible, and without them if necessary.

NEW YORK AND THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE.

It is noticeable that the political figurers upon both sides are talking about the possibility of winning the Presidential election without the electoral votes of the State of New York. On the Republican side it is claimed that the addition of six new States in the Northwest, with a total of twenty electoral votes, has greatly increased their chances for electing their candidate without the aid of New York. On the Democratic side it is claimed that the success of their party in recent elections in Iowa, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin, and the division of the electoral vote of Michigan, make it entirely possible that they should lose New York and still secure a majority of the Electoral College.

In order to judge of the merits and demerits of these claims, let us consider some of the possible combinations which might occur to justify them. The Electoral College of this year, compared with that of the last Presidential election, dividing the vote as it was cast in that election, is as follows:

REPUBLICAN STATES.	Old Ap.	New Ap.	DEMOCRATIC STATES.	Old Ap.	New Ap.
California	8	9	Alabama	10	11
Colorado	3	4	Arkansas	7	8
Illinois	22	24	Connecticut	6	6
Indiana	15	15	Delaware	3	3
Iowa	13	13	Florida	4	4
Kansas	9	10	Georgia	12	13
Maine	6	6	Kentucky	13	13
Massachusetts	14	15	Louisiana	8	8
Michigan	13	14	Maryland	8	8
Minnesota	7	9	Mississippi	9	9
Nebraska	5	8	Missouri	16	17
Nevada	3	3	New Jersey	9	10
N. Hampshire	4	4	North Carolina	11	11
New York	36	36	South Carolina	9	9
Ohio	23	23	Tennessee	12	12
Oregon	3	4	Texas	13	15
Pennsylvania	32	32	Virginia	12	12
Rhode Island	4	4	West Virginia	6	6
Vermont	4	4			
Wisconsin	11	12	Totals	168	175
Totals	233	249			

NEW STATES			
Idaho	3	Washington	4
Montana	3	Wyoming	3
North Dakota	3		
South Dakota	4	Total	20

The new colleges will consist of 444 votes, and 223 will be necessary for an election. If the Republicans were to carry the same States this year as they carried in 1888, they would have a majority and 26 votes to spare without the aid of the 20 votes of the new States. It will be seen that of the additional 23 votes which the old States have gained by the new apportionment, 16 are in the States which were carried by the Republicans in 1888 and only 7 in the States which were carried by the Democrats in that year. The Republicans have, therefore, reckoning on the party divisions of the last Presidential election, a net gain of 29 votes—that is, if we count the 20 votes of the new States as surely in their favor.

If we divide the States in accordance with elections which have been held since 1888, placing in the Democratic column States which have been carried by that party in two successive elections, the showing will be very different. The votes of New York, Iowa, and Massachusetts, 64 in all, will be transferred from the Republican to the Democratic side, making the Democratic total 239, or 16 more than the requisite electoral majority. This division still leaves Indiana, with its 15 votes, in the Republican column, and leaves there also the 14 votes of Michigan; but Indiana is confessedly a doubtful State, and at least four of the Michigan votes are conceded to the Democrats in the next election. Recent elections in Rhode Island have made that also a doubtful State, and it is admitted by all fair-minded judges that reasonable doubts may be entertained of the result in Wisconsin, and even in Illinois, this year.

In order to make a basis for combinations, however, let us take from both columns all the States that are by common consent pronounced "doubtful," and thus get a basis of reasonably certain States for each party. In view of recent elections the doubtful list must include the following:

New York	36	Massachusetts	15
Indiana	15		
Connecticut	6	Total	85
Iowa	13		

Giving the Republicans the 20 votes of the new States, this reduces their sure vote to 190, and the sure Democratic vote to 169, without making the Michigan division. Placing the Michigan vote at 10 Republican and 4 Democratic, the totals of sure States on each side will be Republican 186, Democratic 173. In order to win, therefore, the Republicans must gain 37 votes and the Democrats 50. The Republicans could win with any one of the following combinations:

Sure Republican States	186
New York	36
Massachusetts or Indiana	15
Total	237
Sure Republican States	186
New York	36
Iowa	13
Total	235
Sure Republican States	186
New York	36
Connecticut	6
Total	228
Sure Republican States	186
Iowa	13
Indiana	15
Massachusetts	15
Total	229

It will be seen that, in order to succeed without New York, the Republicans must carry every doubtful State and all the Pacific Coast and Northwestern States. Turning to the Democratic side, we have the following possible combinations:

Sure Democratic States	173
New York	36
Indiana or Massachusetts	15
Total	224
Sure Democratic States	173
New York	36
Iowa	13
Connecticut	6
Total	228

Giving the Democrats five instead of four votes from Michigan, making their sure total 174, we have:

Sure Democratic States	174
Indiana	15
Iowa	13
Massachusetts	15
Connecticut	6
	223

The Democrats could also win without New York and with only four votes from Michigan, provided they should carry, in addition to the four States enumerated above, Rhode Island or Montana, and the latter State has shown many signs of uncertainty in recent elections. They could also win without New York, or Iowa, or Connecticut if they could gain the twenty-four votes of Illinois, as follows:

Sure Democratic votes	173
Indiana	15
Massachusetts	15
Illinois	24
Total	227

It is obvious, however, that the vote of New York is the all-important factor in the calculations upon both sides, and that the candidate who receives that will, in this contest as in all previous ones, stand by far the better chances of election. Still, the Michigan division has introduced a new element of uncertainty, and it is by no means impossible that the result may be decided by that.

MORE CHILIAN AFTER-THOUGHTS.

A fresh crop of explanations in regard to the conduct of our diplomatic and naval officials in Chili marks the return of Consul McCreery to this country. He himself has a delightful tale to tell of the consuming love of Chilians for Americans, affirming that "there is not a particle of truth in the stories of ill-feeling on the part of Chilians against Americans." This is enough to bring President Harrison back to Washington in hot haste, to see personally to the dismissal of a subordinate who could thus coolly contradict the head of the nation. In a certain Presidential message the assertion was made, it will be remembered, that the "populace" in Valparaiso was "animated by hostility to the Government whose uniform the sailors and officers wear." But what the Consul has to say is not of so much importance as the published letter of Francis W. Egan and the article of Theodore Roosevelt in last week's *Independent*.

Mr. Egan, as might be expected from a member of an old American family, is especially strong in denouncing the "devilish malice" and "lying attacks" of such recent and unpatriotic immigrants as the Trumbulls, whom he has detected in the act of "currying favor with their English clients." But we cannot pause over the sublime spectacle of young Egan's patriotism; his explanation of Admiral Brown's conduct is the principal thing that requires consideration. It coincides in the main with that advanced by that expert in Chilian affairs, Mr. Roosevelt. Both think it a complete vindication of the American naval officer to say that the landing at Quinteros was known to the Balmacedist officials in the morning of the day in the afternoon of which he steamed up to the scene of the disembarkation. Admiral Brown went up there, says glib Mr. Roosevelt, "fulfilling his duty." This is a great advance over the best explanation ever before given of the Admiral's action—even his own—namely, that he went

out of idle curiosity. If he had any "duty" to perform on the Chilian coast, it was to protect American lives and property. A similar duty rested upon the other foreign war-ships in Valparaiso harbor, and, strangely enough, they thought they could best fulfil it by staying where they were. Admiral Brown, however, according to Mr. Roosevelt, thought the best way to protect Americans was to go where there were none.

Now, it has never been denied, so far as we know, that the insurgent squadron had been sighted off Quinteros before Admiral Brown went up there. The charge against him is, that he brought back more accurate and detailed information than was had before in Valparaiso, and that he gave his opinion, of the highest military value to the Balmacedists at the time, that the movement was not a feint, but a definitive landing. Says Mr. Roosevelt: "Not one shred of evidence has been offered in support of the malicious slanders" against Admiral Brown, and he thinks it is to the "infinite discredit" of the papers which have circulated these charges that such is the case. Now, there have been at least two shreds of evidence on this subject printed again and again, and it is to the discredit, infinite or otherwise, of any one making the above assertion that he ignores them. For Mr. Roosevelt's benefit we reproduce them once more.

On the morning of August 21, after Admiral Brown's return to Valparaiso and interview with the officials, a Government paper came out with the announcement of an impending battle, and added: "From trustworthy information brought by the American man-of-war *San Francisco*, we know for a fact that the revolutionists have landed at Quinteros, etc." When Admiral Brown reached San Francisco, some months later, he denied roundly that any such statement had been published in any Chilian paper, although copies of the original were then in more than one newspaper office in this country. This denial will do to go with his other one, that no despatch was sent by any one on his ship, except a cipher message to Washington; the latter has since been made to look particularly silly by the production of a facsimile of a cable message sent in plain English by his own flag-officer to a New York newspaper. The other "shred" is the following telegram, sent early in the morning of August 21 to Balmaceda himself by Intendente Viel:

"The American Admiral has left me only this moment, and he believes, as I do, that a reëmbarkation is not possible."

We have never seen any explanation or denial of this telegram. Secretary Tracy had his attention called to it by the Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post*, and complacently remarked that he thought it very likely the Admiral had talked over the military situation with Viel. If that is neutrality, what would be gross partisanship? If that is a model of discreet conduct "beyond praise," as Mr. Roosevelt calls it, what lengths would Admiral Brown have had to go to call for condemnation? Mr. Roosevelt demands "frank and humble apology" from those papers which have published the charges without any proof. We think that an apology for "baseless slander" is indeed due from somebody, but will leave it to Mr. Roosevelt, on reflection, to say from whom.

A fitting climax to the artificial patriotism displayed so freely throughout this whole Chilian affair has been the lying in state of the body of the murdered sailor, Riggin, in Independence Hall, Philadelphia. It was made perfectly clear by the papers of that city that the whole scheme was devised by one Philadelphia journal as a means of advertising itself. It had worked up a "Riggin Fund," and induced Mayor Stuart to give his consent to the exhibition in Independence Hall. The other papers, aware of the clap-trap nature of the whole performance, called upon the Mayor to rescind his action, pointing out, with entire justice, that an honor heretofore paid only to the remains of Henry Clay and Abraham Lincoln ought not to be cheapened by coupling it with an advertising dodge of a newspaper. But the Mayor had gone too far.

A TARIFF FOR WAGES ONLY.

In his examination before the Congressional Committee, Mr. Frick maintained a very bold front except at one point—when he was asked the labor-cost of producing a ton of steel. Though questioned on that head more than once, he refused to answer. This refusal he justified on the ground that he should not be expected to make public a business secret; but there are those who suspect that he was afraid of coming into collision with his former declaration that the tariff had nothing whatever to do with the Homestead troubles. However that may be, there is no difficulty in getting at an approximate answer to the question put to Mr. Frick. The cost of production of iron and steel has been the subject of many expert inquiries, and from them a fair estimate of the labor-cost may be derived, even if it should be true that the labor-cost to the Carnegie Company were less, and their profits correspondingly greater, than in the case of business competitors.

The thing to make plain at the start is, that the modern Republican doctrine of protection has come down to the explicit assertion that the tariff is put upon foreign competing goods "to make up the difference between the wages paid in the United States and the wages paid in Europe." That was the language held by McKinley, in his speech in this city on June 21; and to make his meaning still more unmistakable, he added:

"Whenever Europe will give to her workmen the same wages that we give to ours, then we will remove our tariffs and meet her in the neutral markets of the world, and it will be the survival of the fittest. Elevate your condition up to ours, and we will demand no protective tariff against the goods made by your labor. And I will tell you when we can have free trade in this country. It will be when the nations of the world will bring their social and labor conditions up to ours, for we will never level ours down to theirs. That is what a protective tariff means."

In this, of course, he was but expounding the plank in the Republican platform which says that the duties should be "equal to the difference between wages abroad and at home." No more explicit form of words could be chosen to say that if the duty on steel rails, for example, is greater than is demanded by the difference between the labor-cost in this country and in Europe, it is too great and should at once be brought down to exactly that difference. On the other hand, if the strikers at Homestead can show that their wages do not eat up all the protection on the goods they produce, but that a part of it is lost in extra profits to the manufacturers, then they have the authority of McKinley himself for demanding those profits as their lawful due.

Now, in the matter of steel rails, the United States Commissioner of Labor, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, prepared in 1890 a statement showing the labor-cost per ton in this country and in England. He based his figures on the cost of production all the way up from the ore and coal and coke to the finished product, and found the entire labor-cost of a ton of steel rails in this country to be $11.59. But the McKinley duty is $13.44, which is $2 too much on the new McKinley theory, even if the British manufacturer could produce rails without any labor-cost whatever. But when we find from the same investigation that the labor-cost in England is $7.81, we see that the tariff protection, on the principle that the "difference in wages" alone should dictate the rate, ought to be no more than $3.78 per ton. In other words, McKinley made his rate nearly four times as high as his own rule called for. The *Iron Age*, which no one ever suspected of understating the case for protection, recently gave the labor-cost of a ton of wire rods as $1.95; yet the tariff duty is six-tenths of a cent a pound, or $12 a ton—more than six times the labor-cost.

The tables of the last census relating to wages and cost of production are not yet available, but reference to the first annual report of the Commissioner of Labor and the report of the census of 1880 on wages will show how far from the truth is the late Republican discovery, that the protective tariff is solely to make up for the difference between wages in this country and in Europe. From the voluntary statements of manufacturers gathered in the reports referred to, it appears, for example, that the labor-cost of producing a pair of five-pound blankets is 35 cents; the duty on them in the tariff of 1883 was $1.90. Instead of lowering that rate to make it cover difference in wages and no more, McKinley increased it. The labor-

cost of a yard of four-ounce flannel was 3 cents; the 1883 duty was 8 cents, and McKinley put it higher. A gallon of linseed oil involves a labor-cost of 2 cents; the tariff of 1883 made it dutiable at 25 cents, and McKinley raised the rate to 32 cents. It would be easy to extend the comparison indefinitely, and show how thorough a "fraud" is the "Republican protection" for wages only.

All this relates solely to the theory on which, Republicans now claim, the protective tariff is constructed. As to the practical effect of a high tariff on wages, it appears, from the investigation of the Senate Finance Committee, that wages haye slightly fallen in highly protected industries and risen in non-protected. The published abstract of the results arrived at by the Commissioner of Labor, in his inquiries into the same subject in connection with the census, points strongly to the same conclusion. The N. Y. *Tribune* promptly sounded a note of alarm when Mr. Wright gave out his general results, and said that a false impression might be made by his hasty figures, and plainly intimated that the full report ought to be suppressed—at least until after the election. If the Republicans were content to join the ranks of the economists who say that a high tariff has nothing to do with wages, except to increase the cost of living and so indirectly to lower them, they could escape from some of the awkward questions suggested by the Homestead troubles. But as long as they maintain that the tariff is solely to keep up wages, they will all the while be running up against facts which show their professions to be fraudulent and their practical results delusive.

AN UNWORKABLE THEORY.

THE relations between workmen and their employers, never in very stable equilibrium, have been of late exceptionally disturbed, with the usual result of calling forth much good advice to both parties. In so far as this advice represents public opinion it will not be without effect, for neither laborers nor capitalists can be insensible to the feeling with which they are regarded in the community, any more than they can be insensible to the state of the atmosphere which envelops them. But in so far as this advice implies the acceptance of certain economic principles, its value depends upon the truth of these principles. If they are untrue, or if they have been generally represented to be untrue, it is hardly fair to blame workingmen for being reluctant to accept advice which assumes their truth. American laborers are, as a class, extremely intelligent, but even intelligent people may be misled by the statements of those who profess to be experts, and in our opinion they are now suffering from a misapprehension of some fundamental economic truths due to the fallacious teaching of some professed economists.

The unscientific spirit of this teaching is manifested perhaps most conspicuously in a very general exultation over the "explosion" of the wages-fund theory. It may be as well to say flatly that no such explosion has taken place. Undoubtedly, some writers have made absurd and exaggerated statements about the wages-fund, but all that is essential in this theory remains true and indispensable in any political economy that will work. No one who reflects can deny that the laborers employed upon a certain piece of work must be sustained while the work is being done, and this sustentation is the wages-fund. The element of time is the essential one, for in almost all modern industry the product is not consumed by those who produce it, but is exchanged for other products; and until the processes of production and exchange have been completed, which cannot be done instantly, there is nothing available for the laborer's support. It is true that a portion of his support he may himself provide, but this is immaterial, as is the circumstance that his employer may borrow his capital. What is true and important is, that, as a rule, in all modern industry, laborers engaged in any department of production are supported out of wealth already produced and not out of wealth to be produced. It is well enough to talk of the share of the laborer in the product, and to speak of the partnership existing between capital and labor, if these expressions are not taken literally; but unfortunately they often are taken literally.

Thus it is said by some, as, for instance, by Mr. F. A. Walker, that the laborer is not supported by the wages-fund, because he often lives upon credit until his job is completed, when his wages are paid to him out of the product or its proceeds. Others maintain a similar doctrine, that as the laborer works he becomes entitled to a certain share in the product, which really constitutes his wages. It ought to be enough to say in reply to these theories that the laborer cannot eat or wear credit, but must have food and clothes, and that these must have been created before he began his work. As to the second statement of the theory, we need only ask whether the laborers employed on the Panama Canal received as their wages certain undivided shares in the useless excavations that scar that isthmus. The same illustration exhibits the fallacy involved in the "industrial partnership" theory. The French investor knows well that the wages of these laborers were paid to them out of wealth that he had saved, and that in meeting the losses of this partnership he had no assistance from the partner who furnished the labor.

For it is essential to a partnership that there should be a community of losses as well as profits, and if it is true that the laborer's wages come out of what he produces, when that product has no value he gets no wages. The consequences of ignoring this obvious truth are very serious, for nothing is more common than for sentimentalists to dwell upon the large profits of some particular enterprise, and to insist that the laborers are entitled to their share of them, in addition to the wages for which they agreed to work. If these economists followed their reasoning out to its logical result, they would find themselves obliged to hold that when an enterprise fails, the laborers ought to repay to the capitalists the wages which were advanced to them out of a value that did not "materialize." Yet the "heads I win, tails you lose" theory has been represented as applicable to the laborer's case so generally, by the press and from the pulpit and the professorial chair, that it is not surprising if many laborers feel that the present method of fixing their wages deprives them of remuneration to which they are justly entitled.

As to the exceptional profits of particular enterprises, it is well to bear in mind that men of wealth seldom put all their eggs into one basket. The stock in a profitable concern is probably in most cases owned by men who own stock in many other concerns, some of which are very unprofitable. Their income is derived from the whole mass of their investments, good and bad, and if they were compelled to accept only a part of their gains while they bore all their losses, there is little doubt that the spirit of enterprise, so important to the interests of the community, laborers included, would be discouraged. This spirit demands the prospect of exceptional profits, for if there is no hope of large gains from a new venture, there is no motive for assuming a new risk. Perhaps it should be added that we are not considering a case where exceptional gains are due to exceptional fidelity and capacity in the laborers employed. In such a case, it is safe to say that a management sufficiently intelligent to be prosperous is likely to be sufficiently intelligent to understand the causes of its success, and to see that its employees do not become less efficient through dissatisfaction with their reward.

Taking a general view of the industrial field, therefore, it seems that capital is everywhere maintaining labor, paying wages whether the enterprise is profitable or not, and applying its exceptional gains to offset its exceptional losses. If it apparently, like the Lord of the Vineyard, pays the same wages for services that differ widely in productiveness, this is not done arbitrarily, but in pursuance of laws that are perhaps on the whole as beneficent as any substitutes that could be devised by human ingenuity. Certainly, the attempt recently made on the part of the laborers at Homestead to assert the existence of "vested interests" in the plant there, has made it manifest that the economic theories above criticised do not work well when reduced to practice. There is and there has been no "industrial partnership" there; nothing but a bargain on the part of capitalists to pay specified wages to laborers, let the issue as to pro-

fits be what it might. There may be said to have been an explosion there, but it was not an explosion of the wages-fund theory, but of the theory that holds that wages are paid out of the anticipated products of the future, and not out of the existing products of the past.

AT BODENSTEDT'S BIRTHPLACE.

PEINE, HANOVER, July 23, 1892.

IT would be interesting to make a dozen persons read Bodenstedt's famous songs of love and wine, and then have them guess in what kind of place the poet was born and brought up. Probably not one would descend in his thoughts from the gorgeous scenes of the Caucasus, where the singer has entertained him with the Oriental wisdom of Mirza-Schaffy, to anything like the sober plains between Brunswick and Hanover, where he would find the cradle of Bodenstedt in the prosy little town of Peine. It is true, Ernst Schulze as well as Hoffmann von Fallersleben might come to mind, both born in the same region and both poets of some note; but the contrast between their poetry and their early surroundings is not so striking as in Bodenstedt's case. The once monotonous Lüneburger Heide has furnished more than one poet; only special circumstances and experiences, however, could combine to produce such a seeming anomaly as the author of "Mirza-Schaffy."

When Bodenstedt was born, in 1819, Peine was a town of 3,000 inhabitants; when he died, three months ago, it had 8,000. In earlier times it was a strong fortress; at present it is a manufacturing town and quite an important railway station. An unusually large number of its houses still show the old-fashioned extremely low upper stories, with windows like mere loop-holes, but many have already been rebuilt in modern style. Such has been the case with the stately mansion of the Bodenstedts, which faces the market square, and attracts the attention of the visitor by the tablet bearing the name of the poet and the date of his birth, but still more by the large sign which invites hungry and thirsty souls to enter and refresh themselves in the Mirza-Schaffy Restaurant. Surely this is just as it should be, for no visible or external surroundings could make one appreciate Bodenstedt better than good wine and viands on the table, appropriate selections from his songs written out on wall and ceiling, and a picture of the genial singer looking down upon the cheerful feaster.

Bodenstedt's father was one of the prominent citizens of Peine, a self-reliant, self-exacting man of more than common intelligence and sagacity. He cared for the physical development of his son with something like Spartan rigor, but he also gave him the best mental training possible. The boy's grandmother was a rhymester, and the boy himself early began to imitate her, but soon concluded that nothing short of life's actual experiences would ever make a poet of him. It was this longing for the wide world, this desire to find something worth expressing, and the impulse to express it in artistic form, which made him accept a place as tutor in a Russian family at Moscow when he was but twenty-two, and could hardly be said to have finished his own studies at home. There he passed three pleasant and profitable years until he was called to the position of a teacher or professor in the Gymnasium at Tiflis, where the frequent holidays and the long summer vacation, in all about six months out of twelve, gave him abundant time to pursue his private investigations of the tribes of the Caucasus and to study various Eastern tongues. On his return to Germany, late in 1845, he went first to Göttingen and thence to Munich. From 1854 to 1866 he was professor of the Slavic languages in the Bavarian capital, and from 1867 to 1869 superintendent of the theatre in Meiningen. Afterwards he lived the life of a writer, journalist, and editor in Berlin, Trieste, Wiesbaden, and other cities; a life of which the principal interruption was his visit to our shores in 1880, or, as one might be tempted to call it, his triumphal procession from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Pacific back to the Atlantic.

When a poet is taken from us, it is natural and perfectly fair to ask how much of his work will outlive him and his age; but it is not fair for his contemporaries to forget how much even that which is likely soon to die has pleased and delighted them in days gone by. Our fast-living age is only too apt to forget this, and seems to be in danger of doing so with Bodenstedt. If, ten years ago, he was extolled too highly by his countrymen in America, he now appears to be underrated by some of his countrymen at home. That he was not a truly great poet is no new discovery, nor should it be laid to his charge; but to say that he was essentially shallow and too easily satisfied with the popular success of his Mirza-Schaffy songs is hardly just and true; for, light and frivolous as many of his ditties may sound, there are not a few passages in his prose as well as in his poetry which betoken an essentially serious nature. But, however this may be, to fix Bodenstedt's place in German literature will devolve upon a future generation; all that could possibly be done now, in an adequate critique, would be, and should be, to survey his activity as a man of letters in general, and to ascertain what this activity meant or still means for his own day and generation.

Bodenstedt accomplished several things for which he should be remembered. He served his countrymen as interpreter and translator of foreign thought. He left behind him valuable memoirs, and he made a large and lasting contribution to the world's cheerfulness in giving us his songs. Russia, Persia, England, and America—all are the better known to Germans and students of German for his having lived and written among us. His 'Reminiscences' can hardly fail to interest the historian of literature, for Bodenstedt's friends and acquaintances were numerous, and his reflections on men and affairs, though by no means always profound, often throw a sidelight on events of importance. His songs, again—those, at least, which were set to music by composers like Rubinstein and Franz—speak for themselves, and constitute that portion of his work by which he is most likely to live. Much of what he wrote on St. Petersburg, Moscow, Tiflis, and Constantinople, and much of what he wrote on or translated from Shakspere, Hafiz, Pushkin, Lermontoff, Kolzoff, Derzhavin, and Turgeneff, has lost its value and interest or has been superseded. But we ought to recall that, when he began his literary career, little or nothing was known on many of the subjects which he took up and rendered intelligible.

Moreover, he not only introduced Germans to the literature of Russia, but also Russians to that of Germany. When he went to Moscow, in 1841, he was still commonly mistaken for an Englishman because he came from a Hanoverian town. Beyond the names of Goethe and Schiller, and a few of their more popular works, German literature was a book with seven seals to Russians, and that which then constituted the literary life of Germany could not but confuse and disgust even the closest and fairest foreign observer. Heine and Börne were railing, first jointly at German politics, and afterwards at each other. Heine and Immermann were pitted against Platen; Gutzkow against Menzel; Börn against Wilibald Alexis; and, to make confusion worse confounded, Börne, Menzel, and Gutzkow together were picking flaws in Goethe and Schiller. In many Russian homes and families where these writers, not excepting the greatest, were scarcely known by name, Balzac, Dickens, and Thackeray were read and studied with astonishing eagerness. Hence, what an opportunity for the clever and enthusiastic young Bodenstedt to correct, teach, and enlighten! And this opportunity he seized and improved faithfully.

Of Bodenstedt's wide circle of friends and acquaintances it is impossible to speak here at all; nor can more than bare mention be made of his visit to the United States. Americans should read, in his 'Morgenland und Abendland,' the verses which commemorate this visit. Some of them will be found to be very prosy; others, for example the lines on Minnehaha and the little violet on the banks of the Mississippi, are truly musical and poetic. Interesting, too, are the sentiments expressed in his "Farewell to America":

"Leb wohl, Amerika, du Welt im Werden!
Aus unsrer Alten Welt erhabnen Trümmern
Vereinigst du, was Grosses ward auf Erden,
Und brauchst dich um Vergangnes nicht zu kümmern,
Derweilen wir noch stets vom alten Fluch
Zu dulden haben, der Geschichte Buch
Durchforschen müssen, gründlich zu erfahren,
Wie lang wir Narren der Geschichte waren.
. . . . . .
Leb wohl, Amerika! Was in dir Grosses,
Kann nur der Dummheit Neid und Hass erregen."

Of course, we notice at once that these lines resemble Goethe's

"Amerika, du hast es besser," etc.,

but what is of far greater interest than this resemblance is the fact, recorded here once more, that "the past," or what we call "history" and tradition, if dwelt upon to morbidness and heeded too anxiously, may become a fetter which makes men "fools" indeed. And it is from such fetters that even the highly civilized European feels himself freed when he first reaches the shores of the less civilized New World; freed too often, however, only by way of reaction, for further experience not infrequently teaches him that progress with absolute disregard of the "past" is just as blind as progress for ever looking backward is slow.

Let me conclude these reflections in the Mirza-Schaffy Restaurant with a few lines from the poet's 'Morgenland und Abendland,' which I take to be not only sincere, but also true and characteristic of him:

"Mit allem, was ich weiss, nahm ich es immer gründlich,
Mein Geist ist ernst, allein mein Herz ist leicht erzündlich.
. . . . . .
Oft ward ich unverdient gerühmt,
Oft auch getadelt unverblümt,
Doch der schärfste Tadel, den ich vernommen,
Ist mir stets aus dem eignen Herzen gekommen."

X.

BARDOUX'S LAFAYETTE.—I.

PARIS, August 5, 1892.

M. BARDOUX is one of our Senators, representing the department of the Puy-de-Dôme. He belongs to what we call, in our classification of

parties, the Left Centre, which means the moderate Republican. He was for a brief period Minister of Public Instruction. A man of some culture, he has published several books, the best of which are 'La Comtesse Pauline de Beaumont' and 'Madame de Custine,' as he had original documents to help him in writing these biographies. There is also a volume on 'Le Comte de Montlosier et le Gallicanisme.' I take no account of 'La Bourgeoisie Française,' which deals with generalities. M. Bardoux's style is very defective; there is in it a certain sort of fluidity which borders on what the French call "fadeur." It often aims to be eloquent when it is only commonplace. M. Bardoux is fortunate to have found some good subjects, and to have chosen interesting heroines and heroes; they have helped him more than he has helped them. This can be said essentially of his new work, 'La Jeunesse de Lafayette (1757-1792).' The youth of Lafayette is all the more interesting to study as he remained, so to speak, young all his lifetime. His passions were, at the end of a long life, what they were at twenty. You may judge of the style of M. Bardoux by this phrase: "If our heart brings back or fixes our sensibility on the day, happier than all others, of which we dream when we reënter into ourselves, this day was for Lafayette the one on which the generous wind of the eighteenth century blew him over to America."

Marie-Paul-Joseph-Roch-Yves-Gilbert of Motier, Marquis of Lafayette, was born on September 6, 1757, in Auvergne, in the old castle of Chavagnac. His father, Colonel of the Grenadiers of France, was killed at the age of twenty-four, a short time before he was born. At the age of fourteen, he entered, like all the gentlemen of his time, the military academy of Versailles. He was tall, red-haired, serious, awkward; he danced without grace, and did not ride well. As early as seventeen he was married to Adrienne d'Ayen. The Duc d'Ayen, eldest son of the last Marshal de Noailles, had five daughters. Adrienne was one of them; Pauline, another, became Madame de Montagu, whose memoirs have been published. Adrienne was only fourteen years and a half old. The Comte de Ségur, who was the uncle of Lafayette, writes in his Memoirs that "till he was eighteen years old, Lafayette had a grave and cold countenance which wrongly betokened embarrassment and timidity. This exterior coldness and little disposition to talk formed a great contrast to the petulance, frivolity, and loquacity of persons of his age; but this envelope concealed the most active mind, the firmest character and the most ardent soul."

Lafayette belonged to the most brilliant set of courtiers, headed by the Comte d'Artois, Havré, Guéménée, Durfort, Coigny, the two Dillons, the two Ségurs, the Comtesse d'Aremberg, the Duchesse de Fronsac. They met at an inn, near Porcherons, called the "Épée de bois." These young people were Anglomaniacs, and thought it necessary to drink much to be very English. "Don't forget to tell Noailles," said Lafayette one day to the Comte de la Marck, who was one of the set, "how much I drank," after having taken more champagne than usual. This life of dissipation did not last long. Lafayette was at Metz when he heard the news of the American Revolution from the mouth of the Duke of Gloucester, who was dining at the Governor's (the Comte de Broglie, the hero of the 'Secret du Roi,' one of the historical works of the present Duc de Broglie). Before the end of the meal, Lafayette had conceived the idea of going to America and of offering his services to "the insurgents" (or "Bostoniens," as they were then called). The sentiment of France was all on the side of the American colonies; the English game of whist was replaced by another game, "Boston." Was there not a curious symptom in this sympathy shown for the revolt of a people against a King? To be sure, some political calculation was mixed up with this generous sympathy; it was felt that if the thirteen colonies fell again under the yoke of England, France would soon lose her colonies in the West Indies.

The Comte de Ségur had formed the project of embarking for America with Lafayette and with the Vicomte de Noailles. The Comte de Broglie was let into the secret. He tried at first to hinder Lafayette from following out his resolution: "I saw your uncle die in the Italian wars; I was present at the death of your father at the battle of Minden; and I will not contribute to the ruin of the only remaining branch of the family." It was in vain. In vain, too, did the Duc d'Ayen fly into a great rage against his son-in-law. Society pronounced in favor of Lafayette and against the Duc d'Ayen. Lord Stormont, the English Ambassador, wrote to his Government: "If the Duc d'Ayen crosses his son-in-law in such an enterprise, he cannot hope to marry off his daughters." Lafayette entered into communication with Silas Deane, and signed an engagement. In order the better to cover his enterprise, he went to London, where he remained three weeks; he returned to Paris, left for Bordeaux, after having taken leave of his wife and of the Comte de Ségur, and succeeded, not without many difficulties, in embarking on the 26th of April, 1777, on his ship, which he called *La Victoire*.

M. Bardoux gives us several letters written by Lafayette on board the *Victoire* to his wife; they are in the sentimental style of the eighteenth century. Lafayette had left a child behind him, Henriette (who died during his journey), and his wife was on the eve of her second confinement. He tells his wife that he is glad to change his futile life for a useful life:

"In going, as a friend, to offer my services to this very interesting republic, I bring with me only my frankness and my good will—no ambition, no personal interest. In working for my own glory, I shall work for their happiness. I hope that for my sake you will become a good American. The happiness of America is intimately connected with the happiness of humanity; it is going to become the respectable and safe asylum of liberty."

On July 16, 1777, after six weeks afloat, Lafayette landed in Georgetown, S. C. He stopped first at the house of Major Huger, and left for Charleston, from which place he went on horseback, accompanied by six officers, to Philadelphia. He was for a moment coldly received—the Americans had been disgusted with the conduct of several French adventurers; but when the letters which he bore from Franklin and Deane to the Chairman of the Commitee on Foreign Affairs were read, there was a marked change, and on July 31 Congress accepted the services of Lafayette and gave him the rank and commission of Major-General in the American army. The meeting of Washington and Lafayette was very cordial. Washington invited Lafayette to inspect with him the forts of the Delaware and to consider his headquarters as his own house. "We shall be embarrassed," said Gen. Washington, "to show ourselves to an officer who leaves the French army." "I am here to learn and not to teach," answered Lafayette.

At the battle of Brandywine, Lafayette received a ball in his leg. He wrote to his wife September 12: "The English have gratified me with a ball which has slightly wounded my leg; but it is nothing, my dear heart, the ball has touched neither bone nor nerve." Some time afterwards, he writes to her:

"Now, as the wife of an American officer, I must give you your lesson. They will tell you: 'They have been beaten.' You will answer, 'It is so; but old soldiers always have the advantage over young ones, and they have killed many more of the enemy than they have lost themselves.' Then they will add, 'All right! but Philadelphia is taken, the capital of America, the bulwark of liberty.' You will answer politely: 'You are fools. Philadelphia is a sorry city, open on every side, and as a port was already closed. Being the seat of Congress has made it famous, I don't know why.' If they continue to press you with questions, you will send them to . . . in terms which the Vicomte de Noailles will tell you."

Lafayette was confined to his bed for six weeks, but, before his wound was quite closed, he rejoined the headquarters, where he heard the news of the capitulation of Burgoyne at Saratoga. I will not attempt to enter into the details of the participation of Lafayette in the efforts of the American army. I will only cite a few passages from his letters. On January 6, 1778, he writes to Madame de Lafayette, from the camp at Valley Forge:

"It is in a camp in the midst of the woods, it is in the heart of winter, that I find myself chained. . . . Don't you think I need very strong motives to make such a sacrifice? Everything bids me go away, honor bids me stay; and really when you learn in detail the circumstances in which I find myself, in which the army finds itself, my friend who commands it, all the American cause, you will forgive me, my dear heart, and I dare say that you will give me your approval."

It was resolved by Congress that the American troops should invade Canada, and Lafayette was chosen to command the expedition; but he said at once to the Commissioners of Congress that he would accept no command independent of Washington, and that the title of aide-de-camp to *him* seemed to him preferable to all the titles which could be given him. He therefore refused the title of Commander-in-Chief, and would only be an officer detailed by Washington. These conditions were accepted, but the expedition, in the heart of winter, could not take place.

In a letter signed by Lord Carlisle, one of the Commissioners sent from London in order to try to conciliate the colonies, the French nation was "taxed with a perfidy too well known to need fresh proof." (France had just made her treaty of commerce with the United States, had allied herself with them, and given them a formal recognition.) Lafayette was incensed at these words, and challenged Carlisle, who refused to fight a duel. Washington did not approve of the conduct of the young Marquis—the *boy*, as he was sometimes called by the troops. Lafayette himself wrote, twenty years afterwards: "Lord Carlisle was right."

He wrote to his wife before asking leave from Congress to go and offer his sword to France, who was at war with England: "The news of the war has been brought here by a French fleet which comes to coöperate with the American troops. New operations were on the point of beginning; we were in the midst of a campaign. It was not the moment to quit the army. . . . The moment, however, now approaches when I shall rejoin you, and next winter will see me united to all those I love."

Correspondence.

OUR MUDDLING COPYRIGHT ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your very kindly and appreciative review of my little book on 'The Horse,' which appeared in the *Nation* of the 7th of July, I observe a criticism on a singular error which occurs, I presume, in the American edition, for which I am not in any way responsible.

Your reviewer justly condemns the sentence which he quotes from p. 160, as follows: "The scapula is of complex shape, with strong projecting processes. In the horse (see Frontispiece) the humerus especially, so prominent a feature in the scapula of man, being scarcely visible. There is no trace of a clavicle."

In the English edition (of which alone I have seen a proof) the corresponding sentence (p. 149) stands thus: "The scapula [of man] is of complex shape with strong projecting processes. In the horse (see Frontispiece) the scapula is a very much simpler bone, long, narrow, flat, with the processes much less developed, the acromion especially, so prominent a feature in the scapula of man, being scarcely visible. There is no trace of a clavicle."

The suppression of so much of the sentence and substitution of "humerus" for "acromion" does certainly, as your reviewer says, "mar the precision of statement" aimed at, if not always attained, in the book. In justice to myself, I shall be obliged by your giving publicity to this note. I hope there are no similar instances of variation in the two editions.

Yours very faithfully, W. H. Flower.

British Museum (Natural History), Cromwell Road, London, S. W., August 3, 1892.

[Prof. Flower is a victim of our stupid requirement of American manufacture to insure copyright.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PROGRESSIVE MACHINE INDEX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The answer to the criticism on the "Progressive Machine Index and Card Catalogue" published in the *Nation* of May 19, 1892, has been delayed until now, when a practical test in this library enables me to reassert the claims made for it by Mr. Cheney at the conference of the A. L. A. in San Francisco. Though improvements necessitating new patents will still delay, for a short time, a full explanation of the machine, enough can be said to indicate its advantages over the card catalogue.

The progressive machine proposed for this library (at present under advisement of the Board of Trustees) will consist of seven cases, enclosing twenty-one drums, with a storing capacity of over 2,000,000 entries. Each letter, except the very short ones, has a drum to itself, showing at one view about four pages of printed matter the size of those of the Peabody Catalogue. This is one advantage, and a very decided one, both for the public and for the cataloguer, whose work is simplified and facilitated by a conspectus of the matter in the process of arrangement. A good deal might be said on the advantage to the cataloguer, but I will say simply that experimentation has satisfied the cataloguers of this library that there is a saving of time and brain-labor greater even than was anticipated, and which can be appreciated only by actual use of the machine.

It has been demonstrated in this library that there *is* a "saving in time, in brain-work, and in investigation." And as to the "saving in pen-work, or type-writing, or printing," another advantage disputed by your correspondent, I have only to describe the method of work. The entries for the machine are clipped from library catalogues and publishers' lists of recognized authority, pasted upon cardboard prepared for the purpose, then inserted in the linked plates. The plates, being easily put in or taken out of the machine, this work is done at the cataloguer's table, and, when finished, inserted in the machine. No calculation need be made for space for future entries, as all the insertions are movable, and new plates may be put in wherever it is necessary. By using printed matter already carefully revised, greater legibility and accuracy are secured, in addition to the speed. To facilitate the cutting of the entries for insertion, we use a machine which separates neatly single nonpareil lines though the spacing be less than one sixty-fourth of an inch. Consequently, when the plate is filled, the edges fit so closely together that it has the appearance of one solid page.

To the above advantages must be added that of a catalogue always brought down to date. A new book may be entered at once in its proper place in the machine alphabet, where the public has the immediate use of it instead of being obliged to wait for the publication of a bulletin. There is never more than one alphabet to be consulted, while with the card catalogue there must be at least two—the general alphabet and the alphabet of books not yet bulletined.

Now let us take up, for a moment, the saving in money. This library, it is decided, must have a new catalogue. Printed, it would make three volumes, of 1,000 pages each, the size of the Peabody Catalogue. To prepare and print these here would cost about $25,000, and the time required would be about six years. The work can be done on the machine as proposed —21 drums—for $8,000, and in a time not to exceed 400 working days. Moreover, should it be thought best to print, $7,000 can be saved by using the machine *simply for "copy."* The printing can be done from the plates, which make the best of "copy," and the catalogue can be in continuous use during the printing, maimed only to the extent of, say, five plates sent daily to the printer. I need not enlarge upon the saving in corrections and in proof-reading and the gain in accuracy.

The progressive machine, simple in mechanism, and durable, used as a catalogue, reduces the cost of cataloguing by two-thirds. The saving by using it as "copy" has been before indicated; and the work, always down to date, can be as elaborate as the cataloguer has skill and patience to make it. Certain publications contain a regular monthly list of 70 to 100 topics in leading periodicals. These can be taken out bodily, pasted on cardboard, the proper shelf number written in the margin, cut, and inserted in the machine in about an hour.

As to space, a machine with three independent drums and cranks, containing over 3,000 leaves, size and contents of one full page of Peabody Catalogue, would require less room than a card-catalogue case of twelve drawers, which could hold, at most, 45,000 cards.

Finally, your correspondent says further, "The drawback of the scheme is, that the person who consults it prevents all other persons from using it at the same time." Let us see. In this library there is an average daily attendance of 600 people. Of that 600, 9 per cent. read current periodicals which require no consulting of the catalogue, and 51 per cent. use entirely our printed fiction catalogue, which leaves 40 per cent. to consult the general catalogue. Forty per cent. of 600 visitors would be 240 people, consulting 21 sections during 12 hours, or 13 people to each letter. This gives each consulter almost an hour on a letter. The above calculations have been made on statistics covering several years, and will hold good in any library of which we have the reports. But did all our 600 patrons consult the progressive machine proposed, my experience warrants me in affirming that the public would be better served than they are at present, or than they could be served by the best printed catalogues and the accompanying bulletins. I have thoroughly tested the machine, and shall soon be ready to place it at the disposal of Eastern libraries, when practical tests will support the results of our experience here.

Very respectfully, A. J. Rudolph,
First Assistant Librarian.

San Francisco Free Public Library,
August 3, 1892.

THE SEXES AS PUPILS AND TEACHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Comment was made in your columns not long ago on the fact that more girls than boys completed the grammar and high-school course. How widespread this custom may be in the East, I am not prepared to say, but it is certainly true of the Central States, and especially in and about Chicago, where I have had charge of a public school for the last ten years. Last year I graduated from the eighth grade (the final year of the grammar school) a class of twenty-six, of whom twelve were boys —quite an exceptionally large percentage.

In his last report, President Nettelhorst of the Chicago Board of Education remarked on the fact that of the 3,000 teachers employed in the Chicago public schools, only 190 were men, and lamented the fact that women were supplanting men as public-school teachers. In my mind the two facts are closely related—indeed, are cause and effect. Pupils finish the eighth grade at about fourteen or fifteen years of age. Boys brought up in a busy, "hustling" American community, where the commercial rather than the literary or scientific spirit is active, are loath to stay in school anyhow, but especially so when they see an apparent vista of four years longer of petticoat government in the high school. Women have the patience to teach six-year-olds how to spell "cat" and how many 3s there are in 12; but women are not, as a rule, so successful as men of equal education in interesting larger boys in civil government and the broader aspects of American and English history, for example. Whatever the psychologic difference between masculine and feminine mind may be, young breadwinners and future voters seem to take to that portion of humanity which is interested in, say, free trade and the Australian ballot rather than in millinery and needlework.

In rural communities, women are employed because they are cheaper, and because the old derivative idea of a pedagogue as a slave who leads the child to and from school, prevails to a greater or less extent. Why women should be employed as principals to the exclusion of men in large Western cities, is hard to say. Perhaps it is because the rapid growth from a country village has not given men's minds time to adapt themselves to changed surroundings. Perhaps it is an exaggerated idea of women's

rights. Perhaps it is exaggerated American chivalry. A visit to Chicago schools would show that many large schools of, say, a thousand or more pupils, are managed by women entirely, many of whom are elderly, nervous, and destitute of culture or broad ideas. As Superintendent Howland said, "The principal is the unit of the school." Under certain restrictions he shapes the entire policy of the school; and his personality, his ideas, and his character pervade the entire system. Under such conditions, place in the office a fussy, fidgety, unliterary, unscientific old woman with a "good political pull," and what kind of a school have you? Boys don't like it.

What President Harper in the new Chicago University may do is hard to predict, but certainly he should raise the standard of scholarship and appreciation thereof in Chicago. There is no place where a college-bred man can do more good to a greater number, at less pay and with less credit or appreciation (save in his own inner conscience), than as principal of a grammar school in the West. When Chicago gets its growth, and men have time to think of their children more and their pocketbooks less, they will insist that the head of a grammar school shall be a man of collegiate (or equivalent) education. E. L. M.

COLLINGWOOD, ONT., August 12, 1892.

[Our woman-suffrage friends will be apt to insist that to qualify women teachers to "interest larger boys in civil government, etc.," they must have the same motive and the same opportunity for informing themselves that men have.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE Century Co. will have ready in October 'Old Italian Masters,' consisting of Mr. T. Cole's engravings and his own and Mr. W. J. Stillman's text, already well known to the reading and art-loving public from the foretaste in the *Century Magazine*. A more costly proof edition of 125 copies of the cuts will be issued in portfolio, with the text in a separate volume.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promise a volume of late verse from Whittier, 'At Sundown,' with illustrations by Garrett; and 'Songs of Sunrise Lands,' by Clinton Scollard.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a 'Boys' Book of Out-door Games and Recreations,' edited by G. A. Hutchinson; 'Memoirs of W. Nelson Pendleton, D. D., Brigadier-General C. S. A., Chief of Artillery, Army of Northern Virginia,' by Susan P. Lee; and a 'Handy-book of Literary Curiosities,' by William S. Walsh.

J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, will reprint, with illustrations in color, Edward Roth's 'Christus Judex: A Legend of the White Mountains.'

Messrs. Putnam offer to send to any person who has purchased their edition of Talleyrand's Memoirs a four-page sheet for insertion at the close of the last volume. It contains Talleyrand's latest act, a retractation of the errors of his life, and a letter of submission to Pope Gregory XVI. These characteristic documents were strangely withheld from the English translators of the Memoirs.

The *Bookman*, in its announcement of the Rev. Dr. Wright's 'The Brontës in Ireland,' says that the story of Mr. Birrell, repeated by Mr. Leslie Stephen in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' that the real name of the family was Prunty, has no foundation.

Prof. J. H. Middleton's 'Illuminated Manuscripts in Classical and Mediæval Times; their Art and their Technique' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan) contains an answer to almost every question likely to be put concerning its subject. The first four chapters, which relate to the origin of books in all nations prior to the art of printing, ought to be a part of the furniture of every cultivated mind; and the same may be said of chapters x, xiii-xvi. The connection between the art of illumination and that of the weaver, the painter, the designer in stained glass and in mosaic, the jeweller, the goldsmith, is made plain; and, in the chapters not enumerated above, the achievements of the illuminators of the best epoch in each European country are set forth in detail from the finest specimens that have come down to us, with the aid of copious illustrations and abundant bibliographical references. A great deal of subsidiary information is packed away in footnotes, and is sometimes as remote as (for example) the date at which sugar, from being sold by the ounce as a costly drug, came into general use in Europe as an article of food. Prof. Middleton's arrangement is orderly, and his repetitions can readily be forgiven him; but not so the omission of an index, the need of which is crying.

The "Dilettante Library" (Macmillan) adds to its numbers two volumes on Browning and Whitman. The first, 'Browning's Criticism of Life,' by William F. Revell, endeavors to set forth in fresh terms the substance of Browning's ideas on God and man, love and knowledge, with the same results reached by other students who have made clear the imperfect measure of the poet's Christianity and the confusion of his philosophical scheme. The essay, however, is in the manner of a worshipper, and the stimulating and suggestive power of Browning is made much of, as it should be, though the fact that we do not look to poets for finalities of thought might have been more clearly acknowledged without injury to Browning's fame.

The second volume, 'Walt Whitman,' by William Clarke, might not unfairly be described as a socialistic tract in disguise. The author undertakes an exposition rather than a criticism of Whitman, and goes on to make the comment equal the text. The more interesting portion to us is his criticism of America, in which he antagonizes Arnold's somewhat specious dictum that we have solved the political and social problems, but not the human one. Mr. Clarke is of opinion that we have solved none of them. The Constitution broke down, he says, on the slavery matter, the only "serious" political problem we have had; and then loom up, one after the other, in his survey, our "Millionaires' Club," municipal government, luxury, laissez-faire, coal-barons, Pinkertons, etc., a procession as long as *Banquo's* line. The comparison with England is altogether to the advantage of that country. "The capitalist system of America is that of England, only more despotic, ambitious, and less scrupulous. . . . Pinkerton detectives shoot down unarmed men and women, and even children—an incident which could not be imagined in England; and it seems to cause but a ripple of mild protest even from excellent and kind-hearted people." This was written before recent events which must have hardened Mr. Clarke in his notions. But this, notwithstanding certain elements of truth, is a long-distance view, just as is his critical estimate of Whitman as the organ of democratic speech. The truth is that there is far more of idiosyncrasy than of our common national character in Whitman, and he represents America as incompletely as the Chartist poets represented the England of their day. Social agitation, however, rather than literary estimate, seems to be the reason for this book's existence.

Among recent reprints, Mr. G. A. Aitken's edition of Marvell's 'Poems and Satires,' in two volumes of "The Muses' Library" (Scribners) is at once the most tasteful and welcome. The previous issues of the series have familiarized the eye with the beautiful typography and mechanical execution of the volumes. The editor, whose work upon Steele earned him a deserved reputation for minute scholarship and research, contributes an excellent Life of the poet, and adds notes illustrating and elucidating the contemporary references, of the greatest value to the student, particularly in the case of an author so much mingled with his time as Marvell. The character of the severe patriot, as became a friend of Milton, is defended vigorously against recent attack upon him, and, altogether, we have Marvell now, in this edition, not only in a dress befitting a poet of strength and grace strangely blended, but also invested with a personal dignity and manhood befitting the poet of Puritanism.

Mr. Austin Dobson has brought out a reprint, limited to 500 copies, of Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon' (Macmillan), the original edition, including the "Fragment of a Comment on Lord Bolingbroke's Essays." The edition is printed on hand-made paper and bound with simple taste. The editor's work consists of a brief account of the variation between the first and later editions, with the conclusion that the shorter one is the earlier, certain passages being omitted out of consideration to the living; and, besides, he adds several pages of notes of the sort of detail which proceeds from an acquaintance with the literature of the time, as if it were as accessible and inquisitive as the daily newspaper. This antiquary's knowledge, as it were, is nowhere more useful and often entertaining than in the decades of the last century. The sentence of Lowell, that Fielding best exhibits his own personality in the 'Journal,' fitly stands at the beginning of the volume.

We do not rate the critical faculty of William Hazlitt as highly as some recent writers, but the reprint of his 'Lectures on the English Poets' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), originally delivered in 1818, is an interesting specimen of the criticism of that age outside the reviews, and sheds some light upon the temper of the time. As a whole, the work is exceedingly scrappy and facile, reminding one of Edwin P. Whipple in a way, though Whipple lacked the gall of Hazlitt. The free speech in which Hazlitt indulges with respect to his own old acquaintances, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Lamb, would hardly be countenanced to-day except on the score of an eccentric old age, which still has its privilege. The labored distinctions between this and that, contrasting violently with the vague flow of words about poetry and genius, are also of the past. We cannot say more of the lectures than that they are a better sort of review in a time whose reviews are held in no great honor, and that their contents, in point of thought, penetration, knowledge, and that orderliness which proceeds from a trained mind, have been surpassed by scores of volumes written since their day. To the historical student, or to one who has formed a taste for Hazlitt's "bite," they may serve a purpose; but the general reader will not lose anything by leaving them alone.

The fact that our early literature, from 'Beowulf' to Chaucer, has a wide strand of religion in it, has not usually been mentioned

with a view to recommending Cædmon and Langland and their lesser brothers for ordinary recreation or even instruction; but it is just this which has led Prof. T. W. Hunt, whose work has been noticed several times in our columns, and always, we believe, with a fair measure of praise, to devote a volume to these elders who never heard Emerson's new commandment of the Muse, "Thou shalt not preach." Dr. Hunt, under the title 'Ethical Teaching in Old English Literature' (Funk & Wagnalls), has really written an interesting account of the driest period of our literature, and, by availing himself of the antiquarian research of the last twenty years, has a long story to tell. He adds to the value of his summaries by giving extracts from the works of the shadowy figures of the first 500 years of English literature, reckoning from Cædmon; and, gathering vigor from this attempt, he does the same labor of appreciation for the still darkened years from Chaucer to Ascham. He particularly recommends his work to clergymen, but if any one desires a readable account of the most unreadable of mummied literature, he will hardly fare better than with this volume.

'Popular Studies of Nineteenth Century Poets,' by J. Marshall Mather (Frederick Warne & Co.), gathers in a thin volume a half-dozen lectures, originally prepared for workingmen's classes, on Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Byron, Hood, Tennyson, and Browning. They are slight in substance, rhetorical in manner, and very sound in morals. Such lectures, delivered *viva voce* to an interested class, might well be of service in their limited way; but in a book their defects become too apparent, their crudity annoys, and their rhetoric wearies.

The intrinsic value of the newspaper polemics gathered by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford in his 'Essays on the Constitution of the United States published during its Discussion by the People, 1787-1788' (Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club) is naturally inferior to that of Mr. Ford's companion 'Pamphlets on the Constitution.' Still, some of these series of letters are long and carefully elaborated, like Oliver Ellsworth's ("A Landholder"), which fills 64 pages, to say nothing of Elbridge Gerry's and William Williams's and Luther Martin's replies to him. James Sullivan, also ("Cassius"), fills 48 pages. The index is not quite adequate, as may be noticed in the case of William Williams's argument in favor of "putting God in the Constitution" (as the object of our latter-day movement has been called). The few entries under Slavery do not misrepresent the relative rank of this topic among the objections to the Constitution. The animadversions on the Senate fail to discern the peril to State politics of making Senators eligible by the Legislature, and so subordinating the State aspect and function of that body to the Federal, and forcing the State party divisions to coincide with the national. Ellsworth has a just phrase—"The danger of the Constitution is not aristocracy or monarchy, but anarchy." The collection is a valuable recovery of contemporary discussion from out-of-the-way sources.

The Bureau of Education has added three numbers to its series of monographs on American educational history edited by Dr. Herbert B. Adams. No. 11 is the history of the higher education in Michigan, by Prof. Andrew C. McLaughlin; No. 12 a similar history for Ohio, by Prof. George W. Knight and Prof. John R. Commons; No. 13, for Massachusetts, by George Gary Bush. All these are illustrated with views of buildings and grounds.

Still another issue from the Bureau is a long and fervid essay on "Southern Women in the Recent Educational Movement in the South," by the Rev. A. D. Mayo. The topic is one of very great importance. The following passage is pertinent to a recent discussion in these columns: "Up to the actual college age," says Mr. Mayo, "the girls, from the age of ten to eighteen, are already in overwhelming majority in the Southern schoolroom wherever I go." In one of his public addresses (1881) in the appendix Mr. Mayo speaks of "a large body of Southern young women . . . revealing the most intense desire for a superior culture, and the intention to take up the work of teaching with a will, in city or country, in the white *or negro* schools." Has this body ever been discovered by any other observer? There can, we think, be no question that the attitude of Southern white women towards Northern white women come to teach the blacks in a spirit of philanthropy has been the greatest obstacle to the spread and efficiency of these missionary efforts. Mr. Mayo now says, on p. 95, that the teachers from the North do not crave "social recognition," but do long and pray for "sympathy, confidence, and communion with the Christian women of the South for aid in their difficult work."

We can see only a happy innovation on the part of Mr. Arthur Winslow, State Geologist of Missouri, in choosing the folio form for his report on the first sheet of the Survey of that State. This choice was dictated by the sheet itself, which, on a scale of nearly a mile to an inch, represents an area of about 230 square miles, each side measuring a quarter of one degree. The sheet is thus conformable to those of the United States Geologic Survey, and, to avoid on the one hand folding and pocketing, on the other a separate map cover, the flat form is frankly adopted and the letterpress made to correspond with it, the whole making a not unwieldy brochure. The Survey begins in Lafayette County on the line of the Missouri River, and in a rich agricultural and promising coal-mining district, of which Higginsville is the principal town and railroad centre, giving its name to the sheet. This geologic and topographic contour map has been beautifully executed by Julius Bien & Co. of New York. We need not remark on the accompanying report.

Admirers of the humming-birds will find much to interest them in a paper, "The Humming-Birds," by Robert Ridgway, separately published from the Report of the United States National Museum for 1890, pages 253 to 383, having forty-six plates, besides illustrations in the text. Half of the work is given up to generalities—history, distribution, colors, nesting, feeding, and other habits, structure, etc.; the remainder contains descriptions and figures of species found in the United States, Mexico, Cuba, and the Bahamas.

At this year's national competition, held in July, of the 584 schools and classes connected with the Science and Art Department of the South Kensington Museum, London, the women students have met with preëminent success, carrying off five of the eight gold medals, and winning a large share of the lesser honors. More than 67,000 drawings, paintings, and modellings competed, coming from many parts of the kingdom. The rewards gained by the women covered a field so broad as to embrace first places for drawings from the nude and modellings from life, time sketches for figures in low relief, illustrations for children's stories, designs for book illustration, for a stained-glass window representing the nursery tale of the "Babes in the Wood," and decorative designs for textile fabrics, pottery, fans, and laces.

—We regret to learn that the Boston Public Library no longer exercises that discretion which led it, by an enlightened view of its duties and its interests, to grant to persons actually engaged in authorship the privilege of occasionally drawing books, although non-residents. The custom which has been discontinued was a generous one, but it illustrated the liberal public spirit which Massachusetts men desire to have characterize their institutions. It is certainly not far beyond the sphere of a great public library that it should assist literature upon necessary occasion or proper convenience; yet, at present, the loan of a book only for a few hours is refused. It is to the advantage of such a library that men of letters, although non-residents, should be interested in it, and the Boston Public Library profits by that interest; but so strict a rule, enforced in so absolute a way, may well bring in its revenges, if it is understood that literature in the person of its authors must always plead its privilege in vain. It may be that the custom was discontinued through some laxity in granting the privilege; but that a professional author requiring a volume for immediate use for a few hours should be denied, is an incident so unfit to happen in a city justly proud of its eminence as a centre of books, that notice of it may fairly be taken with a view to directing attention to the excessive rigor of the new rule.

—Certainly the most liberalizing event of this year's proceedings of the British Medical Association, just held at Nottingham, was the "extraordinary general meeting" called for the special purpose of considering the motion of Dr. J. H. Galton of London, "(1.) that Article 4 of the articles of the Association be altered by expunging the words 'no female shall be eligible for election as a member of the Association.'" The disabling clause it was proposed to expunge had been added to the original articles by vote of a large majority of the members in 1878. Several suggestive statements and admissions were made during the debate preceding the final vote. Those who had vigorously urged the exclusion of women for the past eighteen years, but who were now prepared to rescind their former votes, defended their action mainly by the fact that as women had, in spite of all opposition, entered the medical profession, it was illogical to continue to refuse them the lesser glory of society membership. The battle had been won by those women who, during the past twenty years, had, however severely handicapped, taken University honors and complied with the requirements of the most exacting medical examining bodies in the world. A barrier, therefore, by which in 1878 over 3,000 men opposed the possible admission of the eight English women then eligible for membership, has been levelled as useless in 1891, when there are in Great Britain 140 registered women physicians, and "more coming" from the schools successfully established for them in London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Dublin. The women having turned the flank of the enemy, graceful surrender was the only policy. The President of the Association presided at the meeting, well supported by the Council, and there was a large attendance of members, of whom much more than the requisite three-fourths voted in favor of Dr. Galton's enfranchising motion. This motion was appropriately seconded by Mrs. Garrett-Anderson, M.D., the soli-

tary woman who had gained admission before the prohibitory amendment was passed at the Bath meeting in 1878—an instance of poetical justice not often witnessed within so short a period as fourteen years.

—*La Réforme Sociale* for August 1 contains a paper on attempts made to cope with the liquor evil in the city of Marseilles. Up to 1871 the evil had not assumed alarming proportions, but since 1875 the consumption of spirituous drinks has increased from about 400,000 gallons to 1,320,000 gallons for a present population of 403,749, making three and three-tenths gallons per head, while the consumption per capita in 1875 was only one and a half gallons; the number of places where liquor is sold has increased during the same time from 2,400, being one dram-shop for 132 inhabitants, to 4,309, one for each 93 of population. In some streets there are three or four liquor-stores next door to each other, in others there are fourteen such places in thirty successive houses; one enterprising dealer has put up an automatic bar, where all kinds of drinks can be had by dropping a two-sou piece in a slot. About six years ago public attention began to be directed to the necessity of doing something to stem the rising tide of intemperance, and various measures of repression were urged upon the municipal authorities; the only one adopted was an increase in the octroi tax, which went into effect in 1889, but which, instead of diminishing the consumption, only increased the revenue. The other measures which had been proposed but not carried out were a diminution of the number of dealers, a vigilant supervision, and the establishment of free laboratories where the poor could have liquors analyzed. Finding that no relief could be had from the constituted authorities, and that private effort was the only alternative, the initiative was taken by the Savings-Bank of Marseilles, of which the author of the article referred to, M. Eugène Rostand, is the President. Such action may not seem, at first sight, to fall legitimately within the functions of an institution of that kind, but it arose from the consideration that the money squandered by the working classes on unwholesome liquors is so much in reduction of their savings, and that the latter will increase if the former can in any way be diminished. During the past five years the amount spent for drink in Marseilles was 84,000,000 francs; to estimate the actual total waste, we should have to add the wages lost through drunkenness, the charges for medical treatment, etc. And, viewing the situation from an opposite side, the savings habit may be cultivated as an antidote to the drink habit: a savings-bank book, once started, is in itself an eloquent temperance tract.

—The measures adopted at Marseilles in pursuance of this idea can be only very briefly indicated here. Naturally they were on a modest scale, being restricted alike by the money means available and by the legal restrictions with which a savings bank is necessarily safeguarded. The bank employed 160,000 francs of its own funds in building model dwelling-houses, with gardens, for workingmen, on the theory that if a man's home is made pleasant for him, he will not spend his evenings and his earnings in the cabaret; it also formed a stock company, with a capital of 250,000 francs, for the same purpose; it began a system of loans on mortgage to workingmen who wished to build their own homes; this led to the formation of the first coöperative building association established in France. A step in another direction was the establishment of school savings-banks with a view to instilling economy in the rising generation. From 198 deposits amounting to a total of 2,221 francs in 1887, the figures rose to 12,640 deposits amounting to 33,324 francs in 1891, and the number of participating schools has grown from 16 to 99; in the present year not only the municipal, but also the private and the church schools have joined. To stimulate the saving of small sums and get them away from the liquor-dealers, stamps are sold, of the value of two cents each, and when ten of them are pasted on a card, they can be deposited, a franc being the smallest amount a savings-bank can lawfully receive on deposit. Further, a series of popular lectures were delivered in different parts of the city, by the young physicians of the hospitals, on the specific diseases and the increased mortality directly caused by alcoholism, thus making an appeal to the selfish, prudential motives; and a very effective pamphlet on the respective effects of the bar-room and the savings-bank on independence, health, and happiness has been prepared and distributed. As all of the measures just enumerated date back only two or three years, they have hardly as yet produced an appreciable result; still, the consumption of liquors in 1891 exceeds that of 1890 by only 700 gallons, while the increase of 1890 over 1889 was 80,000 gallons. It is proposed to continue the good work by forming a league which shall pursue, on a larger scale, the methods already begun, and shall supplement them with more ambitious efforts. It is also proposed to stimulate the courts to a more rigorous execution of existing laws, as, for instance, the law prohibiting the sale of liquor within a certain distance of school-houses, etc., and to promote the enactment of such additional restrictive laws as may seem required. There is no idea of a resort to prohibitory legislation such as we know it.

—'To the Snows of Tibet through China,' by A. E. Pratt (Longmans, Green & Co.), is an account of several journeys of a naturalist in search of rare insects and birds. This object, however, is kept wholly subordinate in his book, which is an unusually fresh and interesting description of regions still very rarely visited by Europeans. To reach his collecting grounds it was necessary to ascend the upper Yang-tze by boat, probably the most perilous navigation in the world. In some of the gorges the boats have to be pulled up rapids by scores of men who crawl along paths a few inches wide on the face of cliffs a hundred feet above the raging waters. The loss of life is appalling, and on certain nights of the year there can be seen "thousands of tiny lighted lamps floating upon the river, offerings for the souls of those who have lost their lives by drowning." Of some of the ravines in the mountains which border on Tibet, Mr. Pratt says that it is quite possible to talk to a man across one of them where it would perhaps take a two days' journey to reach him, "so deep and precipitous are they, and dangerous to traverse." In this region is the sacred Mount Omêi, on whose summit, 11,100 feet high, formerly stood a magnificent bronze temple, now destroyed by lightning. Myriads of pilgrims flock to the spot in the hope of seeing the "Glory of Buddha." Mr. Pratt, who saw this phenomenon, is in some doubt as to its origin. He says "it is apparently the reflection of the sun upon the upper surface of the clouds beneath, and has the appearance of a golden disc surrounded by radiating bars, bearing all the colors of the rainbow. These are constantly moving, and scintillate and change color in a very remarkable manner." The vision excites the pilgrims to such a pitch of religious fervor that many throw themselves over the frightful precipice into the clouds upon which it appears, "their bodies, as a rule, falling upon an inaccessible spur covered with forest, perhaps a mile or more below." Though his journeys were made before the recent outbreaks against foreigners, Mr. Pratt was subjected to frequent annoyances, and at times his life was in some danger from the hostility of the natives. They could not understand his motives in coming among them, and believed him to be collecting children's eyes for magical purposes. Very severe winter weather was attributed to his presence. The Chinese are "a credulous and cowardly race," is his sweeping judgment of them. He makes numerous references to the French missionaries, of whose heroic devotion to their self-denying work he speaks most warmly, though of the measure of its success he gives us no means of judging, except that the Christian natives were his most faithful and intelligent collectors and servants. There are some striking illustrations from his photographs, and three appendices giving lists of the most important parts of his collections.

—Léon Cladel, who died at Sèvres on July 21, was a writer who belonged to that recent past which is always more remote from the present than if it were a century off. The height of bad taste is always the taste of the epoch which has just gone by, and Léon Cladel, who was a Romanticist, with a spice of the Parnassian in him, has had but little to say to readers of the last decade. He was born at Montauban in 1835, and, after he had taken his degree of bachelor in law, came to Paris to seek his fortune. Here he found two useful friends—Baudelaire, who recognized and encouraged his literary vocation, and Gambetta, to whom he was drawn as a child of the Midi and a fellow-Republican. His first novels were socialistic, almost revolutionary. 'Va-nu-pieds' and the 'Martyrs ridicules' are novels whose chief characters are of the oppressed and disinherited of the earth, whose sufferings push them toward revolt rather than towards resignation. His best work may probably be found in his 'Bouscassié' and in 'Montauban-Tu-Ne-Le-Sauras-Pas.' Later he gave himself over utterly to the rhetoric of freak and whim, and became a stylist for style's sake. One of his last performances was a series of newspaper articles, "Images Versicolores," in which he attempted to reproduce, by means of literary style, the sensations of color, light, and motion which certain well-known pictures give. He had also "views" about the consonants which recall Rimbaud's far famed sonnet on the colors of the vowels. This sort of work did not lead him directly to the temple of fortune, and he passed his later years at Sèvres, in a very modest dwelling, surrounded by his children and goats and dogs and fowls, all of whom lived together on a footing of delightful equality. His dogs, however, were said to be somewhat better combed and brushed than he—but this may well be due to some individuality of taste on their part, for, of Cladel himself, the laughers of Paris long ago said that whenever he made one of his rare toilets, he always ended the work by sticking a few straws in his hair. He left behind him more than the laughers—many sincere friends. Indeed, it is likely that many of the laughers were his sincere friends The Paris newspapers treat his memory generously, even tenderly.

JANNET'S CAPITAL.

Le Capital, la Spéculation et la Finance au XIXe Siècle. Par Claudio Jannet. Paris: Librairie Plon. 1892. 8vo, pp. viii, 607.

M. Claudio Jannet's latest book is an important and valuable addition to economic literature, and its value is enhanced by its attractive and readable style—a quality which should secure him a larger audience than is usually reached by writers on this science. M. Jannet is Professor of Political Economy at the Catholic Institute of Paris, and a disciple of Le Play, the founder of the "Unions de la Paix Sociale." He has at ready command the formidable apparatus of erudition which was originally set up by Roscher and now forms the necessary outfit of the veriest tyro in economics; he draws his materials from books, Government reports, reviews, magazines, and newspapers; his citations range from the Fathers of the Church to the *Nation* and the London *Economist*, the latter as late as April 9, 1892. If he had done nothing but bring together from so many sources the useful facts and statistics bearing upon the varied topics he treats, he would have earned the gratitude of all who take an interest in political economy; but, in addition to this, he marshals his materials so as to rear a formidable bulwark against the assaults of socialistic and sentimental opponents of existing institutions. Although his book is in the first instance expository and only incidentally controversial, he never hesitates to express his views on every controverted question, or to grapple with any assailant of what he considers the true doctrine; but however positive his avowal of the faith that is in him, and his condemnation of heretical teachings, he never oversteps the bounds of urbanity.

In his opening sentence he strikes the keynote of his book. Inequality of conditions, he says, is a law of humanity, and is, moreover, necessary to the development of civilization. He quotes with approval the dictum of Le Play that progress has always consisted in eliminating the communal institutions and the communal or corporate guardianship which, under the old régimes, checked the upward soaring of the most gifted individuals and brought them back to the commonplace dead level. Democracy, he continues, while recognizing equality before the law and the equal right of all to share in the government, by no means implies the levelling of wealth. The experience of a century, whether in Europe, America, or Australia, shows the greatest spread of the democratic principle coincident with a large development of inequality of wealth. This state of things he considers no impairment of the condition of the masses, but rather a benefit. Wages are highest where there is most wealth. He recurs to this idea in various parts of his book, and approaches it from various points of view. Thus, in another place, he shows how, in a wealthy community, labor is in continuous demand, and not only better paid, but more sure of steady employment. Capital seeks labor, and, as is shown by the constantly declining rate of interest, contents itself with a steadily diminishing share of the profit. In this way the increased wealth of the upper and middle classes is the direct cause —the mechanical cause, he calls it—of the amelioration in the condition of the working classes. Elsewhere, again, he recurs to another phase of the same thought when he illustrates, by a variety of instances, how the large fortunes gained in modern industry are a benefit to the community. Thus, to select only two or three of the cases he cites, the millions amassed by Bessemer are insignificant when compared with the development he gave to the steel manufacture and with the immense reduction in the cost of transportation resulting from it; Bass, the brewer, is said to have paid a million of dollars in a single year to railroads and steamships for freight charges, so that what he caused others to gain is much more than what he gained himself; many millions of money have been expended, mostly in wages, in experimenting and in perfecting new processes.

All of this, it will be seen, plainly implies a repudiation of Henry George's contention that while the rich grow richer the poor grow poorer, and do not get their fair share of the world's increasing wealth. But M. Jannet directly challenges the truthfulness of the alleged facts on which this contention is based. He maintains, on the contrary, that the improvement in the condition of the working classes is shown in many ways: in countries where there is an accumulation of capital, native workmen disdain the lower kinds of labor and abandon them to immigrants from poorer communities; the British Army is recruited mostly from the Irish, and its moral level is steadily declining; in the building trades in Paris wages have doubled since 1830, while the cost of living has risen only 40 per cent.; the large amounts of money deposited everywhere in savings-banks afford a good indication of this, especially when taken in connection with the evident and vast improvement in the standard of living.

Another assertion of the Socialists, closely allied with that just referred to, is to the effect that the earth could support a larger population if wealth were equally divided. With this also M. Jannet takes issue, saying that its best refutation is found in the rapid growth of the Western populations during the present century, when all barriers to the development of individuality were taken down, as compared with the slow increase of previous ages. He contends that modern luxury, being expended on manufactures, enables a larger population to live and to live better than would otherwise be the case; the demand for luxuries stimulates their production, and cheapens it to such a degree that they presently fall into the category of the necessaries of life and are brought within the reach of the humblest classes. He shows that, even in so glaring a case as the Scotch deer preserves, the keepers and other retainers who get their living from them outnumber the families of the crofters who formerly eked out a miserable existence by raising oats. He adds that the principal causes which prevent population from attaining its possible limits in our time are the expenditure of the masses for tobacco and alcohol, and the destruction due to the wars and the armed peace of modern Europe.

But then, how about the "capitalistic production" which Karl Marx and his followers denounce so violently? Here, too, M. Jannet is ready with facts and arguments. The essential things to be noted are that with the development of industry the share of the profit taken by capital goes on diminishing, while the total amount paid to the laboring class and the amount paid to each laborer go on increasing; that by the employment of costly machinery the productive power of the laborer is vastly multiplied, so that if he receives only one-third of the value of his product, he gets more than its whole value would be in a primitive system of industry; that while a small private manufacturer could not long afford to work at a loss, but would have to stop in bad times and throw his hands out of employment, the rich corporations of our day can and often do run their factories for years without paying dividends, although wages are paid all the time; large profits are now exceptional, and not more frequent than is necessary to tempt capital to incur risks. Karl Marx, however, asserts that a laborer produces in six hours the cost of his keep; the employer makes him work twelve hours and gives him no more than his keep; consequently, the employer robs him of half his earnings and lays it up in the shape of capital, which then goes on accumulating. In this sophism, says M. Jannet, everything is arranged at pleasure to exasperate the laborer, while the facts are quite different, as appears from a number of examples which he enumerates, but of which we can here reproduce only two. In 1888, an exceptionally prosperous year, the earnings of all the French coal mines produced, as dividends and reserves, 1.47 franc per ton, while the miners received 5.04 francs; so that if the laborers had received the entire product, their wages would have been increased 21 per cent., a little more than one-fifth. This would have left nothing for expenditures essential to keep the mines in working order for succeeding years, nor would allowance have been made for 127 mines worked at a loss, against 166 earning dividends, nor for contributions made by the companies to the benefit funds of their employees. In 1889 the railroads of the United States, watered as their stock is, paid in wages and salaries four times as much as in dividends and interest. If only those were kept running that earn more than their operating expenses, what would become of the army of workingmen whose families now actually live on the capital of the foreign stockholders? Evidently the calculation of Marx needs revision. Another consideration which M. Jannet enforces by statistics of the distribution of personal property in various countries is, that a preponderating portion of the great bugbear "capital" consists of the accumulated savings of small people, which, by the modern invention of joint-stock companies, are made available in productive industries. The conspicuous great fortunes, taken all together, form but a small proportion of the aggregate wealth.

Another socialistic bugbear is the "unearned increment," and this is subjected to a similar analysis by M. Jannet. Here, again, we can barely indicate the mass of illustrations which he brings in play. A considerable part of the apparent increase in the value of land in old countries is only on paper, and has only kept pace with the general rise in prices, which is but a disguised expression of the depreciation of the precious metals; another part is due to the decline in the rate of interest, and results from multiplying the annual revenue by a larger coefficient. According to Mr. Giffen, the selling price of land in England was eighteen times a year's rent in 1679, twenty-two times in 1766, and thirty times in 1880. Of the instances of great actual increase of land values cited by Henry George, many are due to the application of capital in reclaiming swamps, etc. The present revenue of landed property in Europe is less than the interest on the capital sunk in permanent improvements in the past 200 years. There is also another side to the question. Along with an increase of values in some places there has been a decided decrease in others. In New England, New York, and Pennsylvania the depreciation in farm lands during the last fifteen years is as high as 50 per cent. Buying real estate for

a rise is a legitimate speculation. To the charge that private ownership in land is founded on conquest and violence, M. Jannet replies that the present owners are in very few instances the descendants of the original conquerors. Since the tenth century the nobility of France, England, and Germany, with the exception of a very small number of historic families, has been entirely renewed at least three times. The class below the nobility renews itself even more rapidly. It is a physiological fact that families in the higher social strata are less productive than those below them, and tend to die out unless they intermarry with the latter. This process is continually going on, and tends to a fusion of races in each community, and to a downward diffusion of inherited wealth along with an upward diffusion of wealth acquired in trade.

Lack of space prevents even a mere mention of the many topics treated in this book with interesting historical and other illustrations. The functions of banks and of exchanges; the services rendered by speculation in affording a ready barometer of values and keeping fluctuations of prices within narrower limits than prevailed before existing systems were organized; the futility of legislative attempts to prevent or restrict dealings in futures and in options, as shown by their frequent failures and abandonments; the demonstration that legitimate commerce would be impossible without speculative contracts, that every owner of any kind of property has a right to hold it for a rise, while, on the other hand, those who sell commodities for future delivery act in the interest of the consumer by preventing an undue rise in prices; that combinations to raise prices unduly, unless supported by protective tariffs, are doomed to failure through the abundance of capital seeking profitable investments; that financial abuses can be better left to the operation of natural laws than remedied by special legislation—all of these matters and many others are more or less elaborately handled by M. Jannet. He gives accounts of the financial history of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, of the origin and present constitution of the stock-exchanges and clearing-houses of the world, as well as of such isolated occurrences as the rise and fall of the copper syndicate. He devotes a good deal of intelligent attention to American affairs. In regard to the silver question, he says that gold has become the universal international money, while silver is only the small change of rich countries and the interior circulating medium of poor ones, such as India, China, and Russia. No international agreement would avail to keep up a fictitious ratio between the two metals which does not respond to their actual relative value; and there is no prospect that the leading European States will ever agree to make the experiment. The constantly growing use of banking facilities and clearing methods enables the existing stock of gold to suffice for a much larger number of transactions than formerly, and there is no danger of a scarcity of money. For silver there is a wide field of usefulness in countries like China, where it has a great future in providing for the internal commerce of 400,000,000 of people.

M. Jannet's book would be most valuable for reference if it only had an index, but it may be recommended even for continuous reading. The next time he appears in print we wish him a proof-reader who can look after the spelling of American names.

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—II.

The Founding of the German Empire by William I. By Heinrich von Sybel. Translated by Marshall Livingston Perrin, Ph. D., of Boston University, assisted by Gamaliel Bradford, Jr. Vols. III., IV., V. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1891-92.

NAPOLEON'S whole attitude during the spring of 1866 is explained by his desire, primarily, to see war declared between Prussia and Austria, and, secondarily, to secure as even a balance of forces as possible between the combatants. Greatly overrating the strength of Austria and underrating the strength of Prussia, he believed that the support of Italy, or at least a military diversion on her part, was necessary to protect Prussia against overwhelming defeat; the more because the minor States of Germany were sure to side with Austria. It seemed to him not unlikely that Prussia would ultimately need France's help as well as Italy's, in which case French demands for compensation could not be refused. For this reason Napoleon seems to have been little troubled by his failure to obtain definite pledges from Prussia. He considered a decisive Prussian triumph impossible. When the impossible occurred at Königgrätz, he found himself in a position of great difficulty. Austria at once ceded Venice to France. She thought that Napoleon, with this province in his hand, would at least be able to quiet Italy, and she hoped that he would intervene actively in her behalf. Napoleon's Foreign Minister, Drouyn de Lhuys, advocated the latter course. He proposed at once to place 200,000 men on the German frontier and force Prussia to conclude peace on terms satisfactory to France. Lavalette objected: France had approved the alliance between Prussia and Italy, and it would be an act of bad faith to intervene against them. Moreover, the French Army was not in a condition to make such an intervention effective. Napoleon rejected the proposals of Drouyn de Lhuys and confined himself to diplomatic pressure upon Italy and Prussia. But Italy, her national pride stung by the defeat at Custozza and the offer of Venice as a gift from Napoleon, proved unexpectedly recalcitrant. She refused the gift absolutely, and marched into the disputed province. Prussia accepted the French offer of mediation, but declined to agree to any armistice until the terms of peace were settled. The Prussian troops were pushed energetically forward upon Vienna. Drouyn de Lhuys again made warlike proposals, which were again negatived by Napoleon. Goltz, the Prussian ambassador in Paris, opened negotiations with Napoleon touching the terms of peace with Austria. These negotiations ended in an agreement, two weeks after Königgrätz, that Austria should be excluded from Germany, but should lose no territory except Venice; that Prussia was to annex three or four millions of souls in North Germany, including Schleswig-Holstein, but not including Saxony; that all Germany north of the Main was to form a confederation under Prussian control, and that the South German States were to form an independent confederation. Napoleon recommended to Austria the acceptance of these terms, and on these terms the preliminary peace of Nikolsburg was concluded.

According to Von Sybel, Bismarck did not originally desire to annex so much North German territory. He would have been satisfied with a Prussian hegemony, provided it had extended over all Germany. But as Napoleon insisted on the independence of the South German States, Bismarck conceded this point. It was perfectly obvious that Napoleon expected to exercise a protectorate over Southwestern Germany, to create a new Confederation of the Rhine; but Bismarck was confident, and with reason, that he could defeat this scheme. In return for the concession of South German independence, Bismarck demanded and obtained the annexations in North Germany. In case Napoleon resisted these demands, Goltz was instructed to threaten that Prussia would proclaim the revolutionary constitution of 1849 and rouse all Germany to a national war. At the same time he was to sound Napoleon as to his willingness to accept compensations elsewhere than in Germany.

Bismarck did not find it easy to persuade King William and the military men to accept these terms of peace. They wished for annexations from Austria; they demanded at least a part of Saxony. But the European situation was critical. There was always the danger of armed intervention on the part of France, and there was also a prospect of diplomatic interference by Russia. The Czar, allied with many of the smaller German houses as well as with the Hohenzollerns, was growing restive. France was inquiring more and more impatiently just what her compensation was to be, and Russia was talking of a European Congress. King William finally yielded to Bismarck's representations and agreed to the treaty of Nikolsburg. But the anxiety of these weeks had been so tense that Bismarck's nerves were almost unstrung. When he returned to Berlin and took part in the triumphal entry, he looked like a man just risen from a long illness.

With the peace of Nikolsburg the fruits of victory were at least temporarily housed, but by no means secured. Fortunately for Prussia, Russia and France could not act in unison. Russia desired to protect the smaller German States, and for this purpose she naturally proposed a European Congress. France, however, desired advantages for herself which could not well be obtained from a Congress, and therefore declined to support the Russian proposal. Under these circumstances the Czar did not press the matter; and, receiving satisfactory assurances concerning his special protégés, Hesse-Darmstadt and Würtemberg, with pledges of Prussian support in the question of the Black Sea, he withdrew all opposition. The French demands for compensation were staved off as long as possible, Bismarck continuing his famous "dilatory" tactics. But when, on the 5th of August, these demands became categorical and were backed by threats, Bismarck as categorically refused them. The compensations asked for were the frontier of 1814, as against Prussia; the Bavarian and Hessian provinces on the left bank of the Rhine; the separation of Luxemburg and Limburg from the German Confederation and the withdrawal from Luxemburg of the Prussian garrison. In narrating the episode of August 5, a few years later, Bismarck said that Benedetti threatened war, and that he replied: "Very well, then war." French authorities have disputed the accuracy of this résumé of the conversation; Von Sybel maintains its essential correctness. According to Bismarck's notes, written immediately after the interview, he declared to Benedetti that if France insisted on her demands, Prussia would immediately conclude a final peace with Austria on terms more favorable to the latter Power than those of Nikolsburg; would take measures to unite all Germany; would throw 800,000 men across the Rhine and recover Alsace. The interview terminated without

any modification of the French demands, but they were immediately afterward withdrawn by Napoleon. He had been seriously ill at the time they were formulated; his assent had been extorted by his Foreign Minister, and he now repudiated the latter's action. Drouyn de Lhuys of course resigned his portfolio.

During this time Bismarck had been negotiating treaties of peace with the South German States. After thoroughly frightening them by demanding large cessions of territory and heavy war-indemnities, he let them off very easily, in consideration of secret compacts of offensive and defensive alliance—compacts which gave the command of their troops in case of war to the King of Prussia. By these arrangements Napoleon's schemes for a new Confederation of the Rhine under French protection were frustrated in advance, and a long step was taken toward the unification of all Germany. The advantages thus secured by Prussia far outweighed the alternative gains of territory which she abandoned; yet the abandonment of her original demands figured in the simultaneous negotiations with Russia as an important concession to the wishes of the Czar. In the negotiations with Bavaria, Bismarck used the French ultimatum of August 5, with dramatic effect. He had demanded from Bavaria the cession of her Franconian possessions north of the Main and an indemnity of 30,000,000 gulden. Bavaria appealed to France and received assurance of French support. Bismarck thereupon revealed to the Bavarian Plenipotentiary, Von der Pfordten, the fact that Napoleon had proposed, a fortnight earlier, to annex the Bavarian Palatinate. He then offered to abandon all cessions and to reduce the indemnity if Bavaria would accept the Prussian alliance—an offer which Von der Pfordten at once accepted with enthusiasm.

In this same anxious month of August, the final treaties of peace with Austria were under negotiation. There was more than one moment when a harmonious adjustment of the differences (between Austria and Italy especially) seemed doubtful; and at one of the most critical junctures new French demands for compensation made their appearance (August 20). This time it was Saarlouis, Landau, and Luxemburg, with the further suggestion that Prussia and France conclude a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance, guaranteeing to the former her German conquests and to the latter Belgium. Bismarck rejected the demand for Landau and Saarlouis, but dallied with the proposals concerning Luxemburg and Belgium until the situation cleared again and the treaty with Austria was signed (August 23). On the 29th of August Benedetti handed Bismarck a draft of the proposed treaty of alliance, providing for the annexation of Belgium. An immediate answer was not demanded, and no answer, it seems, was ever given. Napoleon had apparently discovered at last that Bismarck had been playing with him for two years, and that nothing was to be gained by further negotiations. The next important episode in the Franco-German diplomacy arose from the attempt of France, in 1867, to buy Luxemburg from Holland; but this falls outside the limit of Von Sybel's narrative.

Just before the outbreak of the Austro-Prussian war, Bismarck had injected into the controversy—by a sudden impulse, as it seemed then, but really in pursuance of a long-considered policy—the question of the reorganization of the German Confederacy. He proposed the direct election of a German Parliament by the German people. This was the dearest desire of the great majority of the nation, but no one believed that Bismarck's proposal was made in good faith. No one believed that the minister who had been ruling for nearly four years with only a small minority of the Prussian Diet on his side, could really mean to accord parliamentary power to the German people. But before the first shot was fired, Bismarck showed that the better constitution of Germany was not only a serious aim with him, but the very centre and soul of his policy. Schleswig-Holstein dropped into the background. When the Prussian representative in the Diet pronounced the old confederacy dissolved, he emphasized at the same time the essential unity of Germany, and declared it to be the purpose of his King to reëstablish this unity on new and firmer foundations. The ultimata sent to the minor German States called upon them to accept an alliance with Prussia for the formation of a stronger union with a popular parliament. During and immediately after the war, treaties to this effect were concluded with all the States north of the Main save those marked for annexation; and in 1867 a North German Parliament, elected on the basis of manhood suffrage, discussed, amended, and adopted the Constitution of the new Germany.

Before this Parliament met, Bismarck had closed the conflict between the Crown and the people of Prussia. In spite of the strenuous opposition of his Conservative friends, in and out of the Cabinet, the Prime Minister persuaded the King to ask the Diet for a bill of indemnity, covering the extra-constitutional action of the Ministry during the preceding four years. The result of this conciliatory measure was the disintegration of the parliamentary opposition; the formation of a new party, that of the National Liberals; and the creation of a working majority for the Government in both the Prussian and the German Parliament—a majority that remained substantially unbroken for the next ten years.

In estimating Von Sybel's sympathetic and appreciative delineation of the first four years of Bismarck's ministerial career, we should remember that during these years the historian stood in the front rank of the parliamentary opposition. To readers familiar with the history of the period, no explanation is necessary either of Von Sybel's opposition then or of his approval now. No German who was at once a Liberal and a Unionist, as all the best intellects and warmest hearts of the generation were, could at that time support Bismarck. They could not dream that the Tory Squire whom the will of the King had placed at the head of the State was destined to realize their aims. They knew nothing of the now famous Frankfort despatches; they did not know how Bismarck had chafed for years under the Austrian pretensions; they did not suspect that he had outgrown the traditions of the Holy Alliance. They opposed him because they did not understand him; and as it was impossible for him to reveal his real aims, they continued to oppose him until they suddenly awoke to the fact that he had been doing their work in the teeth of their opposition. To this group Von Sybel belonged, and this is the story of his change of attitude. But it is nevertheless remarkable that he has been able to write the history of those years with such objective calmness. Some of the men who stood at his side in the Opposition, and who after 1866 went over with him into the new governmental majority, still maintain that the solution of the German question by their old enemy was an afterthought; that Bismarck's prime object was to strengthen the royal authority and destroy every vestige of constitutionalism in Prussia; and that it was only because he had got himself and the King into a blind alley that he fought Austria and unified Germany. We are not surprised that Von Sybel gives no countenance to this conception of Bismarck as statesman *malgré lui;* but it is remarkable that he has so completely suppressed the natural impulse of self-justification, particularly when the justification is so easy. He so nearly effaces himself that even a careful reader, if unacquainted with the German politics of that day, would hardly suspect his attitude prior to 1866. Only in one or two instances, where it is a matter of historical record, does his name appear, and then without comment.

There is nevertheless one point in which it seems to us that Von Sybel's presentation of Bismarck's diplomacy takes color from the historian's earlier point of view, when Bismarck was supposed to entertain the customary Tory predilection for Austria. During the years preceding the armed conflict, Von Sybel represents Bismarck as hesitating, with an open mind, between three lines of policy: that of ruling Germany conjointly with Austria, that of dividing the hegemony by a geographical line, and that of expelling Austria from Germany. There is doubtless much evidence in Bismarck's own despatches and reports to support this theory, and it accords admirably with the progress of events. During 1863 and 1864 Prussia and Austria did, as a matter of fact, rule Germany jointly. As often as the harmony of their joint rule was disturbed by the underlying antagonism of their real interests, the idea of a divided supremacy crops out—notably in the suggestions of Gablenz, which, as we have seen, Bismarck approved. But it seems to us that there are strong reasons for taking a different view of Bismarck's ultimate aims—of his esoteric policy, if we may use the expression. It may well be, as Von Sybel declares, that at a given moment Bismarck would have preferred a smaller measure of success in concert with Austria to a greater measure in opposition to that Power; but this is only saying that he would have taken a smaller gain without the cost and risk of a war. It is always to be borne in mind, too, that Bismarck had to do everything with and through the King, and that King William unquestionably had a strong predilection for Austria and preferred the Austrian alliance to any other; that it was with keen regret that he saw the breach between Prussia and Austria widen in 1865 and 1866; that it was with great difficulty that he was brought to accept the Italian alliance and the war. The principal facts, however, which it is not easy to harmonize with Von Sybel's theory are the express and unreserved declarations of Bismarck himself. Before he became Minister-President he had said, in his Frankfort despatches, that Prussia's justifiable ambitions could not be realized in concert with Austria, or without a victorious contest with Austria. In a speech before the North German Parliament, March 13, 1867, he stated that he had formed this opinion while he was at Frankfort. In 1850, he said, he entertained the hereditary political views of all Prussian Conservatives; but when he got "behind the scenes" at Frankfort, he discovered that the traditional policy of concert with Austria was "impossible." It does not seem probable to us that Bismarck changed his views in the period between these declarations. It looks a great deal more as if he had been engaged, during the first

years of his premiership, in educating his monarch up to his own point of view; in showing King William, by actual experiment, that concert with Austria was indeed impossible; and in so shaping facts that their logic would be decisive where his own arguments were inadequate.

It is not impossible that our author is unconsciously influenced, in his treatment of this question, by the existing political interests of his country. The alliance with Austria is today so vital a part of Germany's foreign policy, that it is not easy for a German historian to set forth the historic antagonism between Austria and Prussia in all its bluntness. There is a natural tendency, in the interest of present harmony, to attenuate the older differences.

Von Sybel's fifth volume brings the narrative, as we have said, down to the end of the year 1866. In a sense the work finds here a natural close, for the Empire was really "founded" at that time. When the South German States came into the new union, and its name was changed from Confederation to Empire, there was no essential change in the constitutional organization. But there are indications in the structure of the fifth volume that the author does not intend to close his work definitively at this point. The narrative is arrested rather than rounded off; and with a writer of Von Sybel's literary instinct the difference is significant. Let us hope that the public may look forward to further volumes setting forth the history of the years from 1867 to 1871 with the fulness, clearness, and finish which characterize the present work.

Of the demerits of the translation we expressed our judgment in reviewing the first two volumes; and we can find, unfortunately, no reason to modify our opinion. The translators do not know the technical vocabularies of German law and politics. They seem to be aware of their ignorance, indeed, for we observe in these later volumes an increased tendency to avoid the translation of technical terms, even where there exist substantial English equivalents, and to substitute vague circumlocutions, in phrasing which they are commonly guided by the context. When not embarrassed by this difficulty they show a fair acquaintance with the German language and its ordinary idioms, and the mistakes which they make seem due to haste and carelessness.

Memorials of Edinburgh in the Olden Time. By Sir Daniel Wilson, LL.D., F.R.S.E., President of the University of Toronto. 2d ed. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan & Co. 2 vols. Pp. xxii, 282; xiv, 316.

THESE very handsome volumes come into the world under peculiar circumstances. More than fifty years ago the author, then a young man, began a series of notes accompanied by drawings of such ancient memorials of the Maiden City as time and vandalism called Improvement had spared; the worst vandalism, called Restoration, was then just beginning. He tells us that when a publisher was found to take the burden of introducing his book to the world, he cheerfully contributed to the loss, under the supposition that he was retaining the copyright; caused a copy to be interleaved, and began filling it with fresh drawings and notes, with a view to a second edition. He was just about to prepare the latter for publication when, to his utter surprise, he found the copyright had expired, and an unauthorized reissue was on the market, with editorial notes purporting to point out such changes in the city as had taken place since the original edition, but often falling absurdly short of such an engagement.

Not only thus, but the edition of 1847 and the authorized reprint have been freely drawn upon by later writers on Edinburgh almost as a work inspired, and the very blunders perpetuated as history or at least immemorial tradition, to the great amusement of the venerable President. Misled by an heraldic ornament in St. Giles's Cathedral, he had formed the inference that the aisle where it stands was erected as an expiatory memorial to David, Duke of Rothsay, whose horrible fate is familiar to readers of the 'Fair Maid of Perth'; he even ventured to construct for it the romantic and legendary name of the Rothsay aisle. Subsequent study has convinced him that his conjecture had no sound basis. But other writers, carried away by the ingenious presentation of the former view, have transferred the romance to the region of fact, and spoken of the structure as traditionally called the "Rothsay aisle," a name which Sir Daniel assures us cannot be found earlier than his edition of 1847. In like manner, he allowed his fancy to wander into various ballad versions of events in Edinburgh annals, of no more historical force than Macaulay's "Armada" or Drayton's "Agincourt"; but these again duly appear interwoven with contemporary accounts as traditionary ballads.

The two beautiful and not too costly volumes of the new edition are enriched not only by the author's latest observations, corrections, and drawings, but by treasures from other sources, duly acknowledged, particularly the very characteristic pencillings of that caustic genius, Charles Kirkpatrick Sharp. Antique plans and views also occur, and the crowning mercy of an index is not wanting. We deeply regret that space does not allow us to make extracts from this beautiful and authentic treatise. The author, surviving both pirates and plagiarists, and in an honored old age presenting these noble volumes not only to his countrymen, but to all who love the "streets of High Dunedin," has, even while this notice was preparing, passed beyond the reach of congratulation. Every cultivated man, every well-read woman, nay, in decently regulated countries, every intelligent child, has an Edinburgh of his own; and each and all will find something for themselves in Sir Daniel Wilson's book.

Phases of Animal Life Past and Present. By R. Lydekker, B.A. (Cantab.). Longmans, Green & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 248, illustrated.

FEW writers are as competent as Mr. Lydekker for work like this, a series of essays, in popular style, treating of the animal life of the past and of the present, with their relations to each other and to the questions of origin. These articles were first printed in the pages of *Knowledge*, from which they are reproduced with some modification and additional illustrations. They relate to vertebrates almost entirely, and are but indirectly connected by their evolutionary bearings. Each is complete in itself; together they form a strong addition to the literature of descent.

Because of its real merit the book deserves popularity. Little can be urged against it by those who favor particular theories, since no prominence is given to theoretical considerations. How the different theories are regarded is not easily determined. Apparently the author, with most osteologists and palæontologists, recognizes in use, disuse, habits, surroundings, etc., factors of more importance than the selection of Darwinians. Some mystification arises from the use of *for*, where others might use *by*, as in the case of an organ modified for a particular purpose, an animal modified for a life in the water, organs originally modified for a purpose (flight) subsequently undergoing a kind of retrograde modification for a totally different use, some that undergo structural alteration simply for the purpose of swimming, and others that are gradually more and more modified for the exigencies of a purely marine life. There are traces of a belief in plan or purpose preceding the fact, or of belief in special interpositions. Cetacea are said to have been developed to fill the gap left in the life of the ocean by the Ichthyosaurs and Plesiosaurs. Mention is also made of aquatic habits acquired so recently that they have not had time to induce any strongly marked structural peculiarities, and of resemblances between Ichthyosaurs and whales that are to be explained by their similar conditions of life.

The subjects are varied, but the tendency in all is to set forth modifications and to trace lines from the early extinct to the living forms. The comparisons with which the work abounds give it a value much beyond that of an interesting statement of facts. In single chapters the range is considerable: that on mail-clad animals discusses fishes of various times and kinds, crocodiles, tortoises, glyptodonts, armadillos, and pangolins, and that on flying animals deals with insects, fishes, reptiles, birds, and mammals; a proper distinction being made between the spurious flight of fishes and the true flight of birds. Occasional expressions might profitably be changed. Flying squirrels are said to make a sharp, squeaking cry, and phalangers to be silent, during flight. We can confirm the squeaking of the squirrels when several desire to keep together, but not when a single one is desirous only of escape. Egg-laying in monotremes is treated as if a recent discovery. The advantage of the upright position and leaping progress of the kangaroo is said to be that the young can be more safely carried in the pouch. "An advantage" would be better in this place; as it stands, the implication is that the erect posture and leaping gait were taken on simply for the purpose, as the author would say, of keeping the young from falling out. A neat protest against needless disturbance of nomenclature appears in the statement, "It may be worth mention that some of those naturalists who are never satisfied with a name, unless it be one for which they are personally sponsors, have proposed to replace the well-established name of labyrinthodonts by that of stegocephalians, or roof-skulled saurians—a term sufficiently appropriate if no earlier one had barred the way to its adoption." A doubtful attempt is made to fix the name turtle upon marine species and restrict the name tortoise to land forms. Turtle is usually looked upon as a corruption of tortoise; as such, its synonymous use has become so firmly established that change is hardly possible. To follow the author, we get our tortoise-shell from turtles, and much of the turtle-soup from tortoises. All of the snapping-turtles become tortoises. The confusion in these names began three centuries or more ago. Early in 1600, tortoises, turtles, and turkles were terms used in referring to the same species. Tortoise, however, would seem to have official recognition for the marine forms, as is seen in an act of 1620 "Agaynst the killinge of ouer young Tortoy-

ses." "Semblably, tortoises live in two places, and haunt both land and waters" (Holland's Pliny, 1634, 'Nat. Hist.,' ii, page 431).

Selections from Lucian. Translated by Emily James Smith. Harper & Brothers.

EVERY now and then somebody born to the English tongue rediscovers Lucian, to the amusement of those to whom Lucian is a familiar spirit; and almost always that somebody makes the public pay to witness the rediscovery. Sometimes it is an edition for the fabrication of which nothing later than Reitz is used. Sometimes it is an essay such as Mr. Froude wrote when he stumbled on "Alexander, or the False Prophet," and found out that there were Cagliostros in the second century. Sometimes it is a volume of "Ancient Classics for English Readers" in which "the original Latin" of Suidas is cited and extraordinary liberties are taken in the rendering of Lucian's original Greek. A few years ago we had occasion to notice a poor translation of some of Lucian's dialogues, and now we are favored with a dainty volume of 'Selections from Lucian' by Emily James Smith, whom one would be only too happy to accost with the civility of a prefix in accordance with Mr. Andrew Lang's precept and example, if one were able to divine whether it is maid or matron who has undertaken the task of rendering some of Lucian's riskiest pieces and stepping daintily, after the manner of an egg-dancer, over the improprieties of the "Cock" and the "Ass."

The translatrix knows her Greek well enough to do this—knows it better than some of her masculine rivals. An idiom is pretty sure to call forth an idiom, the airy tone is well preserved, and the success in putting the direct Greek into conventional English is sometimes remarkable. Only to those who know the original the success sometimes comes perilously near to a double meaning, and a double meaning is much worse than calling a spade a spade, if one may use a trite saying to which Lucian himself gave currency. But even the "Lysistrata" of Aristophanes has been translated into language that would not shock the most fastidious, so that the feats of this translatrix cannot be regarded as unparalleled *tours de force*, especially as she has availed herself of the right "to omit words, sentences, or even whole passages that would offend modern taste." That the audacious "Ass" had to be cut and not bridled merely, is not surprising, and even the merry "Cock" had to be mutilated towards the end; but in the latter piece, by a sad slip, reference is made to the omitted scene, and the reader without the Greek before him or the Greek in mind must be sorely puzzled by the allusion "to the wealth of Eukrates," whose improper conduct has been unceremoniously suppressed.

The enormous literature that has gathered about Lucian, the translatrix treats in the same airy fashion in which she accosts her main task. She gets rid of the question of Lucian's Greek by comparing it with the *pastiche* of 'Henry Esmond,' or 'The Master of Ballantrae' — an utterly misleading comparison; and she has very little patience with "footsore Erudition," the egg-dance aforesaid being much more to her taste. She laughs at Jakob's "diverting attempt to wrap Lucian in respectability," as she would doubtless laugh at the thought that there was any meaning under the fooleries of Rabelais. Croiset she knows, or knows of, but maliciously spells him with a *z*, and makes her selections at her own sweet will, Croiset permitting or not. The "Halcyon" she includes, though "the critics regard [it] as probably not by Lucian," but she does not deign to notice that the authorship of "Loukios" is hotly disputed, and that Rohde "has been forced to abandon the defence of the Lucianic or "Loukianic" origin. In "Toxaris" Lucian is hardly at his best, to say the least; but that is a matter of taste. Like most of those who have dipped for the first time into the literature of the second century, the translatrix has overestimated what she calls "the enormous reading" of Lucian. One of the most remarkable things about the Greek Renaissance is the limited range of reading, which even then seems to have been made up of "Elegant Extracts." But the translatrix might invoke the authority of Kock, who thinks that Lucian is a mosaic of disjected lines from the lost comic poets, and no lover of Lucian would like to have a controversy with one who enjoys her author so thoroughly as does the translatrix of the 'Selections from Lucian.'

Leone X. e la sua Politica. Florence: Barbèra. 1892.

IN this volume Francesco Nitti presents the results of his investigations among hitherto unpublished documents and correspondence of the Medicean period. His purpose is to unravel, first, Leo X.'s policy towards Lorenzo and Giuliano de' Medici, and, second, that pope's intrigues in the contest between Charles V. and Francis I. for the supremacy of Europe. Both of these matters have been the cause of great difference of opinion; indeed, the posthumous reputation of Leo X. has suffered almost as many vicissitudes as has that of Scottish Mary or Henri Quatre. Up to the early part of this century, it was usual to extol him as a modern Augustus, under whose wise and ardent patronage arts and letters flourished; then his vices and selfishness were made prominent by historians; and, finally, Signor Nitti comes to show how Leo, in politics at least, had higher aims and more shrewdness than his disparagers have hitherto allowed. According to Signor Nitti, dynastic ambition was not the foremost motive of Leo's career. Admitting that he threw the weight of his office on the side of his brother Giuliano and his nephew Lorenzo in their efforts to establish themselves at Florence and Urbino, it is still possible to construe this interference as the expression of Leo's desire to extend the power of the Papacy—an assumption which has stronger confirmation in his dealings with Charles and Francis. His course throughout the famous election of the Emperor in 1519, and his subsequent secret compact with Charles, display considerable political acuteness, and seem to have been actuated by his loyalty to the institution of which he was the guardian. So long as there was doubt whether France or Spain would win the ascendant, Leo played fast and loose with both; but when he saw that victory was turning towards Spain, he sided with Charles, in the hope of securing the support of the destined master of Christendom. Signor Nitti hints that Leo expected to free Italy from the domination of both France and Spain, and thereby to strengthen the grasp of the Holy See upon the Peninsula.

This book deserves to be read by every one who realizes the importance of the first quarter of the sixteenth century as a turning point in the politics of modern Europe. From that time dates international diplomacy; from that time appear, vaguely but surely, the theory of the European equilibrium, the attempt on the part of the chief European nations to prevent any one Power from lording it over all the rest. It was the epoch when statesmen, in the modern sense, sprang up: Maximilian in Germany, Francis and his astute father-in-law, Louis XII., in France; Charles V., in Spain; Wolsey, in England; Julius II. and Leo X., in Italy. Machiavelli dissected with a surgeon's dexterity the principles underlying that statecraft, and Signor Nitti now furnishes evidence that Leo X. was not the least subtle in that remarkable group. It would have been well had he printed in an appendix the most important of the unedited documents upon which he bases his argument, but as he promises to publish them in a separate volume, readers may soon have a chance to examine them for themselves. One other improvement we would suggest for his next edition: he should give not merely the title, but the volume and page of the authorities to which he refers in his footnotes. His work seems sufficiently noteworthy to warrant its translation into English.

Games, Ancient and Oriental, and How to Play them; being the Games of the Ancient Egyptians, the Hiera Gramme of the Greeks, the Ludus Latrunculorum of the Romans, and the Oriental Games of Chess, Draughts, Backgammon, and Magic Squares. By Edward Falkener. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

WHOEVER shall undertake a general history of games will find this book of Mr. Falkener's most useful. Just what it contains can be seen from the elaborate title-page. Its chief interest lies in the fact that the author believes that he has discovered how the Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans played certain games which have hitherto puzzled all students. There is an element of conjecture in his reconstruction, of course; but his argument is convincing, and he has at least devised a working hypothesis, for he has made out a game which it is possible to play with interest, "which satisfies the conditions of the texts and of the paintings and sculptures," and which is unlike existing games, although akin to them. He gives the rules for playing *ludus latrunculorum*, the game of *senat*, the game of the *bowl*, and the game of the *sacred way;* and a fly-leaf informs us where the boards and men may be purchased for those of us who shall desire to gamble as the Egyptians gambled full five thousand years ago. Now that the very old game of *parcheesi* has been revived, there is no reason why *senat* should not also find popular favor again.

Many of Mr. Falkener's chapters are enriched with brief bibliographies, an excellent characteristic of the book. Like most British bibliographical work, however, these are deficient in references to American authorities. In the bibliography of magic squares, for example, there is no mention of the late President Barnard's writings on the subject contributed to a Columbia College periodical. But in discussing *senat* Mr. Falkener gives due credit to Dr. Carrington Bolton for his investigations. Mr. Falkener's book is abundantly illustrated with woodcuts and with photographs, both of the ancient games and of the Oriental. Especially interesting are the illustrations which accompany the paper on *parcheesi*. Chess-players will find much that is new in Mr. Falkener's discussion of the methods of playing this most fascinating of games—in China and in Japan, in Burmah, in Siam, and in India. Altogether, his essay can be recommended to all who are interested in the subject of it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrie, J. M. An Edinburgh Eleven: Pencil Portraits from College Life. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Black, G. A., and Carter, K. Natural History Lessons. Henry Holt & Co. 54 cents.
Caine, Hall. Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon: A Manx Yarn. Appletons.
Collins, Mabel. Morial the Mahatma. Lovell, Gesterfeld & Co. $1.25.
Cox, Mrs. M. McI. Jack Brereton's Three Months' Service. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Dickens, Mary A. Cross Currents. Appletons.
Dumas, A. The Count of Monte Cristo. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Gordon, H. P. The Land of the Almighty Dollar. Frederick Warne & Co. $2.50.
Hardy, G. E. Five Hundred Books for the Young. Scribners. 50 cents.
Hyde, W. DeW. Practical Ethics. Henry Holt & Co. 89 cents.
Marsden, J. P. Job Lot: Sketches and Stories. Philadelphia: Hallowell & Co.
Matthews, B., and Jessop, G. H. A Tale of Twenty-five Hours. Appletons.
McClellan, W. B. The Official Register of American Yachting. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Montgomery, D. H. The Beginner's American History. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Moorehead, W. K. Primitive Man in Ohio. Putnams. $3.
Muller, Mrs. Donizetti. Links from Broken Chains. C. T. Dillingham & Co. $1.25.
Musick, J. R. Estevan: A Story of the Spanish Conquests. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Nichol, Prof. John. Thomas Carlyle. [English Men of Letters.] Harpers. 75 cents.
Nitti, Francesco. Leone X. e la sua Politica. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Orcutt, Hiram. Home and School Training. New ed. Boston: Thompson, Brown & Co. $1.
Plummer, Charles. Two of the Saxon Chronicles, Parallel. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Poynton, A. B. Cicero pro Milone. Part I. Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pratt, A. E. To the Snows of Tibet through China. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Ralph, Julian. On Canada's Frontier. Harpers. $2.50.
Rathborne, St. George. The Colonel by Brevet. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Rickoff, Rebecca D. A Supplementary First Reader. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Robert, Paul. Zur Heerschaft der Seele. Leipzig: Otto Wiegand.
Russell, Dora. The Other Bond. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Schubin, Ossip. The Hand of Destiny. Worthington Co. 25 cents.
Schultz, Jeanne. Jean de Kerdren. Appletons. $1.50.
Shaw, Prof. E. R. English Composition by Practice. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Sidgwick, Alfred. Distinction and the Criticism of Beliefs. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Smith, Goldwin. A Trip to England. New ed. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Spencer, H. The Principles of Ethics. Vol. I. Appletons.
Stevenson, R. L. A Footnote to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa. Scribners. $1.50.
Trumbull, M. M. The Free Trade Struggle in England. 2d ed, revised and enlarged. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Tucker, G. J. Legends of the Netherlands. Concord Coöperative Printing Co.
Wagner, C. Jeunesse. Paris: Librairie Fischbacher.
Westland, Albert. The Wife and Mother: A Medical Guide. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 25, 1892.

The Week.

IT is a fact of common experience in this country that a switchmen's strike is the ugliest of all strikes and the one most difficult to deal with. The Buffalo strike has been in keeping with all that we know about these affairs. The New York Central switchmen "went out" not because of any grievance of their own, but because the others went out. The Buffalo and Pittsburgh men struck and the company acceded to their demands, but they refused to go to work until the Erie and Lehigh Valley Companies should yield to their men. All this would be endurable if the men would go about their business and leave other people and other people's property alone. But this they will not do. No sooner do they "go out" than they organize themselves as brigands, and proceed to burn and wreck and kill and maim wherever an attempt is made to operate the roads that they have abandoned. They must be put down, they must be made to suffer the consequences of their riotous acts, but that ought not to be the end of the affair. These railroad interruptions ought to be made impossible. So many interests are affected by a stoppage of traffic that the State ought to intervene in some effectual way to insure the continuous and regular movement of trains. The Railroad Commissioners of this State pointed out the need of such legislation several years ago, and showed the equity as well as the necessity of it. Of course, men cannot be compelled to work on railways more than in factories against their will, but they can be, and should be, required to give reasonable notice of their intention to quit, so that their places may be filled and the movement of traffic continued. The employers should be equally required to give notice of intention to "lay off" any hands in their employ. Railway and telegraph service should be made subject to army discipline, the obligations being mutual between employer and employed. *A fortiori* the forcible stoppage of trains by hands who have discharged themselves from service without a moment's warning, and even after their demands had been complied with, should be dealt with in the most summary manner with all the power of the State.

President Harrison's proclamation fixing a toll of twenty cents per ton on Canadian freight passing through the Sault Ste. Marie Canal is moderate in tone and also in the amount charged for the transit. The Canadian Government appears to have been in fault with respect to the British Legation at Washington, as well as in other ways, for the Chargé, Mr. Herbert, was not informed of the decision to continue the rebates till the end of the present season until our Government had obtained the information from our Consul-General at Ottawa. This is all the more remarkable since Mr. Herbert was using all diligence to obtain the facts for both his own use and that of Secretary Foster. The Canadian Government has behaved like a coterie under the control of Montreal shipping merchants, and yet anxious to avoid an international difficulty, the result being a sort of "confession and avoidance." If the rebates are justifiable under the treaty, there is no reason why they should be abolished at the end of the present season. If they are not justifiable, there is no excuse for continuing them till the end of the season, and no reason for doing so except to put money in the pockets of the Montreal shippers aforesaid. It is still possible for the Canadian Government to solve all difficulties by either abolishing the rebates to Canadian vessels, or giving the same rebates to American vessels during the remainder of the present season of navigation. The only objection to this course apparently is that it would be another confession that they were in the wrong. But having made one such confession when they proposed to change their policy at the end of the season, the additional one can make no great difference. The season of navigation on the Canadian canals ends on or before November 15. Consequently there is but little more than two months' winnings for the Montreal shippers in any case. Is it worth the while of Premier Abbott to have trouble stirred up and to run the risk of a rebuke from the home Government for so small a mess of pottage?

Judge McCormick of the United States Circuit Court, sitting in Texas, gave a decision on Monday of very great importance to the railroads and to all the inhabitants of the country. The decision denies flatly the assumed power of a State Legislature to regulate rates of freight and fare through the mediumship of a board of railroad commissioners, if by such regulation the rates are made so low that the company cannot pay its own debts. Such regulation is held to be a law impairing the obligation of contracts. The text of the decision is not before us, but its practical import is to make the courts judges of the fact in question, whether the rates fixed by the Railroad Commissioners are too low for the purpose or not. It is evidently based upon the decision of the Supreme Court in the Minnesota cases. The State of Texas has been in a seething condition for some years on the subject of railway charges. Distances are great, population sparse, and railway operation costly. The only thing in the railway situation of which there is an over-supply is demagogues. These, headed by ex-Senator John H. Reagan, procured the passage of a law in April, 1891, creating a Railroad Commission of which Reagan became the leading member. The Commissioners were empowered to establish rates, and, since they represented only one of the parties to the bargain (the shippers), they put the rates low enough to satisfy their constituents. The railroads applied first to the Commissioners for relief, and of course got none. As they could not bring an action in the United States courts directly, the trustees of certain mortgages, representing non-residents, brought suit for an injunction to restrain the Commissioners from enforcing their arbitrary rates, upon the ground that such enforcement would disable and prevent the companies from meeting the interest on their bonds. The injunction was issued on Monday according to the terms of the petition.

Evidence accumulates that the Republican managers want to unload the Force-Bill issue, and are experimenting to see if they can do so. Last month Henry Cabot Lodge, who gave his name to the proposed legislation on this question in the last Congress, delivered his opening speech of the campaign—a long, elaborate, and carefully prepared address—and said not one word on the subject. On Wednesday of last week ex-Speaker Reed delivered his first speech of the campaign at Portland, and while he was voluble enough regarding silver and the tariff, he was as silent as the grave about the Force Bill. These are extraordinary performances on the part of such men as Lodge and Reed, and very short-sighted as well. Such silence does not help the case of the Republicans at all, because nobody believes for a moment that it signifies anything beyond their desire to deceive the public. Lodge, and Reed, and the rest of them might much better stand up like men.

The ex-Speaker had some very blunt and contemptuous references to those ingenious and latter-day "McKinley-prices" editors and orators who are trying to make out that the higher tariff lowered prices. He frankly gives it as his opinion that what has "kept prices down" is the "fact that the greediness of importers overstocked our markets." But he thinks the manufacturer ought not to give up hoping for higher prices, inasmuch as he "knows that the goods cannot be imported at such large profits hereafter, and therefore he will have more chance for the American market." At the same time, Mr. Reed warns the manufacturers that the "thing of all things desired by the human being is lower prices," and that

those prices are bound to come in the long run. But he makes no pretence that a high tariff will be their cause, which he very sensibly finds in "human ingenuity harnessed to business" and the "competition of the United States with the whole world." With great emphasis he assured his hearers that in that competition lay their "certainty of lower prices and higher wages." It would be interesting to learn from Mr. Reed, in one of his franker moments, his real opinion of the tariff which destroys that competition, so far as possible, and which therefore, on his own principles, must tend to produce high prices and low wages.

Senator Hoar says in his campaign letter from Paris that the Democrats deny in their platform the existence of any power in the Government to help manufacturers. Oh, no. There is a manufacturer well known to Mr. Hoar who says that he should be greatly helped by a repeal of the duties on coal and iron ore. His name is Ames. He was Governor of Massachusetts a few years ago, and is now a leading Republican politician. There are several hundred manufacturers in Massachusetts who agree with ex-Gov. Ames on this point. There are others who say that a repeal of the duties on wool would assist manufacturers. Congressman Stevens is one of these. Senator Hoar knows him very well. Now, the Democratic party offered to help manufacturers during the recent session of Congress by repealing the duties on wool, but Mr. Hoar and his allies in the Senate would not even consider the bill. Is not Mr. Hoar as big a tariff humbug as he is a Force Bill humbug?

The Democratic Convention in Iowa on Thursday was large, enthusiastic, and harmonious, indicating that the party is still in as hopeful a condition as when it carried the State in the last two elections for Governor. No Governor is to be chosen this year, but several minor State officers are to be elected. The most important State issue is still the question of regulating the liquor traffic. The Republicans are trying to dodge it by making no reference to the subject in their platform, in pursuance of a policy of silence which has been adopted by the managers throughout the West. On the other hand, the Democrats pronounce again for the doctrine of license and local option, and pledge themselves to the enactment of laws which shall give the people in their respective localities the management and control of the liquor traffic. It is much more creditable for a party to have a definite policy on such an issue, and it will be strange if it does not prove more advantageous also. On the tariff issue in national politics the platform is equally outspoken and emphatic.

Chief-Justice Morse of the Michigan Supreme Court, whom the Democrats of that State have nominated for Governor, is a man well qualified for an executive position, but it may be doubted whether it was good policy for the party to take its candidate from the bench. The Constitution of the State provides that no judge of the Circuit Court shall be eligible to any other than a judicial office during the term for which he is elected, and for one year thereafter, and that all votes given for such judge for any such (inhibited) office or appointment, whether by the Legislature or the people, shall be void. No mention is made of Judges of the Supreme Court, but of course every argument which applies to the lower court has equal weight in the case of the higher; and while there is no legal prohibition of Mr. Morse's candidature, it is morally forbidden by the plain intent of the framers of the Constitution. The feeling against going to the bench after a nominee for a non-judicial position is very strong in this country, and seems to be growing stronger. It is not wise for a party to fly in the face of it.

The *Iron Age* publishes a table, which it has obtained from Senator Carlisle, showing the cost of production and the selling price of tin plates in Wales during the years 1887–1891 inclusive. It appears that the cost of production ranged from 11s. 10d. to 13s. 4d. per box, showing an extreme variation of 1s. 6d., but the selling price ranged from 12s. 6d. to 17s., a variation of 4s. 6d. The great rise in prices took place in the latter part of 1890 and the beginning of 1891, when the maximum figure of 17s. per box was reached. This was caused by the rush of American buyers to get stocks accumulated before the McKinley tariff should take effect. During the twelve months ending June 30, 1891, there were shipped to the United States 9,259,490 boxes at the advanced prices. The average advance above the normal quotation could not have been less than fifty cents per box during that year. In other words, the McKinley Bill turned an extra profit of at least $4,600,000 into the pockets of the Welsh manufacturers in one year's time at our expense. These manufacturers showed no more inclination to divide the profit with their workingmen than ours do. The rate of wages remained unchanged till the middle of 1891, when there was an advance of about 10 per cent.

A correspondent inquires what proportion of the tin plate used in this country is made here at the present time. None, we think. About 1 per cent. is the figure if we count as American tin plates the British black plates imported and tinned here. The importation of these plates in the whole year ending June 30, 1890, before the McKinley Bill went into operation, was only 2,298 pounds. It shot up to 5,418,522 pounds in nine months ending March 31, 1892, and during this time the Treasury Department reported a manufacture of 5,240,830 pounds of American tin plate, showing that there remained at that time 177,722 pounds of British black plate to be tinned. The duty on black plate is $1.65 per 100 pounds, while on tin plate it is $2.20 per 100 pounds. This affords a fine chance for profit, at the expense of the consumer, since tin-plate dipping is scarcely more complicated than dipping one's self in the ocean on the Jersey shore. The annual consumption of tin and terne plates in this country is about 680,000,000 pounds, and the tax paid on it either to the Government or to private individuals is close upon $15,000,000.

The imagination of the public is from time to time dazzled with figures showing the enormous return upon money invested in land in the city of New York a generation or two ago—figures over which the disciples of Henry George writhe in agony. These calculations, however, generally fail to take into account the deductions which have to be made from such returns. Thus a real-estate journal recently stated the case of four lots, three of which were bought in 1852 for $4,500, and the other in 1860 for $2,550, a total of $7,050. They are regarded as now worth $40,000 apiece for the three inside lots, the corner being worth considerably more. The property, however, has been, we judge, wholly unproductive, and if any one chooses to calculate what $7,000 would amount to during the period covered, if invested at compound interest, and to add to this sum the amount of the taxes and assessments paid, also with compound interest, it will appear that the occupation of owning land is not attended with such exceptional profit as is frequently represented. Considering the high rates of interest prevalent until recently in this country, and the expensiveness of our city government, it is speaking within bounds to say that unproductive land ought to have increased from 10 to 12 per cent. in value every year to have been as profitable as other investments.

A cable telegram says that the British delegates to the International Monetary Conference are instructed not to discuss any proposals which involve a change in the monetary system of England, nor to give their assent to any plans whatever, without the assent of the Government. The scope of their powers is limited to proposals under which India might join an influential group of States in adopting bimetallism at a fixed ratio. In case such an arrangement should be effected, the Bank of England would be advised by the Government to keep one-fifth of its legal reserves in silver, as its charter authorizes. These preliminaries are almost identical with those with which England entered the conference of 1881. They are absolutely null as regards any participation by England herself in bimetallism. They foretell the failure of the Conference, because Ger-

many, who looks upon the whole thing as a bore, will say that she can do nothing without the coöperation of England, and Austria will say that she can do nothing without the coöperation of Germany, and so on. The Conference will then naturally fall back on Senator Jones of Nevada, who will, no doubt, go prepared for any emergency.

The reported dissatisfaction of the Radical wing of the Liberal party with the make-up of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet appears to have no real justification. Mr. Gladstone again and again pledged himself in Parliament and in his campaign speeches to give home rule the first place in the Liberal programme, and if any body of voters supported him on the understanding that he would not do what he had promised, they have only themselves to thank for their disappointment. The surprising and tricky thing would have been the choice of a Cabinet which was not constituted primarily to carry home rule. Moreover, the Radical Liberals who want to see reformatory legislation for England—revision of the electoral and land laws, for example—have no reason to complain of the assurances given them by the new Prime Minister in his speech on the no-confidence motion the other day. He said as plainly as possible that he would not consent to the dissolution of Parliament until, in addition to the passage of a home-rule bill, it had given due attention to important measures of reform for England. It thus comes down simply to a matter of the offices and "recognition," and we should say that the Radicals could not afford to put themselves in the attitude of caring more for some figure-heads in the Cabinet than for the particular items of reform legislation which they are in a fair way to secure as it is.

Aside from the home-rule bearings of the personnel of the Cabinet, the most important appointment is that of Earl Rosebery as Foreign Secretary. It is likely that many delicate international questions will confront the new Government, and it is essential that the foreign policy of the United Kingdom should be conducted not only on careful and conservative but on continuous lines. To such a policy Earl Rosebery has publicly committed himself, and it is not to be expected, therefore, that there will be any new departures in Egyptian affairs or anywhere else. One exception, however, the new Secretary may well make to his announced purpose to follow the lines marked out by his predecessor. We refer to the long-standing territorial dispute with Venezuela. When Minister for Foreign Affairs in the foregoing Liberal Cabinet, he had made a definite agreement to submit the controversy to arbitration; but when Lord Salisbury came in, he repudiated the agreement, on account, we believe, of some fancied personal slight. It would be fortunate if the negotiation could now be put back where it was before and a peaceful settlement of a troublesome question arrived at. Earl Rosebery has been said by an admiring fellow-Scotchman "not to be stupid enough to be a great man." It remains to be seen if his alertness and humor will not save him from blunders into which a more ponderous man might fall.

An important question in regard to an author's rights is involved in a case recently passed upon in the English courts. In 1886, Mr. Sidney Lee, the well-known editor of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' sold the copyright of his Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury to a London publisher, who issued it in that year. Since then the copyright has been sold to another publisher, who brought out the work this year in a mutilated form—the entire preface and several passages being omitted. Action was brought to restrain him from putting the volume on the market in that form. The author contended that the publication in the abridged form, without any intimation that it was an abridgment, was damaging to his reputation, as was also the placing of the date 1892 on a work written six years earlier, inasmuch as it gave him the appearance of having neglected material brought to light in the interval. The Justice held that he could not pass upon the moral question involved, though he pretty plainly intimated his opinion that the publisher had violated the proprieties, but decided that "there is no law compelling a man to publish the whole of the work because he has the copyright on the whole." But the question of injury to an author's reputation was distinct, he held, and for such injury the remedy is an action for libel. Mr. Lee, however, declined to pursue the matter further, as he had already accomplished his main object, which was to show publicly that he washed his hands of the book in its new form, and so the case was dropped. It was made clear, nevertheless, by the language of the Court and by the testimony of distinguished publishers called for the plaintiff, that an action for libel could have been maintained successfully; and thus the case will, after all, serve as a warning to publishers against too free cutting and hacking of an author's work.

The subject of State insurance has naturally been prominent in the discussions of the Economic Science section of the British Association, the President, Sir Charles Freemantle, examining the operation of the German law, and considering the arguments advanced in England in support of a similar scheme. His conclusion is highly unfavorable to any plan of the kind. The law is extremely odious in Germany, and a movement to effect its repeal is said to have started in Bavaria. Moreover, the mutual-aid societies have ceased to exist, or have been greatly crippled, while dishonesty has been fostered by the requirements of the act. As to France, the bill brought forward by the Government last year appears to have succumbed to the destructive criticism of the economists, for nothing more has been heard of it. As to the English schemes, the President condemns that of Mr. Charles Booth for the enormous cost of administration which it would involve and for the openings it would offer to fraud; and like objections apply to modifications of this scheme. On the other hand, Sir Charles Freemantle was inclined to give up the idea of Government help and intervention altogether, and he cited instances where the abolition or reduction to a minimum of out-door relief had produced the best results. If the methods adopted in these cases were universal, it is probable that the number of paupers over sixty years of age could be reduced one-half.

One of the many advantages of protection over free trade is well known to be the ease with which, after having triumphantly shut foreigners out of your market, you can let them in by means of commercial treaties. Free-trade countries have no concessions to offer, and so can hope to secure none, and are thus left in the wretched condition of getting all their imports free and cheap without the consolation of a single treaty to raise the price of some of them. Recent diplomatic negotiations of France with Switzerland and Spain would indicate, however, that even the course of protection does not run so smooth as we have been assured that it would in the matter of reciprocal trade arrangements. France offered Switzerland her minimum tariff in return for most-favored-nation treatment, and the Swiss were quite ready to strike a bargain on that basis, provided only that they could get a little shading from the minimum tariff on certain articles—embroideries, silks, clocks and watches, etc. But this was altogether horrifying to the French. Their minimum tariff was a sacred thing, the very rock-foundation of their whole protective system, and not a flake could be chipped off of it. Meanwhile, the Spanish negotiators were making a very similar reply to French demands. Spain had offered minimum tariff for minimum tariff, but no, said the French, your minimum tariff is quite outrageous in several particulars, and we shall have to have reductions on as many as sixty-five articles before we can consider the exchange a fair one. To this Spain would not listen, asserting that her minimum was absolutely minissimum, and there the negotiations hang, leaving these two high-protection countries in almost as helpless and ridiculous a plight as unhappy and treatyless England.

RIOT AND PROTECTION.

THE extraordinary spectacle presented to the American people during the past week of four States of the Union with their militia in whole or in part simultaneously in the field to suppress riots and prevent bloodshed, ought to win the attention of thoughtful citizens to some of the deeper causes of the phenomenon. No form of government nor fiscal policy in modern civilization can boast of freedom from labor troubles passing into violence. The spirit of trades unionism is essentially monopolistic and prescriptive, and has often shown itself as lawless, if not as audacious, as in the recent outbreaks. Yet it remains a fair subject of inquiry whether this intolerant temper of labor organizations, and their determination to break down and destroy all competition, have not been aggravated, if not justified, in this country by the dominant course of our national legislation.

Everybody has been interested in the details and development of these gigantic strikes, but only a few have given a second thought to contemporaneous occurrences which are really as significant as the strikes and help to explain them. Last week, for example, an invoice of rugs and carpets was refused a landing in this city by our customs officials, and had to be shipped out of the country. It appeared that they were the manufacture of convict labor in Austria. We have a law which forbids the importation of convict-made goods. This is a law we glory in, as showing our tender care for our own workingmen: we will not subject them to competition with convicts. Out in Tennessee, the miners say they will not be subject to such competition either, and proceed to shoot any one who says they shall. Why should we condemn in them the thing which we commend in ourselves? If they are executing our own teaching, and bettering the instruction in the way rude men have of making laws with rifles instead of lobbying a bill through Congress, what occasion have we to be so greatly astonished?

Probably not a week has passed since the McKinley laws went into effect that attempts have not been made, and usually with success, to get imported goods put into the highest possible classification so as to lay as heavy a tax upon them as possible. But a few days ago, for example, there was great rejoicing over the failure of a certain firm to get through a large invoice of unfinished dress goods at a low rate. This was a victory for home manufacturers and working people. The tariff is designed to keep our laboring classes from competition with those of other countries. The work of this country is theirs, and no one else shall have a share in it if we can make laws stringent enough to prevent it. If that policy, long avowed and now wrought into our legislation, is not a direct endorsement of the monopoly-loving and competition-hating spirit of trades unions, we should like to be told why not. The Homestead workingmen agree with the Tennessee and Idaho miners and the Buffalo switchmen in carrying out the doctrine of protection to its logical results—only, as they are not fortunate enough to control the law-making power, they have to break heads and wreck cars and burn stockades instead of passing tariff bills.

This cannot be dismissed as mere surmise. The workingmen themselves hold language which shows whence they get their inspiration. The Homestead men flatly say that if protection is for their benefit, they mean to have it, peaceably or forcibly. John Jarrett calls for a law forbidding one employer to pay lower wages than another in the same business, all in the interest of the protective principle. Grand Master Switchman Sweeney has the jargon to perfection. He stands for the elevation and protection of labor. His men are Americans, accustomed to the American scale of wages and living, while the wretched beings whom the companies would put in their places are debased and pauper foreigners, whose competition is ruinous and cannot be endured. So it is all through. The laboring men of this country have been so long assured that they have rights and privileges with which no others can be allowed to interfere, that it would be a special wonder if they had not laid the lesson to heart and begun to make all sorts of logical applications of it. Protection is not responsible for trades unionism; but it is responsible, if any reliance can be placed upon human testimony and reasoning, for the lengths to which trades unionism has gone in this country—for its vehement assertion of the right and justice of monopoly, for its treatment of a competitor as a public enemy, and particularly for the arguments with which it seeks to sustain its course.

The home market for manufacturers has been so long and earnestly preached that it is not strange to find workingmen crying up the need of a home market for labor. A striking letter from a correspondent who declared himself "a workingman, a protectionist, and a Republican," appeared in the *Tribune* of August 8. In it the following pointed queries were put:

> "Does not competition control the price of all products, natural and artificial? If competition does so control products, does not competition also control the price of labor? If competition controls the price of labor, what protection has the workman of to-day under the law known as the McKinley Law, outside the increased demand for labor by the introduction of the new industry known as the manufacturing of terne and tin plates? Is it not a fact that the workmen's share of protection is decided by the competition among them for places to work, the same as the quantity of manufactured or natural products of a like kind is decided by the number of purchasers for a given quantity for sale? Is the law excluding the Chinese from the country constitutional? Presuming it is, would not laws prohibiting other nationalities also be? Would not a tariff placed on immigration be a direct protection to the workmen, and, in fact, their only protection, except that voluntarily given by the employers of labor?"

The writer added his conviction that "our platform would be many thousand votes stronger did it advocate a tariff on foreign emigration." The editor endeavored to soothe this troubled inquirer, and to prove to him that such a tariff "has not yet been found necessary," by asserting that wages have risen in spite of unlimited immigration; but we fear the logical mind will not be put off in that way. If wages have risen with immigration, how much higher they would have gone without it. Besides, if the principle is admitted, as it virtually is by the *Tribune* in its "not yet," why not apply it and make the tariff really "symmetrical"?

Political principles have an ugly way of extending themselves, however carefully their inventors may try to restrict their application. If monopoly is good for employers, it will be hard to make workingmen think it is bad for them. If competition is deadly to the former, the latter cannot be wrong in trying to escape from it. In short, if manufacturers have had full swing with protection for thirty years, it ought not to surprise them if workingmen are demanding their turn and insisting upon their understanding of the great doctrine.

LIGHT ON THE LABOR PROBLEM.

To a superficial observer, the events of the last few months in this country might seem to indicate that the "labor problem" was further from solution than ever. But the darkest hour is just before dawn, and, in spite of the violence of the recent outbreaks, there are many reasons for supposing that an era of comparative peace may be at hand. The most important of these reasons is the change in the course of the civil authorities. In previous labor troubles they very generally neglected their duties from political cowardice, and the labor organizations came to count upon such delay in maintaining order as gave them a great advantage in their contests with their employers. But the military force has been so promptly called out and so effectively handled this summer that comparatively little property has been destroyed by rioters, and the knowledge that the whole power of the State will probably hereafter be exerted to prevent the interruption of business will tend strongly to discourage the turbulent. Hitherto, it might almost be said, the attitude of the Government has been such as to put a premium upon violent methods on the part of strikers and their sympathizers, but there is every indication that that day has passed.

This change in the conduct of the executive officers of government is due to a change in public sentiment. There has been no diminution in the amount of sympathy for manual laborers, or in the desire that they should improve their condition in every way possible. But there is far more discrimination exercised upon the subject than formerly. Strikes and boycotts are looked upon with increasing disfavor, as

tending to injure laborers rather than to improve their condition; trade unions are now seen to be organizations of dubious character, attempting to get advantages for their members at the expense of outside laborers, and there is a general recognition of the truth that many of the hardships of laborers are due to their own misconduct. Indeed, one of the more intelligent of the labor leaders is reported as saying that the failure of their movements was due to the number of rascals among the labor organizations. Upon the whole, it may be said that the presumption has ceased to be in favor of laborers in their controversies with their employers; the public now will know what their claims and what their methods are before granting its sympathy.

It would be an interesting research to disinter the newspaper judgments of a few years ago, at the time of the strikes on the horse-car lines in this city, for instance, and compare them with the current newspaper opinion; but the same lesson is taught by a more recent occurrence. At the outbreak of the Homestead troubles, the New York *World* took it for granted that the popular demand would be for fierce denunciation of employers and violent support of "labor," and shaped its course accordingly. But it found that the *Sun*, which had seen the error of its former ways and most vigorously assailed "labor" and defended the employers, was gaining a great advantage over it, and it has within a short time entirely changed its tone. Over the outbreak at Buffalo it roars as gently as any sucking dove. Hardly anything could be more significant of the real state of public opinion than this change of newspaper policy.

The resumption by the civil authorities of their normal function of keeping the peace operates in another way unfavorably to the campaign plans of organized labor. It removes their great grievance, the employment of "Pinkerton's men." It is true that this was a purely sentimental grievance, as it could make no difference to rioters whether they were shot by Pinkerton's men or by the militia; but still it was a grievance. They are now reduced to complaining, in behalf of the taxpayers, of the expense of supporting an army of soldiers; but as they objected to the employment of Pinkerton's men, who were hired by private persons and cost the taxpayers nothing, it is evident that their real ground of complaint is not the character or cost of the force that keeps the peace, but the fact that there is any such force employed. The taxpayers, having in mind the bill that was presented to them in Pennsylvania on account of the work of the mob in 1877, will probably dispense with suggestions from this quarter. However this may be, if our governments, as now seems probable, are going to do their duty hereafter, Pinkerton's men will disappear with the necessity that called them into being, and organized labor will have to win on the merits of its own case, and not through the odium of the defensive measures of the employers.

Since such a change has taken place in the disposition of the executive officers of Government, is it unreasonable to suppose that legislatures may be found to be more amenable to reason than hitherto? There is much talk of the difficulty of "solving the labor problem," but so far as solving the problem of strikes upon railroads is concerned, there is no difficulty about it except what is caused by the Government. The public interest requires that a railroad engineer or fireman or trainman should not abandon his work without reasonable notice. This is not a matter that affects railroad managers and their men alone, and there is no constitutional reason why the State should not regulate it. As it is, a railroad company may make a contract with a man that he shall not leave its service except after due notice, but the State practically refuses to enforce the contract. The company may of course sue the man for damages if he breaks his agreement, but the remedy is worthless. Let the violation of such a contract be made a misdemeanor, and we shall have an end of these outrageous interruptions of the business of the country.

Even without this remedy the law of conspiracy might be invoked, but it is not a suitable remedy for the evil, and its application would be difficult and unpopular. Where employers have dealt directly with trade unions in making their contracts for labor, and these unions have struck in violation of their agreement, it would seem that actions would lie against them, and that, as they have funds, judgments might be collected. One such judgment would be a most valuable lesson to laborers, teaching, what very many of them ignore, that contracts fairly entered into cannot be broken with impunity. But, as has been often urged, the proper remedy for the particular disorder from which the railroads suffer is suggested by their legal status. The State controls them, prescribing what they shall charge and how they shall conduct their business. Being thus creatures of the State and its agents, the State can prescribe the terms upon which employees shall be engaged, and in the exercise of its police power it can make it an offence for any employee to obstruct traffic by unreasonably leaving his work before the term for which he contracted to labor has expired. A short time ago such a law could not have been passed, but it is evident that the public are now ready for it, and the party that has courage to adopt such a measure will find that it has abundant popular support.

THE BALLOT IN MISSISSIPPI.

THE Constitutional Convention which met in Mississippi two years ago devoted the larger share of its time and thought to the consideration of means for eliminating the ignorant negro vote. The method finally adopted received the hearty support of ex-Gov. Alcorn and ex-Chief-Justice Simrall, who represented the white Republicans, and of Isaiah T. Montgomery, an ex-slave, who represented the colored Republicans. The object of intelligent men, white and black, Republicans and Democrats, was clearly stated at the time by ex-Gov. Alcorn, who wrote:

> "The Convention was called with a view of devising some means of putting a check in the text of the Constitution upon ignorance and corruption. The people felt the sting of the North in the continued charge of forcible domination in the South of the ballot-box. The desire to free themselves from this charge, which they felt in some degree to be true, and the wish to devise some means more in accord with civilization and statesmanship to save themselves from the impending ruin, led to the calling of the Convention."

Mr. Montgomery, who was a member of the Committee on Suffrage, concurred in its report, which was adopted by the Convention. Its main feature was the requirement of an educational qualification and of the prepayment of a poll-tax in order to entitle a man to vote. It was expected that this would result in an immense reduction of the negro vote, as the larger part of the race are too ignorant to pass the educational test, and many of those who could pass it do not care enough about voting to pay $2 for the privilege. Mr. Montgomery agreed with ex-Gov. Alcorn and ex-Chief-Justice Simrall that it would be better for all concerned if the members of his race did not vote until they knew enough to read the Constitution, and were interested enough in the suffrage to be ready to pay a poll-tax.

The first registration under the new Constitution has recently been completed, and it shows that the negro vote has been as fully eliminated as was expected and desired by the colored and white Republicans who helped to frame it. The number of whites registered is 68,127, and the number of negroes only 8,615. The colored males of voting age number about 147,000, while there are only about 110,000 whites of the same class. In other words, only one negro in every seventeen is registered, while two whites out of every three are on the list. Although there are many counties in which the negroes greatly outnumber the whites, there is not a single one where the colored vote this year will be more than "scattering."

Some Republican organs in the North are complaining that it is not fair to allow Mississippi her present representation in Congress and in the Electoral College while her number of voters is so small. The Springfield (Mass.) *Union*, for example, says that the 76,742 registered voters of Mississippi are represented in the Presidential election by nine electoral votes, while the 335,747 in Massachusetts are represented by only fifteen electoral votes, so that each elector in the Southern State represents 8,527 voters, while

each in the Northern stands for 22,383 voters. "Thus," it says, "a Mississippi voter has nearly three times as much influence in the election of a President as a Massachusetts voter." The *Union* says further:

"We have no quarrel with the educational qualification in Mississippi. Fairly administered it would be a good thing, and would promote education. But we do object to this relic of the old slaveholder's claim that he should be allowed to represent the slave population in Congress and in the election of President. If the white voters of Mississippi are determined not to accord civil rights to the negroes, the whites should not be allowed to represent the negroes. The North has been cheated in this way about long enough, and it is time that we had a little of the English Liberal principle of 'one man, one vote,' in this country."

Republican organs which talk in this way do not appear to understand the basis upon which representation in Congress, and therefore in the Electoral College, is fixed by the Constitution. Section 2 of Article 14 provides that "Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed." It is not a question of the possible number of voters, or of the actual number; it is simply a question of the actual number of persons—men, women, and children. There are proportionally a great many more women in Massachusetts than in the newer States of the West, but that does not affect the representation of the State in Congress. If nine out of every ten men in the State to-day were to leave it, and the same number of women came in their places, the State would still have the same number of votes in Congress and in the Electoral College, although not one of those women could cast a ballot for either representative or President.

In asking how many Congressional and electoral votes Massachusetts and Mississippi shall have when a new apportionment is made, as by the last Congress, the question is not how many males each State has who do vote or may vote, but how many men, women, and children (excluding Indians not taxed) it has. It is, indeed, true that the Constitution provides that when the right to vote is denied to any of the male inhabitants of a State over twenty-one years old who are citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, "the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens, twenty-one years of age, in such State." But this provision has no applicability to such regulations as those in Massachusetts and Mississippi, requiring a citizen to pass an educational test and pay a poll tax before voting, any more than to the regulations in this State which prevent a man from casting a ballot unless his name is on the registry list a certain length of time before the election. The State does not deny a man the right to vote when it tells him that he must learn to read, or that he must pay a tax, or that he must go through the process of registration, in order to exercise it, so long as any such regulation applies to all men, as is the case in these respects in Massachusetts, New York, and Mississippi.

Undoubtedly the present situation in Mississippi is abnormal and exceptional. It is also certain to be temporary. The time will come when most of the negroes will learn to read and will care enough for the suffrage to pay a two-dollar tax for the privilege of exercising it. Until that time comes it is the opinion of the wisest Republicans in Mississippi of both races that it is best for the State that the negroes should not vote, and outsiders may well accept their judgment as to the matter.

HARRISONIAN FOREIGN POLICY.

THE break of the Republican party with the college professors of the country on the tariff question is, of course, easily explainable on the theory of their contamination by English literature and British gold. Why they should also differ with the great Republican lights on questions of international law is not so clear. The fact remains, however, that as soon as the professors come to pass upon the acts and attitude of President Harrison's Administration which relate to foreign affairs, they concur in condemning both the decisions arrived at and the legal arguments upon which those decisions are made to rest. Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey, who holds the chair of International Law in Yale University, is the latest to join the unpatriotic ranks. He has an article in the last number of the *Yale Review* entitled "An Inquiry concerning our Foreign Relations," in which he demonstrates, as we are sure he will soon be told by high Republican authority, his unfitness not only for such a professorship in any American institution, but even for the position of international law editor on any great American paper.

His "Inquiry" is a perfectly dispassionate examination of the facts and the law, without a trace of political bias or allusion. He begins by referring to the unusual number of "controversies with foreign Powers which have arisen of late," and says that "the question has presented itself whether one main cause has not led to all of them, and if so, whether this does not indicate a change of foreign policy." He then proceeds to an analysis of the actions and contentions of our Government in the Bering Sea controversy, in the Barrundia affair, and in the various phases of the Chilian dispute. In every instance he cites undisputed facts and the recorded legal arguments of the Administration, and simply asks whether those arguments are in accord with the general principles of international law.

In the controversy over sealing in Bering Sea, he says that "the real question" is whether its regulation can be established by this country "through force as a matter of right." Our famous contention that we "own" the seals, he dismisses by laying down the doctrine that "wild animals unenclosed" "can be owned by nobody." And the pet *bonos mores* of Messrs. Blaine and Phelps he rather contemptuously describes as "a meaningless phrase, upon which no rights of capture can be founded." The whole case he finally sums up in the following bit of lucid and unanswerable reasoning:

"The Bering Sea is part of the high seas, and sealing beyond the three-mile limit in it can be prevented only by an exercise of sovereignty over it. Such right of sovereignty we denied to Russia. Such right we now claim, as derived from Russia. Such right, if Russia possessed it, could only be an incident to the ownership of the coasts, and could not exist and be conveyed independently. There is no evidence of an attempt to convey it in lependently. Its territorial right in a portion of the coast bordering the Bering Sea, does not give this country exclusive jurisdiction over the said sea for a certain purpose, or for any purpose. Our fishery disputes with Canada, the precedents in our own history, maritime law, common sense, all discredit the idea. It is a great and an undue stretch of the jurisdiction of the United States to capture twelve ships and warn off a great many more for engaging in a species of fishery many miles from land."

In his discussion of the Barrundia affair, Prof. Woolsey uses the same method of impartial inquiry as to fact and impersonal application of the recognized practice of international law. His finding is that "both Commander Reiter and Mr. Mizner, judged by the rules and precedents of international law, acted with absolute propriety. And yet their action proved so unacceptable to their Government that the one was recalled and the other removed from his command with a reprimand." As in the Bering Sea case, the Professor notices here "a marked extension of the jurisdiction claimed by the United States. It announces to its naval officers the duty of protecting all political refugees sailing under its merchant flag, even when within the waters of the country to which those refugees belong, by strategy if not by force—the duty of bringing asylum to them, instead of permitting them to seek it. This was destined to bear fruit."

That fruit he finds in the Chilian imbroglio. The seizure of the *Itata* was "improper," because she was engaged in a "purely commercial transaction" and was "in no sense fitting out an armed expedition." And the sensational chase by the *Charleston* he declares to be "absolutely novel" in international practice. "A State at peace has no jurisdiction over the ships of other nationalities on the high seas, except on suspicion of piracy. Such a stretch of jurisdiction on the part of the most powerful State on this continent must necessarily appear an alarming matter to all its neighbors." Turning to the right of asylum demanded by Mr. Egan, under instructions from Washington, for the Balmacedists, Prof. Woolsey shows it to have been "excessive" when the almost

uniform policy of our Government is made the test. And the refusal to accept the findings of the Chilian courts, and the setting up of an *ex-parte* naval tribunal in San Francisco and basing action upon its findings, he characterizes as "a fresh example of the enlarged view of our rights of sovereignty to which we are fast accustoming our people, and in which we are training our navy."

It is this "attempt on the part of the Government to stretch its claim of jurisdiction unduly" that Prof. Woolsey finds to be the constant element and tendency in all the instances he has examined. Asking what this means and will involve, he closes his paper with words which ought always to be printed in parallel columns with Republican platform glorification of the honor won the "flag" by the present Administration, and with every valiant stump speech on the same subject:

> "It means in the first place a departure from the old and safe policy of the fathers. It means courting rather than avoiding foreign entanglements. It means one collision after another, each with its sulphurous war-cloud about it. It means the violation of former precedents, setting up new ones in their stead which may prove awkward, even dangerous. It will encourage aggressions upon weak neighbors. It will make this country hated and distrusted by its natural friends. It will weaken its commercial position on this continent, throwing trade into other channels than our own. . . . And again, what will this new policy, if persisted in, involve? If we assume an advanced position, we must be prepared to maintain it. We shall need a larger army; a navy of the first rank; an increase of taxation to pay for these; a reversal of our military and naval policy to maintain them."

We have not quoted the weighty words of this high authority simply because they confirm throughout the position taken by this paper in each of these controversies. Personal gratification goes for very little beside the sense of a great public service rendered by this honored son of an honored father. He speaks for the educated and sane opinion of the country. He represents that tribunal—the tribunal of history—before which all political intrigues and partisan scheming must ultimately be judged. Politicians may boast that they can carry elections and "make history" in spite of all the professors; but, after all, it is the professors who write history, and, just as in the pages of Adams and McMaster the little-great politicians of the past find their pillory, so will their fellows of to-day in the impartial records yet to be made by other college professors.

ROBERT LOWE, LORD SHERBROOKE.

LONDON, August 10, 1892.

HAD Robert Lowe died twenty-five years ago, his death would have been a political event of the first magnitude; but to-day hardly anybody under forty years of age knows who Lord Sherbrooke was, and the new generation wonder why their seniors feel any interest in the disappearance of an undistinguished peer whose name has long since ceased to be heard in either the literary or the political world. It requires an effort to believe that he was at one time held the equal in oratory and the superior in intellect of Mr. Bright and Mr. Gladstone. There are few instances in our annals of men who have been equally famous and whose fame has been bounded by so short a span out of a long life. No one who knew him ever doubted his abilities. He made a brilliant reputation at Oxford, where he was the contemporary and more than the peer of Roundell Palmer (now Lord Selborne) and Archibald Tait (afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury). When he left the University, where anecdotes of his ready and caustic wit were long current, he tried his fortune at the bar, but with such scant success that he presently emigrated to New South Wales, soon rose to prominence and unpopularity there, returned in ten years with a tolerable fortune, became a leading-article writer on the *Times*, entered Parliament, but was little heard of till Lord Palmerston gave him the place of Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, from which he was presently driven by an attack, now admitted to have been unfair, of Lord Robert Cecil (now Lord Salisbury). His fame dates from 1865, when he appeared as the trenchant critic of a measure for extending the Parliamentary franchise in boroughs, introduced by a private member. Next year, however, his powers shone forth in their full lustre. The Liberal Ministry, led in the House of Commons by Mr. Gladstone, had brought in a Franchise Extension Bill which excited the dislike of the more conservative or more timid among their supporters. This dislike might not have gone beyond mutterings but for the vehemence with which Mr. Lowe opposed the measure. He fought against it in a series of speeches which produced a greater impression in the House of Commons, and roused stronger feelings of admiration and hostility in the country, than perhaps any other political addresses have done in the present century. The new luminary rose so suddenly to the zenith and cast so unexpected a light that everybody was dazzled; and though many dissented, few ventured to criticise. The surprising effect of these speeches of 1866 can hardly be understood by any one who does not know how commonplace and practical the general tone of Parliamentary debating is in our time.

Parliament then contained, and even now contains, a great many capable lawyers, capable men of business, capable country gentlemen; many men who can express themselves with clearness, fluency, and good sense. Few, however, are able to produce finished rhetoric; still fewer have a range of thought and knowledge extending much beyond the ordinary education of a gentleman and the ordinary ideas of a politician; and the assembly is usually so intolerant of rhetoric, and so much inclined to treat, as unpractical, facts and arguments drawn from recondite sources, that even those who possess out-of-the-way learning are disposed, and rightly so, to use it very sparingly. In Robert Lowe, however, a remarkable rhetorical and dialectical power was combined with a command of branches of historical, literary, and economic knowledge so unfamiliar to the average member as to have for him all the charm of novelty. The rhetoric was sometimes too elaborate. The political philosophy was not always sound. But the rhetoric was so taking that no one could fail to enjoy it; and the political philosophy was put in so terse, bright, and pointed a form that it made the ordinary country gentleman fancy himself a philosopher while he listened to it or repeated it to his friends at the club. The speeches, which were not so much directed to the particular measure as an indictment of democratic government in general, had the great advantage of expressing what many had felt, but few had ventured to say, and of being delivered from one side of the House and cheered by the other. No position gives a speaker in the House of Commons such a vantage ground, because the phenomenon is comparatively rare, and because nothing so much annoys a party and gratifies its antagonists as when one of its own recalcitrant members attacks it in flank. When one looks back now at the contents of these speeches—there were only five or six of them—and is surprised at their success, this favoring circumstance, and the whole temper of the upper class, which was beginning to acquire those Tory habits of thought which it has since so much developed, need to be remembered. In themselves, as pieces of "civil wisdom," the speeches are not first-rate. No one would dream of comparing them to Burke's, either in originality or in weight. But for the moment they were far more appreciated than Burke's were by the House of his time, which thought of dining while he thought of convincing. Robert Lowe was for some months an intellectual idol. I recollect to have been in those days at a breakfast party given by an eminent politician and nominal supporter of the Liberal Ministry, and to have heard the leader of the *Saturday Review* set, an able writer who was a sort of literary and political oracle of the set, deliver, amid general applause, including that of the host, the opinion that Lowe was an intellectual giant compared to Mr. Gladstone, and that the reputation of the latter had been virtually extinguished. This period of glory, which was enhanced by the fall of Lord Russell and Mr. Gladstone from power in June, 1866, lasted till Mr. Lowe, who was now of course a force to be counted with, obtained office as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Liberal Ministry which came in in the end of 1868. From that moment his position declined. He lost popularity and influence both with the country and in the House of Commons. His speeches were always able, but they did not seem to tell when delivered from the ministerial bench. His financial proposals, though often ingenious, usually roused opposition. Before he left office in 1874 he had ceased to be a force in politics. He did nothing to retrieve his fame during the six years of opposition that followed, and in 1880 was relegated to the House of Lords, because the new Liberal Government of that year could not make room for him. Very soon thereafter his memory began to fail, and for the last ten years he has been quite forgotten. There is hardly a parallel in our politics.

This sudden and complete obscuration of one whose reputation was genuine, because his intellectual powers were really great, requires some explanation. One cause was a purely physical one. He was excessively short-sighted, so that when he wrote, his nose was apt to rub out the words his pen had traced, and he was therefore shut out from all that knowledge of men and of audiences which is to be obtained by watching their faces. For social purposes he might almost as well have been blind; yet he did not receive that kind of indulgence which is extended to the blind. The other cause was moral. Without being ill-natured, he was a hard-natured man, never appearing to consider the feelings of others. He was not unkindly, and he certainly did not, as was believed of another brilliant contemporary, Lord Westbury, positively enjoy the giving of pain. But he had boundless scorn for the slow and the dull and

the unenlightened, and he never restrained his swift and scorching wit merely for the sake of sparing those who came in his way. Instances are not wanting of men who have maintained great influence in spite of their rough tongues and the enmities which rough tongues provoke. But such men have usually also possessed some of the arts of popularity, and have been able to retain the adherence of their party at large, even when they had alienated many who came into personal contact with them. This was not Lowe's case. He did not conceal his contempt for the multitude, and had not the tact needed for humoring it, any more than for managing the House of Commons. The very force and keenness of his intellect kept him aloof from other people and prevented him from understanding their sentiments. He saw things so clearly that he could not tolerate mental confusion, and was apt to reach conclusions so fast that he missed perceiving some of the things which are gradually borne in upon slower minds. There was also a certain harshness, perhaps a certain narrowness, about his views. Even in those days of rigid economics, he took an exceptionally rigid view of all economic problems, refusing to make allowance for any motives except those of bare self-interest. He professed, and doubtless to some extent felt, a contempt for all appeals to historical or literary sentiment, and relished nothing more than deriding his own classical training as belonging to an effete and absurd view of education. He left his own mark on our elementary school system by establishing the system of payment by results, but nearly every change made in that system since his day has tended to destroy the alterations he made and bring back the older condition of things, though no doubt in an amended form. His ideas of University reform seemed limited to the extension of the plan of competitive examinations for honors and money prizes—a plan which more and more displeases the most enlightened of our University teachers, and is felt to have done more harm than good to Oxford and Cambridge, where it has had the fullest play.

It would not be fair to charge him with the results of his vigorous action against the extension of the suffrage in 1866, for no one could have then predicted that in the following year the Tories, beguiled by Mr. Disraeli, would reverse their former attitude and carry a suffrage bill far wider than that which they had rejected a year before. But the sequel of the successful resistance of 1866 may stand as a warning to those who think that the course of resolute opposition is likely, because it seems courageous, to be the right course for patriotic men. Had the moderate bill of 1866 been suffered to pass, the question would probably have slept for another thirty years, and England would still be ruled in the main by middle-class votes. The consequence of the heated contests of 1866 and 1867 was not only to bring about a larger immediate change, but to create an interest in the question which soon prompted the demand for the extension of household suffrage to the counties, and in 1885 completed the process by which England has become a democracy. Thus to Robert Lowe, as much as to Disraeli and Gladstone, is due the tremendous change which has passed upon this country since 1866, and the compass of which is only now beginning to be realized, while its ultimate effects upon the government of the country no one can predict. Lowe himself never recanted his views, but never repeated his declaration of them, feeling that he had incurred unpopularity enough. He had a bitter personal enemy in Disraeli, who once went out of his way to inflict upon him a personal humiliation, when Lowe had made an indiscreet speech; nor was the latter slow to take every opportunity of making Disraeli the target for his own sarcasm. They were not unequally matched. Intellectually Lowe was for most purposes the stronger man; but Disraeli had a skill in manipulating men and assemblies which gave him a far more enduring success, while his foe is chiefly remembered as one of those whose careers illustrate the old dictum that mere mental power is one of the smallest elements in the highest kinds of success.

O. D.

GLADSTONE'S RETURN TO POWER.

LONDON, August 11, 1892.

THE debate with which the present Parliament opened had no importance until Tuesday afternoon, when Mr. Gladstone spoke and Mr. Balfour answered him, before a House crowded to its utmost capacity. Mr. Gladstone's voice was by no means what it used to be, or what it was even three years ago, when I heard him last; but whether this was the effect of advancing years, or of the cold from which he has been recently suffering and has not yet quite recovered, it was not possible for any one who does not see and hear him daily to judge. But even in a partially disabled condition, it is still a marvellous organ, for although he hardly raised it at all, it penetrated to every corner of the House, and was as audible to me in the gallery as if I were sitting beside him. But in another way I thought the effect of age was distinctly visible. The speech was, as regards matter, entirely worthy of his best days. The work he had to do was very delicate, for he had not only to "arraign," and "view with alarm," as we say, the doings of the Tories during the past seven years, but he had to produce something in the nature of an outline of what he would do himself when he came into office, more particularly touching the Irish question. All this called here and there for an emphasis of voice and manner which in olden times was never wanting, but which on this occasion he seemed to lack physical vigor to supply. The result was, that some of his best points were not driven home as they might have been, and in other days would have been, for his oratory has always abounded in fiery passages.

This defect was made the more apparent by contrast with the ringing tones in which Mr. Balfour, who followed, delivered his speech. His youthful, vigorous air when on his feet must, I thought, have suggested some rather melancholy reflections to the Liberals touching their own chief. For there is no getting away from the fact that, immense as Mr. Gladstone's value now is as a party leader, he has passed the period of those *longs espoirs et vastes pensées*, which are an essential part of the equipment of a statesman who supplies inspiration to a great political party. So that nobody can see or hear him without feeling deeply the cloud which his advanced age throws over the future of the English Liberals. The matter of his speech was admirable. It was as dexterous and eloquent as usual, and was marked by an elevation of tone and breadth of view which furnished its chief superiority over Mr. Balfour's reply. This reply was clever, I might say "smart" and incisive, but it was nearly all *tu quoque* and recrimination. He "cornered" the old man with real undergraduate truculence, by means of plenty of quotations from old speeches and letters. In fact, these quotations constitute the principal part of the Tory and Liberal Unionist ammunition. The importance attached to them is curious. Nearly all the English Liberals are recent converts to Home Rule, and ten years ago shared to the fullest extent the views on the Irish question now held by the Tories. Both sides of the House used to join with alacrity in passing Irish coercion bills, so that quoting old speeches against them is very like reminding a convert to Catholicism of the harsh things he used to say of the Pope in his Protestant days.

What has opened the eyes of the Liberal party, as well as Mr. Gladstone's, is the appearance in the House of Commons, under the extended suffrage, of the real representatives of the bulk of the Irish people, for the first time since the Union, and the demonstration that business cannot be done in a satisfactory way, in the existing state of British politics, as long as these eighty-five Irish members remain lodged as a foreign substance in the very entrails of the British body politic. That this would be one of the results of Home Rule if an Irish representation were retained at Westminster, as all are agreed must be the case, is now the chief Conservative argument against it. But the difficulty already exists. The Irish for the third time last night turned a British Ministry out of office on Irish questions. They turned Mr. Gladstone out in 1885. They turned Lord Salisbury out the same year. They turned him out again last night. So that one can hardly believe one's ears when one hears the cleverest men on the Conservative side predicting this state of things as one of the most-to-be-dreaded results of Home Rule, and therefore the strongest objection to it. On the Liberal side, on the other hand, it is, even in the minds of those who most dislike the Irish and are most indifferent to their wrongs, the strongest possible reason for setting them off by themselves in charge of their own affairs. What occurred last night was in fact a triumph and vindication of this view.

And a most exciting night it was. Only Mr. Gladstone, among the leaders, and Mr. Balfour spoke on Tuesday. The debate was adjourned, after some skirmishing, until Thursday, and it was agreed that the division should be then taken. The Ministry were all along anxious that the debate should be protracted, and the final trial of strength delayed, in spite of the eagerness of their rank and file to get away to the moors. The Liberals, on the other hand, were fully determined not to debate, to be content with Mr. Gladstone's statement, and to move on the enemy's works and compel a surrender at the earliest possible moment. Consequently last night they left all the talking to the Tories and the Liberal Unionists. Mr. Chamberlain opened the fray at four o'clock, before a House crowded to its utmost capacity, and there was a vague but ill-founded expectation that Sir William Harcourt would answer him. Mr. Chamberlain probably never did better in his life, and it was curious to see the delighted expectation with which the Tories, and especially the young "swells," watched his opening strokes, as he distributed little squirts of vitriol all around him, a drop or two on "Tim" Healy, a drop or two on Labouchere, on Harcourt, on Asquith, on Trevelyan, and a regular shower now and then on the Irish. A more perfect master of debate, in its lowest form, however, probably never was seen. All its tricks and devices are ready to his hand. Every interruption was

turned to account in the deftest manner. He had a whole arsenal of foolish or inconsistent remarks that his enemies in bygone days had made, ready in his hat, and, after rubbing a little poison on each arrow, discharged it at his old friends with wonderful effect, amidst the uproarious applause and mirth of the Tories. If hatred and contempt were or could become, in these democratic days, great political forces, Mr. Chamberlain would have a great future. His face—to be just a little personal—greatly increases the effectiveness of his peculiar style of oratory, for one rarely sees a human countenance express these passions more vividly. As he turned now and then on the Irish who were behind him, his look was literally baleful, and, in the days of the "evil eye," would certainly have blasted the whole delegation with some atrocious stroke of "bad luck." He spoke for over an hour, with extraordinary cleverness, but I do not think I exaggerate when I say that there was not in the whole of his remarks one word of hope or conciliation for either the Irish or his old colleagues; not one suggestion, solemn as the occasion was, looking to any amicable or harmonious solution of the Irish problem, or to any future for it but a steady application of brute force to bridle discontent. At the end he tried to infuse a lyric strain into his peroration by making a sort of appeal to the Liberals, for the good of the country, not to turn the Tories out or assume office themselves, but the effect was almost ludicrous. The waters of rhetoric, like other waters, cannot be made to rise higher than their source, and a dry, cynical, and mocking nature cannot produce either pathos or solemnity at will.

These remarks are in a measure true of Mr. Balfour also. There is nothing in which Mr. Gladstone's superiority to them both is better shown than in the breadth of view and elevation of tone he manages to infuse into his speeches. All his argumentation on this Irish question points directly to the conclusion that the present state of it cannot last; that "force is no remedy"; that, even if it were, it is impossible, as has now been proved, to apply it indefinitely, owing to the state of British politics; that, in the modern world, great masses of men must be conciliated and cannot be driven; and that, as Burke said, "Your measures must be healing." I am constantly struck here by the resemblance of some phases of the mental condition of the Conservatives to that of the Northern Conservatives about slavery before the war—that is, they maintain that they could settle the Irish question if the other side would let it alone, as if the unwillingness or inability of the other side to let it alone were not part, and a most important part, of the problem to be solved, and as if the ridicule and insult heaped on the Irish for cherishing national sentiment were likely to kill it in days which have seen the Bulgarians and Serbians, after 400 years of Turkish slavery, rise in twenty years into respectable nationalities.

After Mr. Chamberlain's philippic, the debate fell into the hands of the minor men on both sides, and was for three or four hours addressed to empty benches. Among these minor men was a very considerable man in the world of finance and science—Sir John Lubbock—but, as if to confirm the popular impression about the difficulty of making politicians out of scientists, he inflicted on the House about an hour of the dreariest platitudes I have ever listened to, half read and half spoken, in a singsong and hardly audible voice. The interest of the occasion did not return till about ten, when the House was again crowded, and Sir Henry James, who shares with Mr. Chamberlain the honor of leading the Liberal Unionists, to the delight of the Tories and the surprise of the Liberals, took the floor, evidently in a high state of irritation, and proceeded for one hour to pour on the heads of the Gladstonians, and especially Mr. Asquith, a stream of evidently long-pent-up wrath, in answer to the accusation of political "perfidy" and "apostasy" which has been freely dealt out to him and his associates. Sir Henry James is a very distinguished lawyer, who has been Attorney-General under Gladstone, but he is also a very attractive man of the world and an orator of remarkable polish. He gave friends and foes on this occasion a great treat by a defence of extraordinary fire and effectiveness, containing several pieces of invective of the first order, chiefly directed against Mr. Asquith and Sir William Harcourt. The latter was expected to reply, and when Sir Henry had finished, the shouts for him showed how keenly the House would have relished a set-to between two such renowned gladiators; but nothing could induce Sir William to depart from the Liberal policy of silence, and the disappointment was great.

The calls for a division now became very fierce, but the Tory whips reported that some of their men were still absent, and Mr. Chaplin, the Minister of Agriculture, was put up to fill the hour before midnight. What followed was extremely diverting. The House was crammed and the excitement was rapidly rising. The slightest incident called forth cheers and counter cheers, not hand-clapping or stamping, but the usual "Hear, hear!" roused into a prolonged roar of encouragement or defiance. Mr. Chaplin is a large, pompous Tory squire from Lincolnshire, with an immense sense of his own dignity and importance, as "a responsible minister of the Crown"; and the Liberals, and the Irish especially, rose at him as a lawful victim of their impatience. When he began another exposure of Mr. Gladstone's inconsistency by means of old quotations, there arose a tumult of which no description can give any idea. When he leaned over his notes or opened a book, a terrible wail of despair rent the air. When he wet his lips, the applause was frantic, and every sentence or clause of a sentence which could be twisted into a sign of conclusion brought down the house. The general mirth became finally overpowering, and not the least ludicrous feature of the scene was the solemnity with which a carefully attired row of foreign ministers and secretaries of legation, near whom I was seated, looked down on the riot. Either they did not understand English well enough to catch the humor of the occasion, or fancied they were witnessing the beginning of a revolution.

The fun grew faster and more furious as the hour wore on, Mr. Chaplin making a gallant fight. He could not make himself heard, but he did fill up the time, and at last Mr. Balfour pulled him down by his coat-tails, indicating that his men were all on the ground and the final moment was at hand. "Divide, divide," was shouted louder and louder from the Liberal side. The Speaker put the question, and was met by a mighty "Aye" and a mighty "No," in rapid succession. A division is called for, the tellers are appointed. Both sides file out to their respective lobbies. In a very few minutes, the result is announced—350 to 310—but everybody knew what it would be. Mr. Gladstone was one of the last to vote, and as he passed up the aisle to his place the Liberals all rose, most of them mounting the benches, and, hats in the air, gave him a tremendous and prolonged cheer, which, after welcoming him, took up the teller's announcement, and covered him with a storm of applause, through which he hurried somewhat shrinkingly to his seat, and which did not cease till Mr. Balfour rose to say what the Ministry would do. As he stood there, in the forefront of the crowd, a slight and nervous figure, evidently struggling to be calm, looking every inch a gentleman, with a half-shy, half-modest air, his followers gave him, all were pleased to see, the same kind of uproarious tribute Gladstone had received; and after he had moved an adjournment for a week, "after the very important division which had just taken place," the whole assemblage poured out into the cool night, the victors cheering Gladstone until the crowd outside took it up and roared him on his way home. But every one felt that he had witnessed one of the great historic scenes of English history—Gladstone returned to power for the fourth time, at the age of eighty-two, and an English Ministry driven from office for the third time by the Irish vote, which the Unionists have for seven years been trying to treat as a neglectable quantity.

E. L. G.

LEYDEN AND ITS ARCHIVES.

AUGUST 5, 1892.

FEW cities in Europe are more interesting to the historical student than that in which the founders of New England received their political training. Here, during ten years of peace, in the truce between the little fighting republic and giant Spain, dwelt the Pilgrim Fathers. Here they saw, under their own eyes and in actual working, political principles and institutions which they transplanted to virgin shores and a larger field. Here one finds abundant and overwhelming evidence of the existence, centuries before their arrival, of things which our local writers of American history imagine were "invented" in New England. Here in the municipal archives one finds material for a tolerably full history of the Dutch life of the Plymouth men.

From the gallery in the tall broach-tower of the City Hall in Leyden, we took a bird's-eye view of the history of the municipality. A fair day and bright sunlight enabled us to discern the mighty minsters of the towns far and near, and to note the lines of greenery and water that make up the natural map beyond the masses of red tiles. Below us ran the Broad Street, originally the old Roman road to the sea. In front was the Rapenburg, its semicircular canal enclosing the space between it and the Rhine. This formed the ancient city which first received its name of Leythen in 960 A. D. Close at hand is the Burg or round castle of brick-work dating from Saxon, possibly from Roman times. It stands on the hill at the junction of the old and the new Rhine. In front the site of the castle of the Counts of Holland is visible, though now occupied by other edifices. High over all rises Saint Peter's Kerk, under the shadow of which was the Pilgrim settlement of twenty-two houses. This church, begun in 1121 and finished in 1315, was venerable-looking when the Pilgrims first saw it in 1610, and the crossed keys of the holy apostle still form the "arms" of the city. The two canals first cut for the washing of the wool preparatory to the making of the cloth for which the city has always been famous, have been multiplied, while the Rhine River, feeder of them all, has been trained and curbed so as to make many more avenues of water than there are bars to a gridiron. The wide enclosing moat no longer reflects the crenellated walls and lofty fortified gates. These

were demolished a few years ago, but the great canal, with no fewer than fourteen indentations, shows where bastions formerly stood. Of St. Pancras Church, the University buildings, the old home of the Elzevirs, we have not space to tell.

Descending through the spider-like network of wires into the room where the rosy-cheeked player of the carillon is, with fists well sheathed in buckskin gloves, pounding the oaken keys of the music-board, we are soon below the merry bells which are just sounding "Auf Wiedersehen." The main part of the edifice was built several centuries before it received its present sculptured and heraldic front, which was entirely new when the Pilgrims first passed beneath it to declare intentions of marriage, or to consult land deeds and titles previous to purchasing property. Here are the large and numerous rooms devoted to the archives of Leyden, which are the richest of any city in Netherland, and possibly of any single city in Europe.

For the student of political and social science, these records are invaluable because so voluminous and so chronologically continuous. In the matter of the preservation of archives, Franklin's dictum holds good that "three moves are as bad as a fire." Amsterdam, for example, has suffered lamentably from both conflagrations and removals. Leyden, while undergoing siege, famine, gunpowder, explosion, and the ebb and flow of commercial fortune, has never moved her town hall or suffered loss by the flames. The various departments of municipal life, in monastic, feudal, imperial, republican, and monarchical eras, are here fully illustrated for the student. Already, though tons of papers have not been inspected, most of the matter has been arranged and classified by the accomplished Archivarius, Mr. C. M. Dozy. Of mediæval parchment landleases duly sealed there are about 5,000. In many instances one can trace back the titles of land to the original grantee in the thirteenth century. One casually admires the excellent quality of the hand-made Dutch paper and rich black ink, legible after four or five centuries. The story of the land purchases, transfers, and sales of the Pilgrim Fathers is here open and legible, as well as the diagrams and entries made by their Dutch predecessors in business centuries before. In a word, here are practically the registries which the Plymouth men are traditionally believed to have invented and given to the United States.

As to the existence in Leyden of public schools for the common folk nearly 300 years before Robinson's company set foot in the city, the record is no less clear. Entirely separate from church or monastic schools, or private enterprise in pedagogics, we find for the years 1357, 1392, and 1399 records of the appointment by the municipality of teachers and sub-teachers for the city schools. Here are noted the appropriations of public money raised by taxation for the erection of buildings, the maintenance of schools, and the payment of salaries. We read also of protection guaranteed the master against the parents of bad boys whose cuticle may have been welted by too energetic application of birch. These continuous notices of appropriations and various matters of public-school economy occur frequently until the present time. While the children of those able to pay were to bring weekly a small sum to the treasury of the school, poor children were admitted and instructed free. The object of this free education as well as that given at a merely nominal price was "not only wisdom and cleverness, but good manners in church and on the street." In various museums in the country from the Dan of Leuwarden to the Beersheba of Flushing, as well as in the Dutch books, notably one entitled 'A Peep into the Old School World,' I have enjoyed seeing and reading about the text books, rules, apparatus of correction and instruction, and general equipment of these public schools which were common in all Holland in the fifteenth century. Doubtless, also, the Pilgrims' children were trained in those of Leyden in the seventeenth century.

Among other treasures in the Leyden archives are a letter from the Pope in 1290, and an original copy of the Great Privilege of 1477. The records for 500 years and over of the tax-lists, public works, guilds, military and fire organizations, orphan asylums, alms-houses, homes for widows, widowers, and old men, aged couples, and that wonderful system of benevolence for which the Hollanders were and are still famous, are here for the examination of the student. They show that the Dutch were the teachers of Europe in systematic charity.

Those who would make researches into the history of federal government cannot afford to neglect Leyden. For, in addition to the magnificent and voluminous printed publications of the Resolutions of the States of Holland, there are rooms devoted to storage of the original papers illustrating the relation of the sovereign city of Leyden and of the state of South Holland to the central Government controlled by the States-General and the Stadholders. Somehow, to look at even a few of these documents made us remember that Mr. Freeman—possibly for reasons connected with the achievements of Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Thomas—failed to complete his History of Federal Government. We recalled, also, that Mr. Bancroft found that his personal knowledge of most European languages except that which most fully enshrines the actual history of a federal republic, did not avail for his treatise on the 'History of the Formation of the American Constitution.' He needed the Dutch and was obliged to have his work in Holland done by deputy. The historian who is yet to give us a worthy treatise on Federal Government cannot afford to neglect the country which gave us, as the framers of our Constitution expressly state, and repeatedly show in their writings, their "great example." To go from Leyden to dine at the house of the great-granddaughter of the Amsterdam banker who negotiated the loans, aggregating $14,000,000, to our country in 1780; to talk with the biographer of Van der Capellen, who, more than any one or many, secured the recognition of John Adams and of the independence of the United States; and to visit the great-grandson of Prof. Luzac of Leyden, the correspondent of Washington, Adams, and Jefferson, and the hearty advocate of American liberty—was but to emphasize to my mind the importance of Holland as the theatre of federal government.

From the record rooms where was the precious documentary history of the Pilgrims, showing not only their petitions, intentions of marriage, tax-lists, and business transactions, but also the proofs of their citizenship and political training in municipal and republican government, it was but a short walk to their old home. We shall not describe what is already familiar. In Clock Alley, alongside St. Peter's Church, one easily finds now the superb bronze tablet set in the outer wall, and unveiled last July with appropriate ceremonies, including a bilingual speech from the lamented Kuenen. Suffice it to say that this tablet is a memorial to the noble, self-effacing teacher, John Robinson, and the appropriate work of a single religious denominational body. It is not, nor was it intended to be, the tribute of the whole American people to the founders of New England. *That*, we trust, is yet to come. The city authorities of Rotterdam on July 11, 1892, at their own prompting, named the street in front of the spot at "Delfts Haven" whence the *Speedwell* sailed for America, *Pelegrim's Kade* (Pilgrim's Quay); and there, it is proposed, the memorial of the American people to the Pilgrim fathers and mothers shall rise. Delftshaven is now a component part of the great city of Rotterdam.

Since 1683, nearly thirty years after the last traces of the English Separatists had vanished from Leyden, the present edifice or Home for Aged Couples was erected by Jan Pesyn. Opening the gate, which is locked only at night, we step into a courtyard neatly planted with flowers, and lined on three sides with small brick houses in which the aged pensioners live. Just like these, though probably not so substantial, were the twenty-one houses in which Robinson's congregation lived, the pastor having the large house used also for a church. Here, in the flourishing city bustling with trade, and lively with English and Continental students (no fewer than 2,000 from Great Britain matriculating during the seventeenth century), tradesmen and soldiers (135 English families attending the English Presbyterian Church only a few rods away), the Pilgrim company lived in comparative comfort. They were lonely only as they may have chosen, for conscience' sake, to be so. "They stood on their own legs," as the librarian of the University remarked to me during one of several visits to Leyden. In this country, where most of the houses rest on piles and incline at any angle they please, the remark suggested independency of a radical sort. I notice that Baedeker speaks of Robinson as the "leader of the first *Puritan* (!) party banished from England," while in the corridor of the Houses of Parliament it is the *Mayflower* (!) that leaves Delftshaven for America.

To say nothing of the University library, the richest in Holland, there is now accessible to all Americans and others of Huguenot ancestry the Walloon library. It is situated at the head of the Kick Steeg, alongside of St. Peter's Church and close to the old Pilgrim's home. Besides the unique collection of books illustrating the origin, history, sufferings, and migrations of the Huguenots, there is a very full and minute slip-catalogue giving references to all known manuscript sources, such as church and town records of Walloons or Huguenots who have lived in Holland. To Americans interested in genealogical studies, or desirous of exploring their ancestry, this library, so accessible and well arranged, is invaluable.

With the archivist of Leyden, I walked down through the park where now stands the new monument to the heroic Burgomaster Van der Werff who ruled Leyden during the siege. On part of this field, long known as that of the Great Ruin—caused by the explosion of gunpowder in which the house of Elzevir was destroyed, and Luzac, the friend of Washington, Adams, and Jefferson, was killed—the University is now erecting new and spacious edifices. A few rods to the south is the gate and bridge first reached by the rescuing boats of the Water-Beggars, which had sailed over the farms flooded by cutting the dykes at Delftshaven. Close to this historic spot whence from the decks of the fleet were thrown up the herrings, cheeses, and loaves to the

famished citizens on March 24, 1574, rises the new fire-proof building which is to contain Leyden's archives. The appropriation by the city of $26,000 is sufficient for a four-story edifice of brick and iron. In each room the shelves will rise no higher than for comfort, as no ladders will be used. Here, probably before the end of 1892, the rich historical treasures will be stored. Very appropriately the building fronts on Boisot Kade, the quay or street named after the brave ecommander of the Water-Beggars who relieved the starving city after the famous siege. It was past this quay, and through the canal and gate also, that the Pilgrims left the city that had sheltered them for ten years, on their journey to Delftshaven, and thence to America. No more appropriate place could be chosen wherein to enshrine the treasures of the past.

W. E. G.

Correspondence.

RAMSAY'S 'LANCASTER AND YORK.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I be permitted to defend the delegates of the Clarendon Press from your censure for issuing Ramsay's 'Lancaster and York' without an index? No one regrets the omission more than themselves. They urged the necessity of an index upon the author with all the insistency they could command, but were unable to induce him to adopt their views. Sir James Ramsay particularly desired it should be understood he was responsible for the omission.—I am,

Yours faithfully,

Philip Lyttelton Gell.

Oxford, August 11, 1892.

"LITERARIAN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A writer in last Saturday's issue of *Notes and Queries*, while taking it for granted that the above-named word is "atrocious," wishes to know whether it is "allowable on any grounds." Permit me to dispose of his assumption and to answer his interrogatory.

Lawless in formation, certainly, is *Tractarian*; and yet it will live in history, to the exclusion of *Tractite*, *Tractuist*, and *Tractator*, all which have been proposed in its stead. And every whit as bad as *Tractarian* is *vegetarian*, which, nevertheless, is ineradicably established.

But regular enough, etymologically, is *literarian*, as I had convinced myself, besides feeling that some such expression was wanted, when I first ventured it in print, which was certainly upwards of thirty-two years ago.

Together with the adjectives *centenary*, *disciplinary*, *necessary*, *sexagenary*, *valetudinary*, *veterinary*, etc., we have the substantives *centenarian*, *disciplinarian*, *necessarian*, *sexagenarian*, *valetudinarian*, *veterinarian*, etc.; and closely analogous to the words in the latter group is *literarian*.

To *literatus* and *literator*, for *literary person*, or a longer phrase of equivalent import, there are obvious objections; *literate* is preoccupied in signification; and *literary*, though parallels to it are numerous, has no more chance of acceptance than *literarist*. *Literarian*, however, if we can excuse its pentasyllabism, seems to recommend itself as supplying a desideratum. Very similarly, *obituary* being given, *obituarian*, as a derivative, would be eligible, and, except for its length, quite as eligible as *obituarist*.

It was some time in the fifties, though I cannot say precisely when, that I originally ventured *literarian*, with me an unborrowed fancy. More recently, or in 1873, I find that I wrote: "This being the case, it is no wonder that the thoroughness of the Hindu *literarians* has now become a poor thing in comparison with that of their predecessors who flourished in the ages of faith."—*Scribner's Monthly*, vol. vi., p. 464.

The querist whom I set out with quoting says, regarding *literarian*, "It is, I believe, pretty common in America." Is this the fact? And who introduced the alleged atrocity?

F. H.

Marlesford, England, July 29, 1892.

Notes.

A portion of Mr. Brander Matthews's recent magazine protests against colonialism in letters will be published by Harper & Brothers, under the title 'Americanisms and Briticisms,' in the pretty series of reprints from their magazines after Curtis, Warner, Higginson, Howells, etc.

Mr. Laurence Hutton gathers, under the title 'From the Books of Laurence Hutton' (Harpers), a few brief essays, published in periodicals, upon book-plates, extra-illustrated books, the portraits of Mary Queen of Scots, portrait inscriptions, poetical dedications, and poetical inscriptions. All of these little papers belong in the catalogue of a book-lover's recreations, and they contain a considerable proportion of that minute but not trivial detail which lies in the province of "the curiosities of literature."

Mr. William Winter adds another small volume of literary travel and criticism to those which have been received with so much favor, but the title, 'Old Shrines and Ivy' (Macmillan), justifies only that half of the book which is in fact concerned with foreign scenes. The sketches are written with the grace and sentiment that characterized so happily 'Gray Days and Gold,' and the shining thread of the author's Shakspearianism runs through them; there are tributes to personal friends and acquaintances whose lives or memories were associated with the localities; there is the always impending shadow of the yew. Only a portion of the pages, however, is thus occupied. The latter part of the book is devoted to some dramatic essays reprinted from Augustin Daly's privately issued stage versions of "As You Like It" and other plays; and, last of all, are a charming tribute to Longfellow, written at the time of his death, a few words on Cooper, and a brief eulogium of John R. G. Hassard.

Robert Louis Stevenson has gathered from various magazines a volume of miscellanies (Scribners) which takes its title, 'Across the Plains,' from the opening paper, the notes of an emigrant journey. It is needless to say that the writer had an unpleasant experience, and that the pages show anything but satisfaction with American ways, mingled with much respect for the Chinese, the Indians, and the negro servants, with whom, doubtless, he had a fellow-feeling as being himself an abused member of society. The rest of the volume, made up of travel abroad or of pieces of sentimental sermonizing, is rendered tolerable only by an occasional felicity in the manner. The book is one of the odds and ends that a popular author is sorely tempted to tag his real work with. Mr. Stevenson has not resisted the temptation at all.

F. Anstey's 'Travelling Companions,' another reprint from *Punch* (Longmans), maintains the level of his laughable 'Voces Populi,' from which it differs mainly in telling a connected "story in scenes." The humor is equally irresistible and original. We might fitly term 'Travelling Companions' a comic Baedeker, or, thinking of Clough, a jocose "Amours de Voyage"; or, again, of Henry James, an English portrait of "Daisy Miller," for the American girl abroad is the heroine, and the treatment of her and her "poppa" will not detract from the popularity of the work on this side of the water. Much cleverness is shown in making Miss Trotter's conversation racy of her native soil, as when, on the top of Monte Generoso, she describes the panorama as "just a real representative mass-meeting of Swiss mountains, with every prominent peak in the country on the platform, and a deputation down below from the leading Italian lakes." But she probably said, "I don't believe we *will* have time for Nuremberg," instead of *shall* (p. 35). Mr. Partridge's numerous illustrations harmonize well with the sprightly dialogues.

A new Life of Carlyle, by Prof. John Nichol, appears in the "English Men of Letters Series" (Harpers) without adding anything of interest, either in biography or criticism, to the mass already at hand. It seems to have been impossible for the author to digest into a clear, popular summary the many volumes which contain the monotonous story of his hero's literary and personal career; and the study which is offered in place of such a condensation is no more than a long-winded and involved essay on a thoroughly exhausted topic. Prof. Nichol takes his cue wholly from Froude, though he makes reservations in places where Carlyle's limitations are marked beyond the possibility of error; but the portrait is practically that drawn by the literary executor.

Mr. Albert H. Smyth has made a genuine contribution to local history in his careful account of 'The Philadelphia Magazines and their Contributors, 1741-1850' (Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay) during the period of literary activity in that city. The book has drawn wide attention, mainly as a reminder of the time when Philadelphia held the leading place in the country in what then passed for literature. The interest of the record is perhaps greatest because of the strong light thrown upon the exceeding humbleness of our beginnings. Much of an antiquarian flavor is to be found in its pages, and curious passages are to be met with; but the volume is most useful to the student of forgotten authors whose manes will not always come when summoned from the vasty deep.

Mr. William T. Davis publishes a thin volume of local interest, 'Days Afield in Staten Island,' in which he gives sketches of the nature-aspects of the Island, interwoven with some anecdotes of its men, houses, and past life. The book is agreeably written and is not overloaded with naturalists' notes.

Mr. George E. Hardy, one of our grammar-school principals in this city, has, by commission from the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, drawn up a valuable list of 'Five Hundred Books for the Young' (Scribners). It has two distinguishing features in that (1) its grading has been arranged not by years, which is illusory, but by progress at school, as "History and Biography: Second-Reader Grades, Books in one Syllable. Fourth-Reader Grades. Fifth-Reader Grades," etc.; and (2) books out of print have been eliminated. This

shows the author's intent to be to cater for school circulating libraries rather than to connect the school with the nearest public library. Mr. Hardy's annotations are somewhat naïve and familiar, and now and then, it must be said, ungrammatical. A note on p. 52 confounds an abridgment of Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage' with the original. Mr. Hardy's preface will stimulate teachers and parents to ward off trash and corruption by actively putting sound reading in the way of the young.

Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., has extended his valuable "Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales" with a volume for such as deal with life in France. These are largely, of course, but not exclusively, by French authors, and are all accessible, as being translations, to English readers. Mr. Griswold's method is well known—to help the reader in his selection by appending to each title the best critical or explanatory review obtainable, with occasional annotations by himself, *e.g.*, under 'Ursula': "The moral of the tale," says the *Critic*, "is good, and one is thankful that Balzac wrote one [Only one? See No. 2024] book that, like Zola's 'Rêve' [No. 784], can be put into the hands of a girl." This discrimination *pueris virginibusque* is not, as a rule, attempted by Mr. Griswold in the present volume.

M. Albert Soubies, to whom we owe the admirable series of the *Almanach des Spectacles*, now in its eighteenth year, has just written, in collaboration with M. Charles Malherbe, a sketch of comic opera in France, of which the first volume has recently been published—'Histoire de l'Opéra-Comique, 1840-1860' (Paris: Flammarion; New York: F. W. Christern). The authors outline briefly the origin and development of comic opera prior to its establishment in the Salle Favart, destroyed by fire five years ago. They give abundant dates, and supply a complete list of managers and of theatres. Thus, for the period from 1840 to 1860, they give a detailed history, year by year, with a full account of every novelty, so that one can see the growth of the tendency which threatens to change the light and laughing *opéra-comique* of the "Fra Diavolo" and "Crown Diamonds" type into the more serious and dramatic opera of the "Mignon" and "Carmen" type. This tendency has been accentuated of late years, as will be shown in the second volume of MM. Soubies and Malherbe's book. Oddly enough, a second tendency, to which they do not allude, will probably prevent the first from being harmful. This is the tendency of *opéra-bouffe* to become *opéra-comique:* Offenbach's "La Périchole," Lecocq's "Le Petit Duc," and Audran's "La Cigale," all approach the pure type of Auber and Adam. For the rest, this book is well made and is welcome. The history of a single theatre is like the history of a town or a county—an humble task, perhaps, but eminently useful.

In the *Revue Bleue* of July 16, M. Louis Miramon furnishes new evidence, if any were still needed, of the way in which France, who perhaps leads the world in most of the great arts, lags behind the world in the art of music. M. Miramon writes of Robert Schumann, whose music, he says, is just now coming into fashion in Paris. With the air of the scribe who brings new things out of his treasury, he relates some of the best-known facts of Schumann's life, especially the story of his engagement to Clara Wieck, and of the unsmooth course of their true love, and he quotes the familiar letters. Schumann's letters were published, he says, in 1886. Some of them, we should think, must have seen the light before that date, or, at the least, have been handed about in manuscript. At any rate, almost everything that M. Miramon brings forward now was known and talked about here twenty-five or thirty years ago by people who cared for music. In the same number of the *Revue*, M. Ernest Lavisse continues his valuable study of Frederick the Great, and M. Jean Ajalbert has some most interesting notes—unhappily too little philological—on the patois of Auvergne.

An interesting description of Rotti, one of the Dutch East Indian Islands, by Prof. A. Wichmann, is contained in the fifth number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. This island is about 50 miles long, and contains some 60,000 inhabitants, of whom about 4,000 are Christians. As a race they show some notable differences both from the Malays and the woolly-haired islanders. Their language, also, with from six to nine distinct dialects, differs from that of the neighboring islands, but has not yet been scientifically investigated. They raise cattle and cultivate the ground, which is owned by each community as a whole, while the trees are the property of individuals. There is no market, nor does money pass current among them, horses and buffaloes representing large sums and pinang nuts small ones. They choose their own rajahs, the dignity not being hereditary, but these must be acceptable to the resident magistrate. Their religion appears to consist simply of ancestral worship, in which the only known rites are dancing at certain times in a place supposed to be the abode of the spirits, and making offerings of food and ornaments. On receiving these the priests address the spirits, thanking them for the blessings of the past season, and imploring new blessings for that which is to come. Village schools in nearly all the communities are supported at the public expense. Rotti is further remarkable from the fact that it is the only place in the Timor Residency in which slavery is not suffered to exist.

In the sixth number of the *Mitteilungen* Emin Pasha's last expedition is described in some detail by his companion, Dr. F. Stuhlmann. It appears that he reached the great forest through which Stanley marched to his rescue, but, finding neither path nor food, was compelled to turn back. For eight days his people had nothing to eat but leaves and unripe corn. Near the Albert Nyanza, they were joined by some of Emin's former followers who had been left behind on his departure. Their report of the condition of affairs in the Province has a remarkable similarity to that of Stanley. A new mutiny had broken out among the soldiers, because their chief officer secretly invited the Mahdists into the country; in the course of this, many Egyptians were killed. None of the officers, of whom there are still a large number, seemed inclined to leave Equatoria, their ostensible reason being the fear of losing their present rank on reaching Egypt. Nor does it appear that they showed the slightest desire for Emin's return to his former post. The fertile country along the Nile has been reduced to an uninhabited waste by frequent raids and the cruel exactions of the Egyptian soldiers, who, according to Dr. Stuhlmann, are as grievous a scourge to the country as the Mahdists themselves. The return march to the German territory was made under great difficulties on account of hunger, exhaustion, and the smallpox among the people of the expedition, as well as the necessity for occasionally fighting their way through hostile tribes. The scientific results of the expedition, for which no motive or end is suggested in this report, were apparently very few.

In their report to the President and Fellows of Yale University for the year 1891-92, the Board of Managers of the Observatory place on record their high estimate of the generosity and personal worth of their colleague, Mr. E. M. Reed, who died in February last, and who had aided the institution by repeated gifts. The chief astronomical activity of the Observatory has centred in Dr. Elkin and Mr. Chase, who have been collecting the observational data requisite for a new determination of the mass of Jupiter, from a long series of intermutual positions of the satellites of that planet. Dr. Elkin still prosecutes his work on the parallaxes of the ten first-magnitude stars of the northern hemisphere, and he estimates that two years more will enable him to conclude this research. Next he will undertake a reconnaissance of all the rapid-moving stars which the heliometer will show, with a view to singling out those which are near enough to the earth to have a measurable distance. There are more than a hundred stars in the northern hemisphere with proper motions exceeding a half-second annually, whose parallaxes have not yet been adequately examined; and the investigation Dr. Elkin is proposing to himself will in any event be well worth the two or three years needed to complete it.

The oldest of the Scotch universities has not only determined, as has already been mentioned in these columns, henceforward to admit women "to any class or classes they may select, with a view to graduation in arts, science, theology, or medicine," but has also taken what, if we may judge by the action of some of our own universities, is the still more heroically generous step of offering to its women students a share in its pecuniary benefits. In the year 1893 a sum of upwards of £30,000 will become available for bursaries or scholarships at the University, "one-half of which is reserved for women students *exclusively.*" St. Andrews, moreover, emphasizes its attitude toward the medical education of women by the further statement that "those who intend to enter the medical profession will have a prior claim to these bursaries, although they are tenable while arts and science classes are being attended." Scottish women students will therefore have to thank their Alma Mater not merely for the crumbs which fall from her amply spread table, but for an honest and substantial half of the loaf.

—Educators will find much to interest them in 'Studies in Secondary Education' (Macmillan), consisting of an introduction by Prof. James Bryce, and twelve chapters or essays contributed by six writers, all or nearly all of whom are connected with the "National Association for the Promotion of Technical and Secondary Education." The separate chapters are, in great part, of a practical character, and full of useful details concerning secondary education, by which is meant all of education between the primary school on the one hand and the university on the other. By reason of differences of social organization, the problem of education in England involves considerations which have little if any weight among us; nevertheless, there are many things in this book which may be at least suggestive to Americans. Perhaps not the least suggestive is the great change wrought, within the short space of twenty-five years, in the public sentiment of the English people as to the proper attitude of the State in matters of education; a change which must, in the main, be

attributed to the elaborate and valuable report, accompanied by appendices filling twenty-one volumes, presented in 1868 by the Schools' Inquiry Commission and representing the results of three years of exhaustive labor. The Commission was a strong one, and was reinforced by a number of assistant commissioners, among whom were such men as Mr. Bryce, Matthew Arnold, and Prof. T. H. Green. A summary of the report forms one of the chapters of the work before us, but more than one-half of the book consists of detailed descriptions of the present condition of secondary education in a number of special, selected districts. It must be admitted that, although great improvements have been made, there is plenty of room for more. The editors of the book are convinced that it is useless to expect a good system of secondary education to be self-supporting, and that further legislation is required so that local governing bodies may be authorized to levy taxes for school purposes and to exercise control over the system of education. An act for the registration of teachers is also called for. What seems the most startling departure from traditional English policy is the demand that even private schools shall be subjected to some measure of public inspection.

—The tenth edition of Quain's 'Human Anatomy' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is largely a new work by Profs. E. A. Schäfer and G. D. Thane of University College. During the last two years there have appeared four parts, including Embryology and Histology, by Prof. Schäfer, and the Descriptive Anatomy of the bones, joints, muscles, and circulatory organs, by Prof. Thane. The remaining subjects will occupy the third volume, promised soon. Noteworthy and commendable features are the larger page, the bibliographical lists, and the new and often larger illustrations, the parts designated by their names instead of by numbers. Several embryological figures are from the recent works of His, and American anatomists will be pleased to recognize some from C. S. Minot's articles in the *Journal of Morphology*. A most encouraging evidence of the leavening influence of general biological considerations upon anthropotomy is afforded by the following paragraph:

"The words *anterior* and *posterior*, *superior* and *inferior*, and several others indicating position, are employed in human anatomy strictly with reference to the erect position of the body. But now that the more extended study of comparative anatomy and embryonic development is largely applied to the elucidation of the human structure, it is very desirable that descriptive terms should be sought which may, without ambiguity, indicate position and relation in the organism at once in man and animals. Such terms as *dorsal* and *ventral*, *cephalic* and *caudal*, *central* and *peripheral*, *proximal* and *distal*, etc., are of this kind."

—Prof. Newcomb, writing to the *Astronomische Nachrichten* from Aix-les-Bains, Savoy, a timely paper on the law and the period of the variation of terrestrial latitudes, directs attention to an early research of Euler demonstrating that if a free rigid oblate spheroid be set in rotation around an axis making a small angle with its axis of figure, and be not acted on by any force, the position of the axis of rotation within the spheroid will describe a circular cone around the axis of figure with a uniform motion. So long as the angle between these axes remains small, the period of one revolution of the axis of rotation is a constant, and determinable very simply as a function of the principal moments of inertia of the spheroid. To apply this principle to the case of the earth, this theoretic period was long since fixed at about 306 days, and the eminent German astronomer, C. A. F. Peters, was the first to discuss the question whether observations were sufficient to reveal the existence of a corresponding variation of terrestrial latitudes. Later, the investigations of Nyrén and others showed that if an inequality of this period existed at all, its amplitude could not exceed a few hundredths of a second—that is, a few feet on the surface of the earth. As, however, the earth is by no means a solid and rigid spheroid, but is partly covered by a fluid envelope and has perhaps the elasticity of steel, to adopt the conclusion of Sir William Thomson, Prof. Newcomb finds the theoretic period not 306, but 441 days. This is to be regarded as in remarkably good agreement with the period of 427 days, determined by Chandler from observation, and affords conclusive and independent evidence of the rigidity of our globe. We may therefore accept, says Prof. Newcomb, the conclusion that the pole of rotation of the earth describes a circle around its pole of figure in a period not differing much from 427 days, and in a direction from west towards east, as a result of dynamical theory.

—Observation alone will determine the exact length of the period and the radius of the circle; also, ultimately, whether the pole has moved uniformly in a circle of constant radius, as required by theory, or whether disturbing causes have so acted as to change this motion. A preliminary comparison of the results of observations at Washington, Pulkowa, Cordova, and Berlin, from 1865 to 1890, gives rise to a strong suspicion of an increase in the radius of this circle during recent years. As the possible viscosity of the earth and the friction of the ocean would make it slowly diminish, we have to look to motions in the matter composing the earth for causes which have produced the increase. Since the very nature of this phenomenon of variable latitude shows the interior of the earth to be rigid, the necessary motions are confined to matter on the earth's surface. Every change in the ocean or the polar ice-caps shifts the pole of figure of the earth; and the changes constantly occurring are of such magnitude that this pole may shift in an irregular way through a range of one or more decimetres. Evidently, then, the accumulated effect of these small motions, continued year after year, will tend to bring the poles of rotation and mean figure together, or to separate them, according to the way they chance to act. But here the poets have preceded the scientists, Emily Dickinson long ago exclaiming with no little agitation:

> "What if the poles should frisk about
> And stand upon their heads!"

Possibly the poles will never indulge in such license, but it is apparent that they have already been frisky enough to make the astronomers a lot of trouble.

—There has been of late years a very marked revival of the name and fame of Stendhal in France. Thirty years ago both seemed to be resting safely in an oblivion that was likely to be undisturbed. But Beyle was more truly prophetical than most of those who prophesy, when he wrote in 1832, "J'aurai quelque succès vers 1860 ou 1880." Balzac had known his books and admired them, but it was not till the decade of 1860-'70 that Stendhal was truly rediscovered by Taine and others. Since then he has been not without influence upon literature. It may perhaps be maintained that the modern school of literary "psychologues," of whom Paul Bourget is the type, derive immediately from him. Research has brought to light many of his unpublished writings which are now printed. M. Casimir Stryienski, for instance, discovered and published the curious manuscript 'Vie de Henri Brulard,' and also the 'Journal.' Since then, indeed within a few months, we have M. Louis Sarges's 'Stendhal Diplomate,' a work drawn from unpublished letters; and, lastly, the 'Lettres Intimes,' of which our Paris correspondent lately gave an account. While Stendhal's literary fame was suffering eclipse, his grave was also forgotten and neglected. This scandal has just been repaired, and on the morning of June 20 a little body of Stendhalians gathered at the newly-restored tomb. It is a monument of extreme simplicity—a plain slab of granite with a square headstone, in which is set a reproduction of David d'Angers's medallion of Stendhal, enlarged by M. Robert David d'Angers. The epitaph is the "paradoxical," or at least enigmatical, one written by himself at Milan in 1820, and beginning, "Arrigo Beyle, Milanese, Scrisse, Amò, Visse." Beyle was a Frenchman, born at Grenoble, but he always loved Italy more than France.

CAMPBELL'S PURITAN IN HOLLAND.

The Puritan in Holland, England, and America. An Introduction to American History. By Douglas Campbell, A.M., LL.B., Member of the American Historical Association. Harper & Bros. 1892. 2 vols., pp. lxxv, 1,097.

THIS is in many ways a remarkable book. Mr. Campbell has undertaken to prove that some of the most distinctive of American institutions are due to the influence of Holland rather than of England, and has established many of his claims. As a part of his argument, the author enters into an elaborate account of the history and civilization of Holland in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, showing the high development of commerce and art, and the prosperity, education, and morality of its people; and he contrasts its state with that of England in the same period—a land which he declares to have been comparatively barbarous, uneducated, and undeveloped. Mr. Campbell's admiration for republican institutions is intense, and his dislike of a monarchy pronounced. His colors are without much shade. What he would extol is light, and what he would disfavor, dark; but his presentation is striking and in the main convincing. The extent to which he has retold the history of Holland, England, and Scotland during the era of the Reformation seems, however, unnecessary, especially as it is to a considerable degree a summary of Motley and Froude. Probably his thesis would be as effectively maintained if his book were reduced to half its present size.

The instrument by which the institutions that had been conserved and developed in Holland were transmitted to America, was the Puritan. By that designation Mr. Campbell does not indicate a peculiar class of Englishmen merely, but the like-minded, earnest, thoughtful men of England, Scotland, and Holland, whose impulse came forth from the Reformation and was primarily religious. These were the men who brought about Dutch independence. They poured into England during Elizabeth's reign, to escape the persecutions and wars of their home land. By 1562, 30,000 refugees from Flanders were domiciled in England. In 1568 over 5,000 were in Lon-

don alone. By 1587 they formed a majority of the population of Norwich. They were numerous in the Cinque Ports, and, Mr. Campbell thinks, were to be found largely also in the country districts of eastern and southern England (i, 488-90). They were industrious, and introduced extensive manufactures before unpractised on English soil; they also popularized the religious conceptions of Puritanism which had been disseminated among the upper classes by the returning Marian exiles, but which were spread among the people chiefly, the author argues, by these Dutch refugees and by the English who served in Holland during the struggle for independence, or who found a field for commerce and a refuge from persecution in the Netherlands. The Dutch represented, Mr. Campbell shows, a more advanced type of religious, political, and commercial development than the English in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and, however averse to lessons drawn from other lands the average Englishman may be, the English Puritans, and especially the more active wing of the Puritan party which settled America, were quick to see the teaching of the Netherland republic.

Mr. Campbell shows that men instrumental in the planting and moulding of the early institutions of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania were brought into intimate contact with Dutch institutions on the soil of Holland. Not only the Plymouth Pilgrims, but Dudley Peters, Hooker, Mason, and Davenport had dwelt in Holland. Roger Williams was familiar enough with Dutch to be the teacher of Milton in that tongue (ii, 203-4); while William Penn was by birth half a Hollander, and preached in his mother's language to the Quaker congregations of the Low Countries (ii, 419). New York was, of course, Dutch in its origin.

If, now, the colonies founded by these men in America show certain institutions unknown to contemporary England, but existent in Holland, their presence, the author argues, must be due to Dutch influence. Mr. Campbell is perhaps most successful in making out a case for the Dutch origin of the American systems of land transfer and mortgage registration (i, 26, 27; ii, 454-464); of popular education (i, 30-35, ii, 340-342); of the written ballot (i, 51-53, ii, 430-440), and of the system of district attorneys and the right of counsel for prisoners (ii, 440-9). But the author by no means limits the influence of Holland to these institutions, and adduces arguments to prove that the township system itself was the product of Dutch example (ii, 427-430). He makes evident a strong probability that the peculiarities of the Connecticut Constitution were derived from the experiences of the founders of that colony in their sojourn in the Netherlands (ii, 421, 426). The Form of Government prepared by Penn for Pennsylvania was in many respects shaped by Dutch precedents (ii, 464), notably in the permanency of the upper house of the Legislature, only a portion of the members being changed at any one election; and in the Legislature's share in the power of appointment (ii, 423-5). From the Dutch institutions thus introduced into these colonies the constitution of the Senate of the United States has derived many of its characteristics.

Mr. Campbell's views of the debt of America to Holland are summed up as follows (ii, 465-6):

"First comes the Federal Constitution, a written instrument as opposed to the unwritten English Constitution. Next are the provisions of this instrument placing checks on the power of the President in declaring war and peace, and in the appointment of judges and all important executive officers. Then comes the whole organization of the Senate—a mutable and yet a permanent body, representing independent bodies politic, and not caste in State and Church. After these features of the national system, but not less important, follow our State constitutions, our freedom of religion, our free press, our wide suffrage, and our written ballot. With these come the free schools, for boys and girls alike, the township system (with its sequence of local self-government in county and State), the independence of the judiciary, the absence of primogeniture, the subjection of land to execution for debt, and the system of recording deeds and mortgages. Added to these are our public prosecutors of crime in every county, the constitutional guarantee that every accused person shall have subpœnas for his witnesses and counsel for his defence, the reforms in our penal and prison system, the emancipation of married women, and the whole organization of our public charitable and reformatory work."

Mr. Campbell is an enthusiast, not to say an extremist; some of his positions are open to question, and can be permanently established, if at all, only by further investigation. But these are comparatively few. In the main he has demonstrated the validity of his claims. His work is of special value in calling attention to factors in the institutional development of America whose importance has been generally overlooked, but which can be no longer ignored.

Not the least interesting portion of the work is the concluding chapter, really of the nature of an appendix, in which Mr. Campbell points out the extent and influence of the Scotch-Irish immigration into the Middle and Southern colonies during the eighteenth century. These "Puritans of the South" (ii, 471) did not originate republican ideas, but they were receptive. They permeated the southern half of the United States, and "it was mainly through their influence that, after the Revolution, republican institutions unknown in England were introduced into the South and West" (ii, 471, 72).

Mr. Campbell's work is evidently the fruit of painstaking labor and bears marks of care and extensive research. Some slips of the pen or of memory may be noted. Vermont was not one of the thirteen original colonies (i, 52). Mr. Campbell has Leyden in mind when he speaks of the University of *Franeker* as "famous as the home of Arminius" (i, 224); and his reference on the same page should be to Stevens's 'History of the Scottish Church at Rotterdam,' not Amsterdam. Bad as were the results of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, it is certainly an extreme statement to say: "When the war ended, everything like civilization was blotted out" (ii, 313). In speaking of the constitutional peculiarities of Connecticut, Mr. Campbell declares that the "system of town representation, in opposition to a representation according to population, prevails in Connecticut alone of all the American States" (ii, 422). It exists to-day in Vermont, where it was copied from Connecticut. The date 1528 (ii, 438) is clearly a misprint for 1628.

The mechanical execution of the work is excellent, and it is admirably equipped with an exhaustive table of contents and index.

THE WORK OF THE WAGE-EARNER.

Methods of Industrial Remuneration. By David F. Schloss. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

THIS book contains the result of inquiries made in many English factories, workshops, mines, and quarries as to the methods by which workmen are remunerated for their labor. The term "wages" is generic, and in these days of analytical political economy it is essential that the differentiæ of its species should be precisely defined. Nothing is more common than comparisons of wages paid in different countries, made generally for the purpose of founding arguments for or against protective duties. With few exceptions, these comparisons are worthless and misleading, for the simple reason that in them the differentiæ to which we have just referred are ignored. This is plain enough if we reflect that money wages represent only one side of a bargain, the other being some service, generally embodied in a material commodity, rendered to an employer. Any attempt to determine cost of production when only one of these elements is known, is as futile as trying to solve a problem containing two unknown quantities with only one equation.

The end of these inquiries, therefore, is really to ascertain not what wages the employer pays, but what service the employee renders for his wages, or, briefly, what work he does. In this inquiry Mr. Schloss makes a classification of the following kind, which comprehends substantially all the cases. A man is said to get time-wages when he sells to his employer, for a certain sum of money usually, or sometimes for other valuable considerations, the work which he does within a certain time. He gets piece-wages when he sells a certain quantity of work, irrespective of the time it takes him to do it. He gets task-wages when he sells the work which he does within a certain time, with a provision that its quantity shall not be below a certain amount. He gets progressive wages when, being in receipt of wages of any kind, he is further remunerated if his work exceeds a certain standard. These methods of determining the equivalent of wages are practically the only ones in use on any large scale, although several of them may be combined, and several of them may be adopted in the different branches of work in a large establishment.

Disregarding the quality of work (and perhaps in these days it is necessary to add, disregarding sentimental considerations), the interest of the employer, as employer, is to obtain the greatest possible quantity of work for the wages that he pays, or to pay the least possible wages for a certain quantity of work. The workman's interest is to do the least possible work for the highest possible wages, or to get the highest possible wages for a certain amount of work; the alternative statements being in neither case precisely equivalent. The interests of the two parties to the bargain are so far conflicting, but it is the supreme interest of both that the bargain should be struck. The employer *must* make interest on his capital, and at least some profit, or he will be driven out of business. The workman *must* make enough to keep body and soul together, and as a rule to bring up a family, or he will be driven out of existence. Between these limits there lies a debatable ground of considerable width, upon which the conflicts of capital and labor are fought, and which is divided between the opposing parties by their treaties of peace or *modi vivendi*.

This comparison, however, it is important to observe, is defective, for the following reason: It is impossible to treat modern industry statically. It is in a constant flux, and there is no business that can be long carried on without the adoption of improvements. In most departments it would be ruinous to go on without change for more than a few years. The

employer who reduces his cost of production is the one who prospers, and it is immaterial to him, in itself considered, whether this is attained by paying less wages for the same amount of work, or by getting more work for the same wages, or for wages that are not increased in the same proportion as the work; although for many reasons it is practically better to take the latter course if possible. So, too, the laborer is in a progressive state, and is continually able to do more work, in consequence of which he sometimes prefers to spare himself, doing the same amount of work with less exhaustion; but he generally prefers to work up to his abilities for increased pay. Hence what is to be divided between the parties is not a fixed space, but a quantity that can be increased if certain terms of division are adopted.

As to time-wages, they may be satisfactory to the employer in case the work to be done is of a kind in which shirking is impossible or easily detected, because he can then, theoretically at least, pay according to what he gets. But practically in many branches of industry it is not easy to enforce faithful work, and the expense of so doing, where operations are on a large scale, is considerable. Moreover, it is always difficult to reduce the wages of a particular workman on the ground of inefficiency, his dissatisfaction being apt to be so great that his work becomes even less valuable, and it is often, with the present organization, impossible to dismiss him. On the other hand, many workmen for these very reasons prefer time-wages, and they are supported by the modern passion for equality independent of desert. The system of task-wages is odious to workmen as enabling employers to drive them up to their full capacity, workmen being as a rule of the opinion that the rate of wages can be fixed by the employer, and that after he has found out what a man can do, he will insist upon getting that quantity of work for the same wages previously paid for a less quantity.

Still, disregarding quality, the system of piece-wages is, where practicable, most satisfactory to the employer. He knows just what a certain quantity of work will cost him and can shape his course accordingly. It is not so satisfactory to workmen, for the following reasons: The inefficient men are obliged to disclose their inferiority, or are tempted to work beyond their ability. Even the capable are tempted to overwork themselves, and thus shorten their lives or at least their period of vigorous life. And there is also the principle of natural equality, as well as the apprehension that if the pace is quickened, the pay may be after a time reduced. The danger of overwork is real, but of its extent we know, unfortunately, very little. The other objections are outweighed by the advantages of a system that proportions wages to work.

All of these calculations are altered by introducing the consideration of quality. We read in advertisements of houses for sale that they have been built by day's work, it being taken for granted that this makes them more valuable than if built by contract; and this is characteristic of time-work as compared with piece-work. The only object of piece-work is that more work may be done in a given time, and there is necessarily a danger that the work will not be so well done. It is the interest of the workman, and may sometimes be for the interest of the employer, that quantity should be secured at the expense of quality. The system of piece-work, therefore, is limited by the necessity of inspection. Where the quality of work can be easily determined, piece-work tends to establish itself; but where inspection is difficult or costly, it is generally necessary to adhere to time-wages.

We have in a summary way outlined some of the principles involved in this subject, and most of them are recognized in the book before us. The author's observations are in the main well founded, but he is sometimes not free from bias. It cannot be admitted to be true that "an employer who puts his men on piece-wage does so with the express object of forcing the pace"; he may wish only to put a stop to shirking. The failure to present evidence as to the injurious effect upon workmen of working by the piece is a serious defect in the treatise, especially as some evidence is given showing increases of production under the piece-work system ranging from 30 to 100 per cent.

Mr. Schloss is very hostile to the system of "profit-sharing," and his criticisms are deserving of attention. One ground of objection is all to which our space allows us to refer. The workman, if promised a share of profits, may do more work, but the employer may be unfortunate or incompetent, and make no profits, in which case the workman would have been better off on piece-wages, getting his bonus as he earned it. But it is plain that the employer would come to ruin quicker under this system than the other, and his ruin might cause greater loss to his men if thus hastened. The whole case, however, is pretty fairly considered by the author, and his remarks upon the much abused term "coöperation" are noteworthy. This is but a small book for so great a subject, but it is a step in the right direction. We need evidence, however, better authenticated and more precise than most of what is furnished here, and it must be far more extensive before trustworthy deductions can be established. Until this work is done it is idle to discuss the "labor problem." If the labor bureaus in this country were officered by statisticians, and not by politicians, they might supply most valuable materials to economic science, but we cannot expect much from them at present. We may add that Mr. Schloss gained his experience in the employment of a private person, Mr. Charles Booth, whose investigations in London have earned the highest praise.

GREECE OF TO-DAY.

La Grèce d'aujourd'hui. Par Gaston Deschamps. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

M. DESCHAMPS, in his 'Greece as it is To-day,' very aptly remarks that "this nation is composed of one small city and a great number of villages; but the city possesses in the Acropolis a priceless treasure, and the villages are inhabited by a clever and enduring race who have undergone centuries of oppression without losing vitality, and who possess the gift of remembering their former greatness with the power of unquenchable hopefulness." It is not the tourist who hurries through this country in an Easter vacation, irritated by the brutality of the custom-house officer, the dishonesty of the innkeeper, and the rapacity of the coachman who has taken advantage of his desire to see as much as possible in a short space of time, who can give a trustworthy account of this interesting people; they do not reveal themselves to the hasty traveller, and he does not begin to know anything about them. Nor does the diplomatist who frequents the gilded drawing-rooms of the rich Athenian bankers, who ape French manners and French luxury, and who, under a would-be gloss of Western culture, have lost all the characteristics and virtues of their race. Yet how frequently have the newspaper letters and magazine articles of such superficial observers estranged European sympathy from the Greeks, especially at moments when the Eastern question threatened to become prominent and Greek pretensions seemed to fan the flame. It is therefore all the more satisfactory to read a book about Greece as fair and impartial as that of M. Gaston Deschamps. We must acknowledge that he saw the country under exceptionally favorable circumstances, as an archæological student of the French School at Athens. This admirable institution, under the scientific direction of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, gives a three-years' salaried residence in Greece. During the winter the young men spend their time in studying archæology and history; in the spring they excavate or travel in the interior of the country, or visit Constantinople, Smyrna, and the East. Besides being well prepared in archæology and history, our author had the further advantage of a very thorough knowledge of modern Greek, so that the fine shades did not escape him. He is gifted with excellent powers of observation, a fine sense of humor, and a praiseworthy self-restraint in not dwelling on the discomforts he had to endure during his excursions in the remoter provinces.

In modern Athens our author regrets that German architects under Otho have everywhere left their mark, reducing the capital of Greece to a poor copy of Munich. He congratulates the Greeks on having, in the teeth of all the good advice offered them, chosen their position under the Temple of Pallas Athene, for the establishment of their principal city. Ægina and Patras were suggested as being more practical sites for the purpose, but the enthusiasts who regarded the Acropolis as the centre of civilization, carried the day, and the position seems to have inspired even the Emperor of Germany with a degree of lyrical excitement which he gave vent to in telegrams. Gregorovius has recently remarked with great truth that the religion which has never perished from the human soul, but glows in it with continued fervor, is the worship of Athens. M. Deschamps acknowledges that the Acropolis is the one great monument which has not disappointed him, and which far exceeds any previous expectation founded on a photographic acquaintance; and this is owing to the exquisite color of its marble, its surroundings, the lovely atmospheric effects of changing light on the distant hills which form its background. Winter is soon over in this sun-favored land; already in February the days are springlike, and people turn from the feverish atmosphere of politics in the cafés and wander along the Sacred Way towards Eleusis, among scarlet anemones and lavender, or wander on the Acropolis, where asphodel, thyme, and wild sage are already in bloom. And the people are so easily satisfied, they need so little to amuse them. Renan, in his Life of St. Paul, has called attention to this characteristic of the race, its cheerful philosophic tendency, the sobriety of its pleasures, its good humor. Their chief amusement is to walk about for hours on fête days or Sundays; to remain quietly at home would imply mourning or being in trouble of some kind. The poorest workmen—sailors and such like—satisfy themselves with sitting on the turf of Lycabettus and singing their monotonous sing-song, while the better-off club together and buy a lamb, which they roast and

eat in the open air with a glass of resinate wine to wash it down. Our author remarks that they are ready enough to work when they are well paid, but they do not seek work with any persistence, nor do they stick to it long. He cites as an instance how a friend of his was employing some Greek workmen on a job which would have lasted a week. He paid them by the day, and after a few days they very respectfully informed him they were going home, as they had enough to live on for a whole month. The word in modern Greek signifying work is also synonymous with servitude, δουλεία.

The irresistible attraction that diplomatists have for Athenian society is also a sign of the times, for the Greeks pin their faith to the great Powers, always expecting some extension of territory, some help and protection from them in the hour of need. Another reason for their respect for diplomatists is that they are supposed with honeyed words to hide their meanings, and to the descendants of Ulysses this is a priceless charm. The fair Athenian's highest ambition, therefore, is to secure some diplomatic star in the matrimonial market as a means of shining at European courts. The beauty of the Athenian women does not call forth any enthusiasm on the part of our author. He says they have more likeness to Tanagra figurines than to the Venus of Melos. They are generally black-eyed, with thick black hair and long eyelashes, and at twenty they are very fascinating, but soon become faded and too exuberant in form for grace.

The entertainments given in Athens during the winter are chiefly due to the rich merchants who, having made their fortune abroad, in London, Manchester, Marseilles, or Calcutta, return to spend it in their native land. The finest houses are built by them, the hospitals, schools, and public monuments are the result of their munificence, and yet the deputies in the Chamber passed a law reserving for *autochthones* (the indigenous) all public offices and the salaries attaching to them. The professors of the University designated these benefactors as *heterochthones* (of another soil) and the street boys as χρυσοκάνθαροι (golden flies). It was only by a continuance of effusive hospitality that the newcomers healed this feud.

Politics have a great place in the life of the Greeks. A boy begins before he has left college to take part in political discussions, and goes on to the end of his days. There are many different political parties, and people take sides much more on account of their personal interests than for any other reason, for there is neither a religious question nor a social question. For many years the political see-saw has been between Tricoupis and Delyannis. Tricoupis was just out of office at the time of Deschamps's stay in Athens. He describes him very justly as a cold, silent, hard-working man, thoroughly Greek at heart, though English by education, manners, and appearance. He says that all trustworthy judges look upon him as the most remarkable man in Greece; even his enemies cannot but admire his zeal and his capacity for hard work. Deschamps rightly attributes his momentary unpopularity among certain classes to the question of taxation, which, in Greece as in all other civilized States, appeals more than any other to the poorer people. Tricoupis is also reproached with a desire to give a Western character to Greece, while it is a well-recognized trait of this people that, however much they may affect European habits and may desire to mould themselves to Western ideals, they still retain a love of local traditions. Those, even, who have seemingly become thoroughly Parisian by their extreme quickness at learning languages and their adaptability to the habits of those around them, when they return to their old homes present a curious contrast of extreme culture and simplicity of habits, "a mixture of the Boulevard loiterer and the pallikar, a sceptic and a fervent worshipper of the Panaghia" (the Madonna). Tricoupis has the haughty dignity of manner of a European statesman, and although he never for a moment gives up any of the pretensions of the Hellenic race, he likes to proceed in an orderly manner in Government matters, and has no sympathy with bluster and rhodomontade. He is a most distinguished orator, speaking always to the point, with great fervor and coolness, very convincing to his hearers, who cannot but feel that he has whatever matter he treats of well in hand. Yet there are some who pretend that his accent is not purely Attic, and that besides this he is not in touch with Greek character. We are continually told to remember that the Greeks have had only fifty years in which to educate themselves into a civilized nation, and Tricoupis expects them to take a place already among the Powers of Europe.

"In the early years of his Ministry he increased the roads, the railroads, had the seaports properly put in order, built lighthouses on dangerous shores, dressed the soldiers in cloth with shiny buttons. He decreed that the Hellenic navy should no longer manœuvre on land, nor should the cavalry go on foot as in former times. At first the people were delighted at these improvements. The pallikars took the train and climbed on to the promontory of Munychia to watch the evolutions of their light torpedo-boats in the bay of Phalerum; they admired also, on the days of the reviews, the march by of their valiant army, and smiled with contempt as they thought of the rags the Turkish soldiers were dressed in. But alas, their good humor did not last long. When they came to pay for all these fine things, the shepherds of Arcadia were exasperated, they hid their drachmas between their skin and their vests, and made for the mountains. The tax-collectors were received in the villages with abuse and lamentations. The dogs were turned on them, and many of these functionaries were able to feel, notwithstanding their trousers, that Homer was right when he calls the Molossus of Ætolia hard of tooth. This good Greek people, notwithstanding its brilliant qualities, is more democratic, more fond of equality, more imperious than our own; it wants to control, without respite or measure, its own mandatories. It pays its taxes most unwillingly and only when forced to do so. Then when they are paid it remembers neither the arrears nor the debt, nor the functionaries who have to be paid, nor the thousand expenses a budget has to bear. One day my servant, the Cretan Janni, said to me in a tearful voice: 'Oh, sir, under Delyannis we paid fewer taxes, and yet we bought many warships nevertheless.' 'Oh, stranger!' a schoolmaster of Lidoriki in Doris said to me, 'we are heavily laden like donkeys, and we can carry no more.'"

Our author is too just to allow himself to say much about Delyannis, whom he considers the representative of the pallikar feeling. He remarks that the Delyannis party very disingenuously made use of the Cretan question to excite popular feeling against Tricoupis at that moment.

With regard to brigandage, a subject which naturally concerns travellers, M. Deschamps tells us some amusing stories. He says that, thanks to the laws Tricoupis enforced, one can travel with great security all through the country. It is only as an electioneering agent that the brigand is formidable, when he takes across the frontier, and detains for the necessary time the number of voters whose absence from the poll will insure the election of the candidate he favors. After an exploit of this kind he retires to Rumelia to empty his pockets in peace, as he may be certain that the Turkish police will not interfere with him. There seems to be an interesting brigand chief whose exploits have attracted some attention during the last few years, a certain Athanasius, or Capt. Thanasi, as his familiars call him, of picturesque appearance, who with a few pallikars stopped the train between Constantinople and Adrianople, carrying off several of Cook's tourists, besides a banker named Israel. The same Thanasi captured a very important Turk, a nephew of the Sultan, who on his return told wonderful tales of the habits of this mountain king, and who for his ransom had to give the revenue of his lands for a whole year. Among other customs it seems that Thanasi subscribes to three newspapers, one French, one English, and the third Greek; the two former are to keep him abreast of passing events and to inform him of important travellers who may be within reach, while the third is to satisfy his feeling of patriotism, for Thanasi is Greek by birth as well as Greek at heart, has an extreme aversion to Jews, and, although it sometimes happens that he kills one, he never condescends to rob them. This hero will doubtless be immortalized in the klepht songs, if his exploits are as remarkable as the stories we read would seem to show him to be.

The orthodox faith has been for ages an all-powerful factor in preserving Greek nationality in the Turkish provinces. Our author devotes one of the most interesting chapters of his book to demonstrating the attachment of the Greeks to their religion. The politicians who made the treaties supposed that as soon as the limitations of the fatherland had been defined, its children would give up their homes under Mohammedan rule and return to Greece. Such, however, was not the tendency, nor has it been since the fall of the Byzantine Empire. The Greeks have always remained where they were, retaining, notwithstanding, every feature of their nationality, under whatever despotic and hated foreign rule. So it was of old in Naucratis and Bubastis in Egypt; so it is even now in Smyrna, Thasos, Halicarnassus, and Sattalieh. In some remote regions of Asia Minor, Deschamps relates that they have lost all knowledge of the Greek language—in Isbarta, in Caramania, for instance, where the priest repeats the service in Turkish. These people are so ashamed of no longer knowing their own language that they tell a tale of the Turks having cut out the tongues of all the inhabitants so that the children were obliged to learn the language of the conquerors. Capo d'Istria, in giving a definition of Modern Greece to Mr. Willmot-Horton, said: "The Greek nation is composed of men who, since the conquest of Constantinople, have not ceased to practise the orthodox faith, to speak the language of their fathers, and who have remained under the spiritual or temporal jurisdiction of their church in whatever part of Turkey they dwelt." The Prime Minister has therefore, besides governing Greece, to consider the interests of the Greeks dwelling under Turkish rule, who, notwithstanding diplomatic fictions, are under his protection. This makes his position a very difficult one.

The orthodox ritual has remained quite or almost unchanged since it superseded polytheism, and some of the old pagan ceremonies are intermixed. For instance, on the site of an old temple of Apollo (the sun-god) the peasants of Attica go to pray to St. Elias and hang

branches of olive and myrtle, bits of stuff, zinc eyes, and other ex-votos, to obtain cures or to have their prayers answered. The old temples have been turned into Christian chapels, and afford a rich field for the archæologist when he comes on the ruins of such a church. Byzantine icons take the place of pagan idols, and are endowed with the same powers. The church ceremonies appeal to the soul through physical sensations. They are always planned from an effective and picturesque point of view. The gloom of the churches, the lighted tapers and odor of incense, the continual genuflections and signs of the cross the faithful are in the habit of making, impress one more as mechanical and traditional customs than as anything really felt.

Education also takes an all-important place in the organization of Greece. There are thirty-five gymnasia, more than 300 secondary schools, 1,569 primary schools for boys, 332 primary schools for girls. Besides these, in which education is free, there are innumerable independent institutions, among which is the Arsakeion, a college for women, which furnishes school-teachers not only for Greece, but for all the Greek schools in Turkey. This college was endowed by a rich Greek of Epirus, and Greeks from every part of the East send their girls to it. The University also, which is free, is chiefly due to the generosity of the Greeks of Turkey, since their contribution (422,000 drachmas) surpassed that of the Greeks of Hellas, who contributed 308,000 drachmas. This institution is conducted very much on the plan of German universities. It is said that on the day of its inauguration one of the old heroes of the war of independence, being present with all his pistols and yataghans stuck in his belt, turned to his neighbor and remarked: "This place will do more for the salvation of our country than all the sabres of the pallikars." His appreciation was a just one, but there is no doubt that at the present moment, as our author very justly remarks, the liberal professions are overcrowded, and this drives many into the field of politics. It is to be hoped that this difficulty will be solved in time.

"An old legend related by an Icelandic monk who made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem in 1102, tells that in the church of the Parthenon before the image of the Panaghia Atheniotissa there was a miraculous lamp burning whose flame never went out although the oil was never renewed. In the same manner during long centuries, to the great surprise of the barbarians and for the consolation of the conquered nations, the suffering soul of Hellas has endured bright and unquenchable."

The book deserves careful reading. It is amusing throughout, and contains descriptions of the author's journeys in the provinces, excavations in Amorgos, and adventures by the way.

Sir Walter Raleigh: A Biography. By William Stebbing, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

RALEIGH is the impersonation of the Elizabethan age, the close of which his death marks with singular distinctness, and of which his poem, composed on the eve of his execution, is the dirge. His character is preeminently Elizabethan in its adventurousness, its versatility, its restlessness, its unbounded aspirations, its union of culture with the force of the politician, of the soldier with the sailor, of the practical with the poetical and the romantic; we must add, in the looseness of its morality. For between the moral code of the Catholic Middle Ages and the moral code of Protestantism there was an interregnum marked in the lives of most of the Elizabethan heroes and heroines, and notably in that of "Gloriana" herself. When Raleigh laid his head upon the block, Nature broke a noble and memorable though not a perfect mould. The man's versatility was most marvellous, as were the varying phases of his character and the vicissitudes of his life. "To keep at once independent and in unison the poet, statesman, courtier, schemer, patriot, soldier, sailor, freebooter, discoverer, colonist, castle-builder, historian, philosopher, chemist, prisoner, and visionary," is, Mr. Stebbing says, the biographer's perplexing task. He might have added to the catalogue "member of Parliament" and "ship-builder"; for Raleigh was skilled in ship-building as well as in navigation. In the whole Life there is not a moment of repose or languor. Prison hours are spent in writing history or making chemical experiments. Even disease brings no cessation, and when Raleigh fights for his life against his enemies, he is struggling not for existence but for power to act.

He was so constantly on the stage in all the movements and enterprises of his time, and the interest which he excited caused him to be so often mentioned by his leading contemporaries, that the materials for his Life are pretty copious. Mr. Stebbing seems to have made diligent, skilful, and critical use of them; and unless further search in the Simancas Archives should bring something new to light, his work will probably be accepted as final. Considering that he has always to be picking his way, he has succeeded in giving us an interesting and flowing narrative. One riddle he does not solve: he does not make it clear why Raleigh, till court persecution turned popular feeling in his favor, was so intensely hated. That so restless a schemer should be mistrusted among his own set is intelligible; still more intelligible is it that he should have been excluded from the Privy Council, where he would certainly have tried to dominate, by the jealousy of the Cecils. But the Cecils and the rest of his own set were his rivals. Why should the people hate him? His antagonism to Essex seems hardly a sufficient cause. His services to the nation in the struggle with Spain had been brilliant. His buccaneering tendencies would only enhance his popularity. His orthodoxy was suspected, though apparently without much reason; but belief was then in a general state of confusion, there seems to have been a tendency to free thinking among the higher classes, and the only strong religious feeling among the lower classes was hatred of Rome. Even want of sympathy with the masses, which is imputed to him, would hardly, unless manifested in some way of which we have no record, have raised the mob against him in the streets and made them pelt him as he passed. Something, apparently, is lost to our sight in the mist of time.

With regard to the conduct of the great adventurer in the last tragic episode of his life, there is some difference of opinion between Mr. Gardiner and Mr. Stebbing. Mr. Gardiner takes the severer, Mr. Stebbing the more favorable view. At such a distance of time fine points elude decision. It is vain to think that Raleigh can be made out to have been strictly virtuous or veracious, while on the other hand his lapses from virtue and veracity were not inconsistent with the heroism of those days. Was not Capt. John Smith a hero, and did he not on occasion draw the long bow? Nothing, however, in Raleigh's conduct, taken at the worst, can palliate that of James and his advisers, among whom it is sad to have to number Bacon. The execution of Raleigh upon a State conviction of treason, itself monstrously unjust, when in the meantime he had been commissioned and employed by the Crown as commander of the expedition to Guiana, was of all judicial murders the vilest. Its iniquity was only enhanced by its literal conformity to law. Suppose his commission was under the Privy, not under the Great Seal, and suppose the phrase "trusty and well beloved" was omitted; these subterfuges only betrayed premeditation. To suppose that James and Cecil did not know what they were doing when they sent forth Raleigh into Spanish territories and waters is preposterous. He was sacrificed to the growing inclination of James for a Spanish connection. The signal reaction of sentiment in his favor which followed his murder was a public verdict which posterity has with one voice endorsed, and which no criticism of Raleigh's acts or words in the Guiana expedition or its sequel can affect in the slightest degree. Perhaps the nearest parallel to the murder of Raleigh is the murder of Lally; but even this lacks the element of hypocritical legality which renders the murder of Raleigh so supremely odious a crime.

Schools and Masters of Fence. By Egerton Castle. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Pp. 355.

WITH the aid of numerous illustrations, reproduced from volumes which have become inaccessible to the general reader, Mr. Castle has traced the gradual changes in the art of fencing from its remote origin in the sword and buckler play of the middle ages down to the refinements of the present century. An appendix contains a number of plates showing all the known forms of the sword, from the great two-handed weapon of the fourteenth century to the duelling sword of the eighteenth. As new masters arose and invented new methods of attack and defence, the armorers produced improved weapons adapted to the changed order of things, and so this chronological gallery of typical swords becomes a history of swordsmanship.

Paradoxical as it may seem, the development of fencing was largely due to the invention of gunpowder, and that development has reached its perfection in these latter days when fencing is practically valueless except as an exercise. After gunpowder had made armor worse than useless, it became apparent to the fighting men that the heavy sword must give place to the rapier, and that the deadly thrust would soon take the place of the slashing and cutting with which these gentry had amused themselves for centuries. In Shakspere's time the rapier had come into general use, and with it was carried a dagger which was held in the left hand for the purpose of parrying the adversary's thrusts. Hence, in "Romeo and Juliet," we read how *Mercutio*

> . . . "with one hand beats
> Cold death aside, and with the other sends
> It back to Tybalt."

Fechter, Mounet-Sully, and other actors who have appeared in the character of *Hamlet* in recent years, have taken much pride in their performance of the fencing scene, which they carried out in accordance with the rules of modern scientific fencing, but without regard to the fact that in the play *Hamlet* was challenged to a trial of rapier and dagger play. Dumas, Ainsworth, and other novelists have been guilty of similar anachronisms in applying modern terms to combats supposed to have taken place in the seventeenth cen-

tury, when such terms were entirely unknown.

Carranza in Spain and Marozzo in Italy were among the earliest masters of fence in the sixteenth century, while Giganti and Capo Ferro, who wrote voluminous treatises in the early years of the seventeenth century, were the first to explain the advantages of the lunge, and may therefore be regarded as the forerunners of the modern school. It is curious to note how fencing, like so many other avocations, has run in families. The original Angelo came to London about 1750, and he and his descendants taught fencing there for a century. The Cavalcabos taught in Italy and France for a similar period, while the Kreusslers were well-known masters from the first quarter of the seventeenth to the end of the eighteenth century. Mr. Castle stops short of the modern school of fencing, so that his book cannot be regarded as of special importance to the beginner, but it is full of curious information, and, in comparatively small compass, gives a sufficient history of the evolution of swordsmanship.

Specimens of Old French, IX.–XV. Centuries. Edited by Paget Toynbee. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

We have here an excellent collection of extracts for students of Old French, probably the best, taken all together, of the various *Choix* and *Selections* covering the period in question; for, apart from the Strasburg Oaths and the Cantilena of St. Eulalia, which perforce represent the IXth century, we find sufficiently long specimens of the 'Chanson de Roland,' the Romance of 'Reynard the Fox,' the 'Roman de Brut,' and the 'Roman de Rou' of Wace, the 'Roman de Troie,' Chrestien de Troye's 'Perceval le Gallois,' Jean Bodel's 'Chanson des Saisnes,' and 'Les Douz Amans' of Marie de France for the XIth and XIIth centuries. All the leading names of the next three centuries are found, accompanied, in the great majority of cases, by such selections as evidence Mr. Toynbee's judgment and taste. It is true that the reader will look in vain for more than one favorite piece, especially among the poets of the XVth century, but he has been warned in the prefatory note that, save in rare cases, pieces which have done duty before in other collections have been omitted. This of itself is scarcely a sufficient reason for leaving out passages which possess great literary merit as well as linguistic interest; and while Mr. Toynbee's object is to show the growth of the language in the first place, and, in the second, to give the preference to such specimens as bear upon either the literature or the history of England, we nevertheless hold that a work like this should not exclude an excellent piece simply because it has already appeared.

This reservation made, and the object of the book being borne in mind, there remains nothing but praise for the manner in which Mr. Toynbee has carried out his purpose. He has covered the ground very thoroughly, and there is scarcely a work of any real importance or an author of any note unrepresented in his collection. He has made a judicious choice among the lesser lights, and fairly enough divided his space between the various forms of literature at different epochs. The *chanson de geste*, the *roman*, the *chronique*, the *ballade*, and even the farce and the mystery, are well exemplified, and in this respect the book is valuable to the student of literature. The introduction comprises a brief sketch of the origin of the French language and a *précis* of the characteristics of the Norman and Anglo-Norman, the Picard, and the Burgundian dialects, all of which are, further on, illustrated in the body of the work. A summary compendium of the grammar of Old French completes this part and speaks well for Mr. Toynbee's ability to compress essentials within a small compass. The notes are very full, scholarly, and to the point; they fill one hundred and ten closely printed pages, and, while exhibiting thorough knowledge, are not overloaded with mere erudition for erudition's sake. A glossary of two hundred and five pages, in two columns, completes the work, and makes the study of the numerous specimens a comparatively simple matter. The whole book is one which will surely be appreciated by lovers of Old French, and which can be recommended to those who desire to become acquainted with some of the literary riches of the middle ages.

The Philosophy of Spinoza. [Series of Modern Philosophers. Edited by E. Hershey Sneath, Ph. D.] By George Stuart Fullerton. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1892.

The idea of this series of books is to present the substance of the leading systems of modern philosophy in selections from the original works. Its object is to facilitate the study of the history of philosophy in colleges, as well as to meet the wants of clergymen and others who desire to make a pretty thorough, but yet not a professional, study of philosophy. Whether the plan, although it is skilfully executed in this volume, attains its ends as nearly as careful and extended but free expositions would do, may well be doubted. A student who does not want Locke's 'Essay Concerning Human Understanding' (which he can easily procure for about the price of the abridgment) on his shelves, nor Hamilton's 'Reid,' nor Kant's 'Critique of the Pure Reason,' is a person who will not understand selections from these works, and whose wants would be better served by such expositions as modern scholars to whom the several works are specially sympathetic would be able to set forth.

Of no writer is this nearly so true as Spinoza. Nobody but a ripe philosopher, profoundly versed in the history of thought, is fit to read Spinoza's 'Ethics.' A collegian will be sure to miss the essence of it, and any amateur metaphysician whose ideas have not been matured on a special side by deep reading in theology will be almost sure to fall into the same error. The reason is that Spinoza did not understand himself—that may be said of nine out of ten great thinkers, but above all of Spinoza—and consequently was a miserable expositor of his own ideas. That which will chiefly attract the attention of any inexperienced reader of the 'Ethics' is its argumentation and its pseudo-mathematical form; and if he is well versed in modern logic, these can only excite his scorn. If he is not so versed, the kernel of the book will remain still more completely shut away from his apprehension.

Another fault of this series is that not sufficient attention is given to the biographies of the philosophers. Light may be thrown upon any doctrine from the life and personality of its author; but this is particularly true of Spinoza's. Imagine a not very little but rather short Jew, somewhat shabby, but scrupulously neat and almost prim, too formal, though in forms of his own, walking with short steps, talking in short-clipped syllables, of colossal conceit. His morality is stern, not to say narrow. He so values his self-respect that he not only will not accept a pension from his own people, on condition of living like a respectable member of the synagogue, but he will not accept a pension from Louis XIV. without conditions; he refuses his consent to a fortune being left to him, and when the will of the proposed giver enjoins his heir to take care of Spinoza, the latter reduces the yearly payment from 500 florins, which the heir himself had proposed, to 300. In fact, Spinoza carries his love of independence and detestation of being under obligations so far that he will not accept any employment proper to an educated man, but practises a handicraft. He lives his life among artisans and the lower middle class, and meets no other persons except his own devoted admirers. To a man of genius, such a life would have been utterly unendurable; but Spinoza, however extraordinary his ideas, was a sluggish mind. He passed his days in a narrow circle of ideas, concerning which he was continually inventing quillets or catches, more or less puzzling, which he took for arguments. The great ideas of pantheism could not have come to him in that way; but how they did come he does not tell us. He thought that a matter of no consequence, and would have been unable to give any accurate account of it. Nobody has yet elucidated the real nature of pantheistic thought, nor shown its relation to matters of experience. The account usually given, like Spinoza's own, remains on the surface. But we cannot go further into such a subject here than just to remark that the service he performed was to render certain conceptions, as that of the Absolute, more sharp and clear than they had before been, but not to prove any truth.

Prof. Fullerton repeats doubts concerning Spinoza's love affair which appear to us perfectly gratuitous. He did not practically leave Amsterdam when the lady was twelve years old, but when she was seventeen; and the whole history seems to be from every point of view exceedingly probable.

Illegitimacy, and the Influence of Seasons upon Conduct: Two Studies in Demography. By Albert Leffingwell, M.D. With maps and diagrams. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

It is the avowed ambition of these two essays to make statistics in regard to illegitimate births and to periodicity in human conduct and mental disease, not only easily intelligible, but also interesting. With this double purpose in view, nothing has been omitted which could be gained for clearness and picturesqueness by colored maps, diagrams, a generous distribution of statistical tables throughout the text, and numerous statistical summaries and suggestions in the appendix. Moreover, the style is amiable, and there is something contagious in the enthusiasm of the author—the love of statistics as such, and the buoyant confidence in their ultimate utility which sometimes atones for present inconclusiveness.

The study of illegitimacy relates chiefly to the United Kingdom, with a liberal use of corroborative evidence in regard to other countries. Much of the material comes first-hand from official reports, and conclusions as to local or national peculiarities are drawn from detailed analyses of annual returns covering a considerable number of years. A glance at the returns of the Registrar-General of

Births, Deaths, and Marriages reveals the social import and the local peculiarities of illegitimacy in each of the three principal divisions of the United Kingdom. The number of births registered as illegitimate in England was 42,189 in 1879, and 40,627 in 1889—nearly three times the whole number of children born in Birmingham and Liverpool each year; in Scotland the numbers for these twelve years vary from 10,727 in 1879 to 9,643 in 1889; while Ireland for the same period shows a decline from 3,367 to 3,049. The real significance of these figures is seen in the proportion which these illicit births bear to the total number of children born. In 1878 the proportion of illegitimate to all the children born was, in Ireland 23 to the thousand, in England 47, and in Scotland 84; while the corresponding figures for 1889 are, Ireland 28 to the thousand, England 46, and Scotland 79. In other words, year after year, of each thousand births in Scotland almost twice as many are illegitimate as in England and Wales, and more than three times as many as in Ireland. So persistent are these figures, and so constant is their relation to one another, that the author not only feels warranted in predicting to a nicety the rate for the remainder of the present century, but also feels bound to assume the same local characteristics for earlier centuries, about which there is no available evidence. Indeed, each great political division of Europe seems to have its special illegitimacy average, repeated with considerable regularity from year to year. From the statistical summary covering the years from 1869 to 1889, it appears that Russia is the only European country which in any way disputes with Ireland the honor of the lowest rate of illegitimacy. Holland stands next, with Switzerland pressing close upon the rate given for England and Wales; Italy, France, Belgium, Prussia, Hungary, and Norway approximate more nearly the rate assigned to Scotland, while Denmark, Sweden, Saxony, Bavaria, and Austria follow in order, with 93, 101, 125, 141, and 147 illegitimate children per thousand births in 1889.

Passing now from these larger political or national units to still smaller ones, we are confronted with the still more remarkable fact that not only each country, but each department, county, city, and neighborhood, has its own peculiar tribute of bastardy, yielded with almost unfailing regularity to the sum total of the nation. The evidence on this point is given in detail. Ireland does not differ more widely from England and Scotland than the Irish counties differ from one another; and the same is true of England, Scotland, and Continental countries. In England it is hardly fifty years since the first attempts were made to get at these figures; but the persistence of local standards of morality is forcibly illustrated by the fact that the very counties where an abnormally high rate of illegitimacy prevailed in 1842 have retained their unenviable preëminence for half a century. If we adopt still another test, and state the proportion of illegitimate births to each thousand unmarried women (spinsters and widows) between the ages of fifteen and forty-five, the average during the ten years from 1878 to 1887 is over 21 per thousand in Scotland, 14 per thousand in England and Wales, and rather less than 5 per thousand in Ireland —a proportion about five times greater for Scotland than for Ireland.

How are these variations to be accounted for? What, in short, are the causes of illegitimacy? Poverty, it is often alleged, is the chief cause. Yet how, upon this supposition, shall we explain why the rate in Ireland is so much lower than in England and Scotland? Nay, even, how account for the still more striking fact that in Ireland, a section of the prosperous county of Ulster yields an average of fifty-one illegitimate children per thousand births—greater even than England and Wales—while a wretched barren in Connaught shows what is perhaps the lowest ratio of illegitimacy in Europe? Is, then, illegitimacy but a part of the demoralization of modern city life? Alas for bucolic virtue, even when allowances are made for faulty registration, London, Birmingham, and Liverpool would seem to have a much lower proportion of illicit births than North Wales, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Shropshire. In certain secluded sections of England and Wales "every sixth or seventh or eighth child is a bastard," and the rate in certain counties increases with the distance from the metropolis. Doubtless there is faulty registration in large towns, and unfathomed dissipation; but the rural standard of sexual morality suffers strangely in this superficial comparison of official returns. In like manner, the variations are not to be accounted for by differences in secular education. Good morals and a high standard of elementary education do not always coexist: witness the high rate of illegitimacy in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Saxony, and Scotland, as contrasted with the minimum in Russia and Ireland.

Does religious training furnish any key to the mystery? Our author thinks it does. Yet the inadequacy of such an explanation is seen in the immense local variations in the same country and in different countries with the same religion. Nevertheless, it is in religion, and in legislation and legal impediments to marriage, that he finds a partial explanation. For the rest, the irreconcilable differences in regard to the local prevalence of illegitimacy are referred to the convenient limbo of "heredity." The result is a somewhat fantastic tracing back of the lines of local ancestry to Celts, Romans, Angles, Jutes, Saxons, Danes, and Normans, "to the different strains of English blood making themselves felt in individual conduct even after a thousand years of unity as a nation." At all events, we are told, this hypothesis "possesses one remarkable advantage: it explains phenomena otherwise inexplicable." All this indictment of piratical ancestry is supplemented by numerous statistical tables and colored maps, which make the mingling of fact and fancy interesting. Brief discussions of remedies, of the tendency to improvement, of the ages and occupations of the women involved, and of the alleged compensations for illegitimacy in the way of great names, complete the study.

The second essay of the volume, the influence of seasons upon conduct, is likewise dedicated to the proposition that it is the unexpected which happens. It is not the gloom of winter and the season of poverty and distress that goads men oftenest to suicide, insanity, violence, and murder. It is the gradually increasing light and heat of spring and summer that swells the birth-rate, legitimate and illegitimate, rouses the passions, precipitates divorce, murder, assaults, duels, riots, love, suicide, and revolution. The theory is not a new one. It is the planets which control our destinies—or perhaps the spots upon the sun. The American Revolution is reduced to "cosmic" influence, and the patriotic frenzies of July Fourth but coincide with other rash emotional and mental aberrations. Unfortunately, the author has confined himself largely to the morbid aspects of "cosmic" influence, though it is evident that the emotional exaltation and quickening life of spring is not confined to criminal and pathological channels of expression. The suggestions as to seasonal activity in reproductive instincts add nothing to Westermark's discussion of the subject. The statistics, however, are interesting, and are presented with a naïve enthusiasm characteristic of the book.

A Text-Book of Physics. By Edwin H. Hall and Joseph Y. Bergen, jr. Henry Holt & Co.

THIS little book has been prepared on the basis of the Harvard College "Descriptive List of Elementary Physical Experiments," of which it may be regarded as an expansion. In 1886 the College decided to establish a requirement of laboratory work to be recommended in place of text-book work, though the latter, considerably increased, remained as an alternative for those who could not command laboratory facilities. A special course of experiments, carefully thought out and described in detail, was necessary to make the new plan a success; and this was furnished in a pamphlet issued by the College in 1887, which has been very successful. The work before us is a supplementary text-book, which contains the full text of the College pamphlet, with minor experiments, discussion, and problem work. The book itself is in all respects excellent, and must exert a marked influence on the teaching of physics in this country.

We note a few omissions which may be worthy of consideration. The method of weighing by vibrations is not too difficult for the beginner, and is now almost universally adopted, especially by chemists. A good spring balance, with a strip of brass moving stiffly in its slot, so as to register the maximum extent of motion of the index, and a kilogramme weight, may be made to give very clear ideas of inertia under different conditions of velocity as well as of so-called centrifugal force. Some of the statements are only approximately true in cases in which the exact truth is not difficult of comprehension. This applies, for instance, to the statement of the law of Boyle. The experiment of Archimedes should be followed by the complementary experiment, easily made with a platform balance, a tumbler of water carefully balanced, and a weight suspended from a fixed point by a string. These are perhaps trivial criticisms, but such books ought to require none.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bastable, Prof. C. F. Public Finance. Macmillan. $4.
Bazán, Emilia P. A Christian Woman. Cassell. 50 cents.
Bernhardt, W. Hauptfakta aus der Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur. Boston: Schoenhof. 75 cents.
Bissell, Prof. E. C. Genesis Printed in Colors. Hartford: Belknap & Warfield. $1.25.
Bristol, G. P. Ten Selected Orations of Lysias. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Browning Year Book. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Cave-Browne, Rev. J. The History of Boxley Parish. Maidstone, Eng.: E. J. Dickinson.
Chapin, Rev. A. C. Manzoni's I Promessi Sposi. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 75 cents.
Chardenal, C. A. Complete French Course. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Martin Chuzzlewit. Macmillan. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Old Curiosity Shop. Macmillan. $1.
French, H. W. The Lance of Kanana. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Garner, R. L. The Speech of Monkeys. Charles L. Webster & Co. $1.
Genone, Hudor. The Last Tenet. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Keasbey, E. Q. The Law of Electric Wires in Streets and Highways. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $3.50.

Lee, Rev. J. W. The Making of a Man. Cassell. $1.50.
Parker, Theodore. Lessons from the World of Matter and the World of Man. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Payne, E. J. History of the New World Called America. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Reddall, Frederick. The Sunny Side of Politics. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Williams, Prof. S. G. The History of Modern Education. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Wood, J. S. Gramercy Park: A Story of New York. Appletons.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 1, 1892.

The Week.

THE correspondence between Secretary of State Foster and Mr. Herbert, the British Chargé d'Affaires, narrows itself to the single question whether the promise of the Canadian Government to abolish the discriminating rebates after the close of the present season ought to be taken as a sufficient concession on their part, and whether the President ought therefore to have withheld his proclamation regarding tolls on the Sault Ste. Marie Canal under the recent act of Congress. Mr. Foster shows that no option was left to the President by the act referred to. If he was satisfied that the discrimination existed, he was to issue the proclamation. He had discretion as to the amount of the toll to be levied at the Sault Canal, but not as to the levying of some amount. It would have been mere affectation for the President to say that he was not satisfied of the fact of discrimination when that fact had been admitted by the other side, and was sought to be defended on various grounds. Being convinced of the fact, he had nothing to do but to determine the amount of the tolls to be imposed on Canadian vessels or property passing through the Sault Canal, and in this he was certainly moderate. It would have been better, in our view, if Congress had made the act prospective in its operation. If it had provided for the imposition of tolls at the Sault after the close of the present season, probably all friction would have been avoided. As the matter is of small moment any way, it would have been worth the taking of some pains to avoid a difficulty.

Premier Abbott inherited this embarrassment from Premier Macdonald. That thrifty statesman found it necessary, in a certain political emergency, to conciliate the town of Kingston in order to get votes. He accomplished his end by making a discriminating rebate of canal tolls, the effect of which was to make Kingston a better transshipping point than Ogdensburg. The discrimination was in violation of the spirit of the treaty of Washington, if not of its letter. That treaty secures "to the citizens of the United States the use of the Welland, St. Lawrence, and other canals of the Dominion on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion." The refund of tolls to Canadians after the vessels have passed through is a violation of this provision, and the Canadian Government has acknowledged that it is such by promising to discontinue it at the end of the present season. Still, as a matter of comity, we should have preferred that our own Congress had taken a little more time or left a little more room for Premier Abbott to "crawl out."

President Harrison made a short speech at Malone on Friday. The greater part of it related to the restoration of our ocean-carrying commerce, which he believed was an event not far distant, and a consummation greatly to be desired. "I take great delight," he said, "in the contemplation of the fact, which, I believe, is now assured, that before another year has rolled around one of the swiftest and best of all the great lines of steamships that go out of the port of New York will bear the American flag at the fore." The President's naïve delight arises from the fact that Congress, in violation of the great principle of protection and of our wonderful navigation laws, has admitted two foreign-built steamships to American registry. Of course this might have been done before, in which case Mr. Harrison's heart might have been cheered years and years ago. In his remarks at Malone he had the grace to say that by the restoration of our ocean-carrying trade we should merely recover a position that we formerly held. "We have been deprived," he said, "of our once proud participation in the ocean carrying trade of the world. I think we should now resume it." The thing which has mainly prevented us from resuming it heretofore has been the prevalence of an opinion that a cheap coat makes a cheap man, and that a cheap ship makes a cheap country. The gradual disappearance of such crude notions will no doubt cause the United States "to step into the position of power and influence among the great commercial nations of the world" which Mr. Harrison now so fondly predicts.

There appears to be a commendable disposition at the State Department to go slow and be sure of the facts in the case of the six Venezuelans forcibly taken from an American merchant-ship in Puerto Cabello. Venezuelan affairs are in such a chaotic condition at present that it is difficult to say who was the representative of the legal authority over that harbor at the time; but it seems clear that the seizure was made by proper legal process under the *de-facto* authorities. If this proves to be the fact, the parallel between this affair and the Barrundia case will be close, and it will be interesting to note whether our Government is again prepared to assert its jurisdiction in foreign waters. The test question to put to Americans in such a dispute is the one asked by Prof. Woolsey in his recent article: "Suppose the *Trent*, with Mason and Slidell on board, had sailed into New York harbor, would the right of their seizure have been questioned by any power on earth?"

It was only a few days ago that the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* was severely rebuked by the *Press* of the same city for telling the truth about the condition of the Treasury. He was reminded that it ill became a man who had been "honored" by the Republican party (meaning that he had been made Clerk of the Ways and Means Committee) to call attention to the fact that the Treasury was bankrupt, even if the fact were so. But he returned to the subject in Friday morning's *Ledger* undismayed, saying that his "facts and figures may not be relished by partisans, but it is due to the public that they should be fairly stated." He reaffirms the bankruptcy of the Treasury in the sense that "the appropriations made by Congress for several years have been in excess of receipts," and that Secretary Foster has been forced by lack of funds to "defer" "claims against the Government" and appropriations for "the construction of public works." This has been no secret, of course, in spite of Mr. Foster's perfunctory denials, but it is well to have the truth thus frankly set forth by a Republican authority who thinks it his first duty to be honest. He quotes Senator Allison as saying that "after this year we are likely to have a deficiency, which must be met by an increase of taxes." This seems a good place to recall a remark made by Senator Hale, when he was protesting, in the name of Mr. Blaine, against the removal of the sugar duties: "I do not, for one, Mr. President, envy the future of any party that takes off taxes this year and is obliged to reimpose them next year."

The reason assigned by Mr. Sweeney, the leader of the switchmen at Buffalo, for declaring the strike "off" was, that "we can't fight 8,000 militia and twelve powerful railroad corporations." This short sentence comprises the whole philosophy of the strike and of most strikes in this country. It implies that the strikers could carry their point if they were allowed to take possession of the property, burn cars, throw trains off the track, and kill or maim all persons seeking employment in the places they have abandoned. But if the officers of the law do their duty, if they afford that protection to life and property which it is the main object and purpose of Government to supply—which is nine parts of the functions of civilized society—then Mr. Sweeney and his troop of a few hundred men are compelled to acknowledge themselves beaten. When the outrages at Buffalo began, we were assured by Sweeney that they were

the work of roughs and tramps who are always ready for a disturbance in every large city, and that the switchmen were models of good deportment. They were ready even to mount guard over the property of the companies and prevent the disorderly elements from doing any damage. But now it appears that the strike is off simply because too many men had mounted guard over the property and too much coercion had been applied to the disorderly elements. The protection was altogether too complete and thorough. It must be said for Mr. Sweeney that he was not solely to blame for what took place at Buffalo. The strike was ordered by the switchmen as a body, and not by the Grand Master on his own responsibility.

The failure of Hugh O'Donnell, leader of the Homestead strike, to draw a crowd to hear him in Cooper Institute last Thursday, is an encouraging indication. Only a handful of people attended, and O'Donnell got scarcely more than enough money to pay the rent of the hall. Various reasons are given for the slim attendance: the weather was very bad, and it was announced in advance that in addition to an admission fee of twenty-five cents a collection would be taken up at the close. Both these reasons may have been sufficient to keep many people away, but they would not have operated in that manner a few years ago. The real cause of the meeting's failure is undoubtedly the change of public sentiment which has taken place even among the workingmen themselves towards strikes and the leaders of them.

The excellent conduct of the militia at Buffalo is deservedly calling forth praise from all quarters. Their duty has been far from a pleasant one, but they have performed it without complaining and with really remarkable steadiness and self-control. The service was entirely novel to them, yet they have gone through it like veterans rather than like green troops. Taken in connection with the equally commendable behavior of the militia at Homestead, the experience at Buffalo affords ample assurance that in its citizen soldiery society has a safe and sure protection against outbreaks of anarchy in any form.

The observations by Mr. T. V. Powderly upon the workingmen's expectation of benefits from the protective tariff, will furnish food for a good deal of solemn Republican thought. Mr. Powderly says that "our Government has enacted protective legislation in the interest of labor," and that, having done this, it "quiescently allows the manufacturer to absorb the bulk of protection." As authority for this view he points to Republican Congressional speeches, saying that "in discussion on the tariff laws it was never advanced as a reason why they should be passed that capital would be protected—the argument always was that labor should be protected." He declares that the Homestead troubles would have been averted if, when the managers of the Carnegie concern sought to absorb all the protection, Government had interfered in behalf of the workingmen. "If we must have protection," he adds, "let us see to it that it protects the man who works." Is Mr. Powderly right or wrong in his claim that he finds authority for his position in the speeches of Republican Congressmen? Everybody must admit that those speeches have for years been teaching the same doctrine which he insists upon now—namely, that the high tariff is designed primarily to keep American wages above the level of the pauper labor of Europe. In the current number of the *North American Review* Senator Morrill preaches the same doctrine when, in reviving the old "free-trade scare," he says: "Free trade builds up a few great important cities on the seashore, and creates millionaires in foreign trade. It depopulates the rural districts, and has nothing but lip-service to offer those who toil for their daily bread. *It would give to the latter the dearer cost of living and the 77 per cent. less of wages* which free trade in England offers to those who labor." The same doctrine has in every Presidential campaign for years been displayed on countless Republican banners in the familiar form: "American Protection for American Homes—American Wages for American Labor." Small wonder if Mr. Powderly and his associates, having accepted it as truthful, now turn about and demand its enforcement by its inventors.

The *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* has a sarcastic article entitled "The Political Arlington Mills." These are the woollen mills presided over by Mr. William Whitman. The *Reporter* finds it a matter for wonder that, if Mr. Whitman is able to make only 6 per cent. per annum out of his tariff combination with the Ohio wool-growers, he should continue in that combination. Other woollen manufacturers, who are not in the combination, make 10 per cent. dividends. How does it happen that Mr. Whitman makes less? The explanation is that Mr. Whitman's "participation in law-making has recently put more than 6 per cent. into the assets of those mills in such form as to be available as quick capital, if not practicable for immediate withdrawal as dividends." That there is something mysterious either in the company's financial statements or in Mr. Whitman's personal statements, the *Reporter* shows by publishing the financial statements for two successive years, namely, 1891 and 1892. Mr. Whitman has explained that the profit and loss balance in the 1892 statement (viz., $932,809) was an accumulation of former years; but the profit and loss balance of 1891 (viz., $984,769) was actually larger than that of 1892. This would show a decrease instead of an accumulation, but somehow the Arlington Mills stock rose in the market from 82½ to 108, and Mr. Whitman himself has been in the market as a buyer of it, having increased his own holdings from 514 shares in 1889 to 1,164 shares in 1891. The *Reporter* points out the true sources of the Arlington's prosperity. It says:

> "The facts are that the Arlington Mills were financially weak in 1889, and have become financially strong in 1892 *through the ability of Mr. Whitman to frame certain phrases of the McKinley Bill in the interest of his mills.* Mr. Whitman was able to do this by swallowing his previously announced convictions at the behest of Messrs. Lawrence and Delano, and by allying himself with the Ohio clique. He has achieved a considerable measure of prosperity thereby, but he might have achieved the same measure of prosperity by a tariff law which would have benefited the great mass of wool manufacturers as well as the Arlington Mills."

It is evidently worth while to be President of the American Wool Manufacturers' Association if by that means you have the last hack at the bills which are nominally prepared by the Committee of Ways and Means.

The importance which the Republican press attaches to Peck's report shows its desperate poverty in argument. The figures simply give the statements alleged to be made by 6,000 firms engaged in sixty-seven "industries," representing 1,121 "trades," as to the amount paid by them for wages in the year from September, 1889, to September, 1890, and in the following year, and the value of their products during those years. As to what has taken place during the year that ended yesterday, no information is given. Mr. Peck says that these industries "give employment to 285,000 workingmen and women," but his summary contains no figures upon this point, nor do we know to how many persons these industries gave employment during the former of the years taken for comparison. The figures show that $6,378,000 more was paid for wages in the second year than in the former, but as we do not know how many persons were employed in the former year, it is impossible to tell anything about average earnings. From what we know of the previous work of this "statistician," we incline to think that he has simply divided the increase reported in wages by the number of employees in the second year taken. If he has not done this, his figures ought to show that these "industries" are employing scarcely any more men in the second year than in the former. As to the increase in the value of products reported, it is impossible to judge of its significance, as we do not know the gross amount for either year or the quantity of goods to which this value is attributed by their anonymous producers. Meanwhile we must say that destiny has already marked Mr. Peck out as the Superintendent of the next census, should the Republican party be then in power.

There appears to be no doubt that the Republican managers in Maine, led by "Joe" Manley, have been guilty of a disreputable piece of trickery in the printing of the ballots which are to be used in the approaching election. The new ballot law of the State is to be tried for the first time. It provides for a party-group ballot, in accordance with modifications of the Australian adopted in several of the States. The names of all candidates are to be arranged in party groups upon a blanket ballot, and the voter can indicate his choice either by placing a mark opposite the party name at the top, or by placing a mark against the name of each candidate for whom he wishes to vote. In all laws of this kind, except that of Maine, the blank spaces for the marks are placed *before* the names of the candidates—that is to say, to the left of them. In the Maine law, the direction is that the blank spaces shall be placed at the right of the names, that is, after them. In printing the ballots according to this direction, the Secretary of State in Maine has arranged them as follows:

REPUBLICAN.		DEMOCRAT.	

As the natural place for marking or checking a name is before, not after it, the effect of this arrangement would be that careless Democratic voters would put their marks in the space following the names on the Republican ballot, and their votes would thus be registered and counted as Republican. No other similar law in the country has such an arrangement. Some of the laws have the marks placed after the names, but the blank spaces are so arranged that a mistake is impossible. To understand how such a trick happened to be provided in the Maine law, it is necessary to recall the fact that the Republican Machine there, under Manley's lead, fought the adoption of the reform law in the Legislature, and yielded their opposition only in obedience to the demands of overwhelming public sentiment. Not content with this, the Secretary of State has had the ballots printed on such flimsy paper that the voter's mark on it can be seen easily through it, even after the ballot has been folded, so that the secrecy of the ballot is impaired, if not completely destroyed. The Democrats have discovered the marking trick in good season and are making every effort to warn their voters of the dangers of it; but they are likely to lose many votes in consequence of it.

There is a pretty loud demand in certain newspapers that the President shall issue a proclamation prohibiting immigration while the cholera continues in Europe. Those who make such a demand seem not to be aware that the President has no more power to prohibit immigration than he has to prohibit importation or exportation. Moreover, how is he to distinguish between immigrants and American citizens returning to their own homes as steerage passengers? Are people to be excluded from their own homes merely because they are not able to travel in the cabin? Nothing, we venture to say, will be gained by mixing the questions of immigration and of quarantine together. What is desired on all hands is to keep out cholera-infected persons, whether native or foreign-born, whether citizens or immigrants. How to do this is a medical question purely, and is to be decided by the faculty, and not by the President or any political authority. There is no occasion for getting in a panic on this subject. No person infected with the cholera germ can go five days without being sick in such a way as to disclose the true character of the disease. No ship can cross the ocean in five days. Therefore, no quarantine officer can be deceived. The outbreak has already had a deleterious effect on our export trade. One of the largest houses in the city in this line reports that it has not booked a new order in ten days. No shipowner wishes to send his vessel to an infected port. No captain or crew desires to tempt fate in that way. Hamburg is one of the world's great entrepots. It is the chief distributing point of northern Europe. Business is completely paralyzed there, and many of the merchants have fled from the city. Havre is likewise a great port, a most important one for our foreign trade. Antwerp is likewise of much importance to us. The reported presence of cholera in Antwerp is contradicted, but as long as a doubt exists no ship will solicit a cargo for that port, except the regular liners. Thus, a temporary glut of the markets in certain lines may be looked for here, and a corresponding dulness of general trade due to the caution which accompanies every disturbance of the settled course of things. Fortunately, the period of frost is not far distant.

The success of Mr. John Morley at Newcastle is one upon which the Liberals may congratulate themselves for several reasons. In the first place, he is Mr. Gladstone's right-hand man and chosen instrument in all home rule matters, so that his defeat would have been taken to argue Liberal lukewarmness on the Irish question. Of course he would have had a seat made for him elsewhere if defeated, but that would have been a mortifying expedient. His triumph, and by a larger majority than was hoped for, cannot fail to strengthen and solidify the new Cabinet. Its determination to put Irish affairs first has now this new and cheering endorsement. Moreover, his election is a fresh dashing of Conservative hopes, as their unexpected success in winning one seat at Newcastle in the general election made them confident of beating Morley on Thursday.

The memorandum concerning the coinage of silver addressed by Dr. Soetbeer to the International Monetary Conference is subjected to rather destructive criticism by a correspondent of the London *Economist*. Dr. Soetbeer's principal suggestion was that no gold coins or bank-notes payable in gold under the value of twenty francs should be hereafter issued, and that those now outstanding should be withdrawn. He puts the amount of small gold coins at about £82,000,000, the total amount of such coins and of small notes being estimated by other authorities at £150,000,000. Dr. Soetbeer's critic points out that this is far below the quantity of full-rated silver already circulating, or more properly, we should say, held by Governments as available for monetary use. The United States and France alone have from £220,000,000 to £250,000,000, and the total in all countries is probably not less than £600,000,000. If the silver-using countries were to adopt the gold standard, using silver as suggested by Dr. Soetbeer, there would still be a vast surplus of silver. Dr. Soetbeer says these countries might be able to get rid of a portion of this surplus in time, but he does not say who is to take it.

M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu has attacked vigorously the project for resuming work on the Panama Canal. He believes that all the new money put into it will be lost as the former amounts were. That France has any peculiar interest in cutting the isthmus, whereby patriotic feeling ought to be enlisted in its favor, he denies. On the contrary, he maintains that "the cutting of this isthmus will favor the United States at the expense of Europe as regards trade with the entire Pacific Coast and the waters of China and Australia." French prestige and *amour propre* are not concerned, he thinks, in the fact that a certain number of French citizens have undertaken a great enterprise and have failed in it. "No harm has resulted to the French name," he says, "and this check is no reason for pursuing indefinitely an enterprise singularly hazardous. It concerns only a matter of business purely financial, very risky, and which should be examined without getting excited." M. Leroy-Beaulieu evidently thinks that it is the weakness of the French character that it cannot look at Panama without getting excited, for he goes on to sketch a plan for getting the money if it must be done. In the first place, he dismisses the idea of a Government subsidy or guarantee as too idle to be considered. The work must be carried on by private subscription if at all. The smallest sum of new stock subscription that would serve as a basis for new loans would be $60,000,000 to $80,000,000 cash. Whether this amount can be raised as a speculation (as it might be invested in a lottery), he expresses no opinion.

THE READING RAILROAD COMBINATION.

THE decision of Chancellor McGill of New Jersey, enjoining the operation of the Central Railroad by the Philadelphia and Reading, could hardly have been unexpected by the managers of these companies. The Chancellor examines the statute of 1885 prohibiting the leasing of domestic to foreign corporations without legislative sanction, which the companies failed to obtain, and declares it constitutional. It follows that the lease of the Central Railroad, a New Jersey corporation, to the Port Reading Company, was not only without legal sanction, but in direct defiance of the legislative prohibition. As we understand the decision, if these companies had secured the passage of an enabling act, the lease would have been valid, but Gov. Abbett's veto disappointed their expectations, as well as those of the legislators who voted for the bill on the understanding that he would approve it.

Such being the case, the consideration of the other features of the transaction does not seem to have been indispensable, but the Chancellor devotes much space to a review of the situation. He expresses the opinion that the Central Railroad has acted in a manner prejudicial to the interests of the public in order to make undue gains for its stockholders, and holds that, in such a case, the Attorney-General of the State may properly institute a suit in equity to restrain a corporation. The prejudicial action consists in leasing its lines to a corporation interested in a business that should be competitive, the transportation of coal. It is true, the Chancellor says, that neither of the railroads concerned owns any coal lands or deals in coal. But they own the majority of stock in two great coal companies, so that their allegations as to ownership of coal lands are "but disguise and evasion." "To say that these conditions do not tend to a disastrous monopoly in coal," Chancellor McGill declares, "would be an insult to intelligence." He adds :

> "The commodity in which these companies deal is a necessary of life in this State. It is the principal fuel of its homes and factories. The slightest increase in its price is felt by a population of hundreds of thousands of persons, for their necessity compels them to pay that increase. If once a complete monopoly be established by the destruction of competition, whether that be through lease or co-operation, the promoters and sharers in it may have whatever price their cupidity suggests. The disaster which will follow cannot be measured. It will permeate the entire community, furnaces, forges, factories, and homes, leaving in its trail murmurs of discontent with a government which tolerates it, and all the other evil effects of oppression."

It is obvious that in this portion of his opinion Chancellor McGill travels outside of the realm of law into that of economics. It is quite too hasty a conclusion that there may not be a saving of expense arising from the combination of competing agencies, although, of course, the saving of expense need not be made a gift to the public, either in whole or in part. And it is absurd to say that the promoters of the combination, if they could establish a complete monopoly, may obtain "whatever price their cupidity suggests." On the contrary, every rise in the price of anthracite coal tends to reduce consumption, and the point is very soon reached where the sale of the reduced quantity at the higher price brings in less profit than the sale of a greater quantity at a lower price. It is those who ignore this law that "insult intelligence." The history of the copper syndicate is an admirable illustration of its working. Those speculators controlled the world's production of copper, and they thought they had the world at their mercy. They put up the price to an extravagant figure, thinking they had made their fortunes, and they found themselves suddenly ruined. Some of those who used copper ceased to use it, some used other materials, some used old copper instead of new, all economized, and M. Secretan and his ring were hoist with their own petard.

Anthracite coal is not a commodity that will endure arbitrary fluctuations in price any more than copper. It is exposed to a steady and formidable competition from bituminous coal, to a considerable competition from wood, to a great possible competition from oil and gas. It is also, we rejoice to believe, in immediate danger of competition from the coals of Nova Scotia, which will be admitted free as soon as the Republicans are turned out of office. Every rise in its price makes this competition more effective. Every rise limits domestic consumption. People of small incomes do not waste so much coal when it is dear as when it is cheap, and people of small incomes are the great majority of consumers. Some of them will calculate that a wood fire will answer their purpose better than one of coal, some will decide to put in a gas-range or depend upon an oil-stove, and nearly all of them will pay only the same amount for coal that they paid before, because they can pay no more. The ability and the disposition of consumers are a perpetual check to the greed of monopolists.

After all, the controversy is a battle of abstractions. As Chancellor McGill admits, and as President McLeod defiantly asserts, what was intended to be done by a lease may as well be done by an understanding. The corporations are mere legal fictions. What is real is the body of men who own the coal and the railroads. These men have generally acted upon a tacit or secret understanding, and the fact that their understanding is now more perfect and extensive than before will make little difference. President McLeod says that the traffic arrangements between the Reading and the Central will not be changed, being mutually advantageous. The titles borne by certain officers will be changed, but not their functions. And, what is most important, the price of coal will not be changed, at least in consequence of this decree. As Mr. McLeod points out, the price for which that commodity sells is beyond the jurisdiction of a Court of Chancery, and he adds that it would be possible for the Reading Railroad to dispose of all its coal without entering the State of New Jersey. This is rather foolish talk, and Mr. McLeod's course is perhaps not altogether a wise one. The price of coal was probably abnormally low last year, but it has been advanced at so rapid a rate as to produce irritation.

PECK'S REPORT.

A REPORT was given to the press on Monday from C. F. Peck, the ridiculous person who holds the position of Chief of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York. It is entitled the "Effect of the Tariff on Labor and Wages," and it is hailed by the chief Republican organ as a great campaign document for that party. We do not think it will have the effect ascribed to it, because it is impossible for anybody of Peck's calibre to do any great amount of harm. It requires a man of considerable ability to handle statistics so that he will not contradict himself, or contradict higher authorities than himself. Peck became the laughing-stock of statisticians when he made his first report five or six years ago. Since that time he has scarcely been noticed, having fallen beneath contempt. His present publication is noticeable only as a studied attempt to help the Republican party over a difficult piece of road. Even here its only significance arises from the suspicion that it was put forth at this juncture at the instigation or with the connivance of Gov. Hill himself, who was in Albany on Saturday. The *World's* Albany correspondent says: "Yesterday Senator Hill and Chairman Murphy of the State Committee held a conference here, and last night the order was given to release the report for Monday, August 29." We profess to have no knowledge on this delicate subject. We merely say that the report itself will be harmless; but if it is an indication of what Gov. Hill and his crowd are about, then it behooves the National Democratic Committee to take the campaign in this State into their own hands exclusively, and without the least delay.

The reason why Peck will not produce the harm to his own party which he evidently intended is that he has tremendously overdone his job. He has contradicted Senator Aldrich, the chief Republican wage statistician, to such a degree that if we were to take both of them as true, we should be driven to the conclusion that the McKinley tariff was devised to benefit New York at the expense of all the rest of the country. Mr. Aldrich showed, or attempted to show, that there had been an average increase of wages since the passage of the McKinley Bill of *three fourths of one per cent.* That was the extent of his claim, founded upon the investigations of the Senate Committee, which had taken

a vast deal of sworn testimony, the witnesses all being subjected to cross-examination. Senator Carlisle, in his reply to Aldrich, showed that the only increase of wages had taken place in the non-protected industries, while there had been a decrease in the protected industries. What Peck meant to say the percentage of increase of wages in this State had been during the same period, cannot be made out of his jumbled statement. We print it, however, in parallel columns with Aldrich's:

PECK'S REPORT.

"Of the sixty-eight industries included, 75 per cent. of them show an increased average yearly earning in the year 1891, while the total average increase of yearly earnings of the 285,000 employees was $23.11 each. The average increase of yearly earnings of the employees in fifty-one trades showing an increase was $43.96 each in 1891 as compared with 1890."

ALDRICH'S SPEECH IN SENATE, JULY 26.

The investigation by the Senate Finance Committee into wages from June, 1889, to September, 1891, showed an average increase for the occupations included in the inquiry of three-fourths of one per cent." — *Congressional Record, page 7,530.*

To complete the record, we add what Senator Carlisle said in reply to Mr. Aldrich:

"The Senator from Rhode Island stated generally, as will be seen from his printed speech, that the Committee had found that, while there had been a decline in prices, there had been an increase of seventy-five hundredths of one per cent. in wages, whereas I assert now, with the tables before me, that the only instance in which any increase of wages occurred, taking the whole together, was in these fifteen substantially unprotected industries; and I will show presently that in the fifteen highly protected industries in which the rate of wages had increased before the McKinley Bill passed, *there was a decrease after it passed.*"

Peck's jumble is evidently intended to have a resounding noise and to affect the imaginations of those who take the general purport of words without weighing them or examining their basis. It is worth recalling that Mr. Powderly, the head of the largest labor organization in the country, in a recently published article, differs radically from Peck as to the effect of the tariff on wages.

Let us now glance at the sources of Peck's information. He sends out a lot of blanks to the protected manufacturers, asking them certain questions about wages. Of course they all see the point and frame the answers to suit themselves. There is no cross-examination, indeed there is no examination in chief, but merely an exchange of letters by mail. The answers are not sworn to, and, even if they were, no prosecution for perjury could be had since the parties are not giving any evidence which the law requires from them. Moreover, Peck himself tells us that the evidence is altogether of a private nature, that it has been given in confidence, and that he cannot submit it to the test of verification or rebuttal. Here is his colloquy with the *Herald* correspondent:

"'Are the original letters on file in your office?' I asked.

"'They are, every one of them,' was the reply, 'but they cannot be thrown open to the public. They are in many cases confidential letters from business men who would only agree to furnish me statistics on the assurance that the private facts concerning their business should not be made public.'"

If Mr. Carroll D. Wright, or Prof. Richmond Smith, or Gen. Francis Walker, or any other statistician of recognized character and ability should publish a mass of statistics having a decided political cast, no other statistician would feel bound to accept them as conclusive without testing their accuracy; and if the means of testing it were denied, they would simply say that they must be judged wholly by our knowledge of the person collecting and preparing them. If we apply this reasoning to Peck, the whole mass goes to the garbage heap at once, along with his other reports, except that probably this one will go a little faster than the others on account of its political character. It was evidently put out at this time to damage Mr. Cleveland and to prevent a Democratic victory in the nation. If this had not been the object, it would have been withheld until after the election. Any merely scientific aim that had been evolved in the brain of Peck would have been as easily secured two months hence as now. But the political aim could only be accomplished now.

It might be pointed out that if Peck's statistics were to be taken as correct, instead of Aldrich's or Carlisle's, it would still be incumbent on him or on somebody to show the connection between the tariff and wages. If this task were successfully achieved, the fact would remain that an artificial increase of wages in some employments must be gained at the expense of other people in other employments. But it will be time enough to go into these branches of the inquiry when some evidence is advanced to sustain the statistics.

FARMING IN MAINE.

A RECENT census bulletin gives the results of the investigation into the ownership of the farms and homes of Maine and into the encumbrances upon them. This inquiry was entirely distinct from that into the recorded indebtedness of the country. Each of the family schedules furnished the enumerators contained the following questions:

"Is the home you live in hired, or is it owned by the head or by a member of the family? If owned by head or member of family, is the home free from mortgage encumbrance? If the head of the family is a farmer, is the farm which he cultivates hired, or is it owned by him or by a member of his family? If owned by head or member of family, is the farm free from mortgage encumbrance? If the home or farm is owned by head or member of family, and mortgaged, give the post-office address of owner."

From the answers to these questions, it is possible to determine how many families cultivated farms and how many did not, the number of families who owned the farms they cultivated or the houses they occupied, the number of those owning the farms they cultivated or the houses in which they lived free from encumbrance, and the number of those upon whose farms or houses there were mortgages. Whenever the answer showed that the farm or home was mortgaged, the Census Office has sought to obtain by direct correspondence with the head of each family the value of the farm or house, the amount of encumbrance upon it, the interest paid on such encumbrance, and the object for which the indebtedness was contracted.

Maine is the first complete State for which the results have been published, although in response to an inquiry of Senator Peffer of Kansas the Census Office some months ago compiled the returns from some ten Kansas and an equal number of Ohio counties. A farm in the meaning of the census returns includes, besides what are commonly known as farms, all considerable nurseries, orchards, and market gardens cultivated for pecuniary profit, and employing as much as the labor of one able-bodied workman during the year. Cabbage and potato-patches, family vegetable-gardens, and ornamental lawns, not constituting a portion of a farm for general agricultural purposes, are excluded. No tract of less than three acres was reported as a farm unless at least $500 worth of produce had been sold from it during the census year.

Out of the 150,355 families residing in Maine on June 1, 1890, 62,123 are returned as cultivating farms as above defined. It must be borne in mind that the families of hired farm laborers who do not own or rent farms are not included in the number of those cultivating farms, while many families some of whose resident members may have other than agricultural pursuits are included, so that the proportion which these families bear to the total number of families in the State is not necessarily the same borne by what are commonly termed the agricultural classes to the total population.

The returns show that in Maine more than 92 per cent. of the families who cultivate farms own them, and nearly 72 per cent. own them free of encumbrance. If the selected counties in Kansas and Ohio, the returns for which have been published, are fair samples of the rest of their respective States, the proportion of tenant farmers is less than one-fourth as great in Maine as it is in either of the other States, as 33 per cent. of the Kansas and 37 per cent. of the Ohio farmers rent their farms. In the proportion of mortgaged farms Maine, while very much better off than Kansas, in which 43 per cent. of the farmers have mortgages on their land, is not quite so well off as Ohio, in which State the places of but 13 per cent. of the farm-cultivating families are mortgaged.

In Maine the average value of the mortgaged farms occupied by their owners was, according to their owners' estimate, only $1,449, while the mortgages upon them averaged $532, or about 37 per cent. It is noticeable that in all three States the ratio

of encumbrance to gross value of encumbered property is substantially the same, varying in the different States less than 2 per cent. The average mortgaged farm in Kansas or Ohio, however, was worth, according to its owner's statement, more than twice as much as in Maine, the Ohio average being $3,848, and the Kansas $3,694. The mortgages were also proportionately larger, averaging $1,422 in the former State and $1,402 in the latter. The Maine farmer pays less for the money he borrows, the rate of interest on his mortgages averaging 6.26 per cent, including in the interest all bonuses and commissions he had to pay for the loan, while the average rate in Ohio is 6.85 per cent., and in Kansas as much as 8.12 per cent.

More than 64.79 per cent. of the mortgage debt of the Maine farmers was incurred for the purchase of real estate and for that alone, and 75.12 per cent. for the purchase and improvement of real estate. In Ohio the percentage of debt incurred for the objects named is 74.75, or almost precisely the same as in Maine. In Kansas, however, only 53.79 per cent. of the debt was incurred for the purchase and improvement of real estate uncombined with other objects. In all three States a much larger percentage of the farmers than of the other classes of the population own their homes. Thus in Maine only 48.02 per cent. of the families not occupying farms own their homes, as against 92 38 per cent. of those occupying farms; in Ohio the respective percentages are 30.36 and 62 90, and in Kansas 51 69 and 66.75. Home ownership is least common in the larger cities; thus, in Hamilton County, Ohio, which includes the city of Cincinnati, only 21.95 per cent. of the families live in their own houses, as against 50.24 per cent. in the other nine counties the returns for which have been compiled. In Maine, in the eight cities having 8,000 inhabitants each, 36.23 per cent. of the families own their homes, while in the rest of the State the percentage is 53 11. In Maine the mortgaged homes of families not cultivating farms have a higher average value than the mortgaged farms, while the contrary is true in Ohio and Kansas. In Maine and Ohio about the same proportion of homes and farms occupied by their owners are mortgaged, while in Kansas a much larger proportion of owned homes than of farms are free from encumbrance.

REFORM OF ENGLISH LEGAL PROCEDURE.

It is not without surprise that Americans read that the entire body of English judges have agreed upon a report which exposes numerous defects in the present system of administering justice, and recommends a scheme for its improvement. We have so long been accustomed to speak of British conservatism that it is hard to realize how much more rapid the rate of change has been in the mother country in recent years, not only in political institutions, but also in the substance and the practice of the law. In certain respects we were already so far in advance that we may still look back upon the progress of English reform, but in others it cannot be denied that we have been distanced. The very fact that no body of American judges reports upon the methods of administering justice, or effects any material change in these methods, is an indication of itself that our system is defective. Judges are especially qualified by their experience to suggest improvements in legal procedure, and under an enlightened system of jurisprudence this would be one of their regular functions. The English judges seem to be able not only to suggest changes, but to a considerable extent to initiate them without legislative assistance.

Most of the reforms proposed by the English judges are of purely technical interest, but there are a number of general importance, some of which deserve imitation in this country. Some twenty years since, the Judicature Acts were passed in England, under which changes were made similar in a general way to those effected more than forty years ago in the State of New York. The old distinctions between law and equity were to be abolished, the old forms of common-law pleading were to be done away with, and practice was to be so simplified as to enable every man to be his own lawyer. What the result has been in New York is well known and need not be dwelt upon. It is enough to say that the very evils that took place here in consequence of the adoption of our code have taken place in England in consequence of the Judicature Acts. The old forms of pleading had a quaint, not to say repulsive, aspect, but they had resulted, after centuries of use, in making pleading a science. What it has become under a system which encourages the pleader, as Mr. O'Conor said, "to tell his story just as one old woman would to another," every one knows who has had to answer a rambling, illogical, and unintelligible complaint according to its folly. So far as simplifying pleading goes, the criticism of an English judge is applicable to both countries :

> "The reformers of the Judicature Acts found no difficulty in charming the public with the idea that it would be an excellent improvement to substitute a less rigid and less formal method, under which a simple man—so ran the thought—might tell his own unvarnished tale without any of the artifice and verbiage of the lawyer. Experience, unfortunately, soon showed that the artists who draw the narratives of litigants are not often simple; and it may be added that their tales are frequently not unvarnished. The ancient severity of the common-law pleading was replaced by lengthy statements on behalf of plaintiff and of defendant, from which the points could only be extracted by painful and (generally speaking) useless industry. Expense was doubled and simplicity was not promoted."

But whatever claim is made in favor of the modern system, or lack of system, of pleading, no one can deny that the introduction of the Code in New York was followed by a prodigious increase in the number of steps in a litigation. Under the old system the rules of practice were known to the bar and the bench, but when the Code came, both had to learn their business over again, and take up their time with inquiries as to whether the practice prescribed in the Code was the same as before or different. However it be explained, we have the fact to deal with that there has been an enormous multiplication of interlocutory applications and appeals in this State, and that is precisely what has taken place in England since the Judicature Acts. By rendering the machinery of Chancery applicable to actions at law, these acts made available to litigants generally such weapons as interrogatories and bills of discovery, to the great increase of trouble, delay, and expense. On the Chancery side there has been some improvement, but the last state of the common-law litigant is worse than the first.

These evils are dealt with in a drastic manner by the judges. It is proposed that within a fortnight of the beginning of an action a "summons for directions" shall be taken out, under which the parties shall appear before a master, who will investigate the cause of action. He is to be empowered to settle the preliminaries of the trial, to direct as to its mode and place, to put a cause into a special list for immediate trial, to allow and disallow pleadings, to prescribe the kinds of evidence for particular points and the manner in which it shall be obtained and presented, and in general to give such directions as to procedure as will prevent delay. It is believed that in this way the evil of incessant summonses, which correspond with our notices of motion, will be checked. The end is desirable enough, for at present the order of the master is taken on appeal to the judge, and from him appeal lies to the Divisional Court, thence to the Court of Appeal, and finally even to the House of Lords. The manner of dealing with this question of appeals we need not enter into further than to say that the time for interlocutory appeals is shortened to eight or fourteen instead of twenty-one days, and appeals from final judgments must be taken within two months instead of a year. This reform might well be imitated in this country.

Other improvements proposed by the judges are: special calendars for commercial cases and special judges for work of this kind, changes in the method of administering estates, and other matters to which we cannot refer. Two subjects, however, are of so much importance as to deserve notice. At present, civil causes are tried at fifty-six circuit towns twice a year. But during the last four years there have been no causes for trial at one of these towns, only one case a year at a number, and at forty of them the number of cases is insignificant. By reducing the number of assize towns to eighteen, such an economy in the time of the judges will be effected as will enable

at least eight judges to be always present in London.

A more interesting reform, which is not without its lessons for us, is the proposed formation of a court of appeal in criminal cases. At present the Home Secretary practically acts as such a court, but appeals are pressed upon him by all sorts of influences, and his position is an odious one. The proposed court is to be empowered to increase or to diminish punishment. Apparently the court is to be competent to quash convictions, but no new trial is to be granted. While the administration of the English criminal law differs so radically from our own as to make any analogy imperfect, there seems to be no reason why we should not follow suit in instituting a court of criminal appeal. We have never been able to understand why, with all the complaint of the excessive burdens thrown upon our Court of Appeals, there has never been any movement to relieve it of the review of criminal trials. It would be a perfectly simple and satisfactory arrangement to constitute a court out of a certain number of Supreme Court justices which should meet whenever there were appeals to be heard. In this way a very considerable relief would be afforded to the Court of Appeals, while the public would gain by the prompt application of justice in criminal cases. The present delay between sentence and execution in murder cases does much to diminish the exemplary effect of the death penalty.

THE QUESTION OF THE COLONIES.

PARIS, August 17, 1892.

THE question of the colonies is the order of the day. The events in Dahomey take up considerable space in the daily newspapers. Before its adjournment three weeks ago, the Chamber discussed two interpellations in reference to the colonies, one of which resulted in the fall of the Minister of the Marine, M. Cavaignac. This retirement, as, indeed, the discussion that took place upon the interpellations, is in certain respects very significant.

The work of the Third Republic, so far as concerns the colonies, has been in some points of view of considerable importance. Algeria and Cochin-China have been respectively enlarged by the addition of Tunis and Tonkin; and when, during these last few years, the various European Powers set about parcelling out to themselves the African Continent, France assured herself a considerable share, inasmuch as she placed Madagascar under her protectorate, and extended greatly the limits of the territories she had already acquired there, to wit, Senegal and Gaboon and sundry factories on the coast of Guinea. The Government of the Republic found itself in many respects in a favorable position to extend its possessions beyond the seas. The colonial enterprises of a country are always in a very large measure subordinate to its relations with other Powers. The desire of intervening in European questions naturally prevents the employment of large forces in far-off regions; and the necessity of conciliating the susceptibilities of allies who are also colonizing Powers may exercise a certain influence in preventing the annexation of one or another territory. Thus, for instance, the whole history of French colonization during the present century is subordinated to the state of its relations at any given date with its sister Power, England. That country, jealous of any rival to its maritime and commercial supremacy, looks with unfavorable eye upon the different posts established beyond the seas by any other nation than itself. The Government of the Restoration undertook to add new colonies to those that the treaties of 1814 had left to it. It directed important enterprises in Madagascar and set itself the task of conquering Algeria. The Revolution of 1830 came to put a sudden stop to its attempts. As a matter of fact, the Government of Louis Philippe, from the very beginning of that king's reign, saw itself obliged to rely for support on Great Britain. While on the one hand the Restoration, entering into friendly relations with Russia, had been able to disregard English protests, on the other hand Louis Philippe was obliged to take account of them. Madagascar ceased completely to occupy the Ministerial mind, and for many years the question could be reasonably asked, "Is Algeria going to be evacuated?"

During the period of understanding with England which lasted all through the reign of Louis Philippe and through a part of the reign of Napoleon III., the French Government was able to create a few colonial establishments. This was due to causes of a special nature. For example, when treaties had been signed, at the instigation of England, by which France undertook to help in the repression of the slave trade, and consequently to maintain cruisers on the coasts of Africa, it was necessary for the ships to have certain calling-stations assured to them, and, to this end, to occupy a number of strategic positions. In this way the establishments at Gaboon were created, and the various factories on the Guinea Coast (1835-1845). Reasons of another order brought about the conquest of Cochin-China in 1862.

After the disastrous war of 1870, France, renouncing for the time being all interference in European affairs, was on that account the more easily able to direct a part of her activity towards her possessions beyond the seas. Her work here was also the more facilitated inasmuch as circumstances peculiar to the time allowed her to occupy fresh territory without thereby provoking any conflict with other Continental Powers. Not that England was disposed to regard such attempts with any more favorable eye; but besides that France had no longer any special reason to conciliate the susceptibilities of England—as was the case in the time of Louis Philippe and of Napoleon III.—she was no longer to struggle alone against the ill-will of her neighbor. Germany first, and afterwards Italy, desired also to have colonies of their own; and England, having opposed to her not simply France, but also a number of Powers which in these matters were often united by community of interest, showed herself very much more accommodating than in the past.

The achievement of the work that the French Government had planned out was yet further helped by the excellent materials which it had at its disposal. Explorers such as M. de Brazza, Capt. Binger, Lieut. Mizon—the last of whom returned to France only a short time ago—succeeded, in spite of the small and oftentimes utterly inadequate resources they possessed, in holding their own against the powerful colonizing companies belonging to England and the Congo State. They succeeded, almost without escort and almost without striking a blow, in opening up roads of communication and in establishing French influence over large tracts of territory. So far as this kind of work is concerned, we have managed to do as well as any other nation.

The success, however, is by no means so brilliant wherever it has been necessary to organize the possessions we have gained, or when an armed struggle has had to be undertaken against the natives. French administration, costly and complicated in its working does not know how to adapt itself to circumstances, and would fain introduce its habits of routine into colonial government. In particular, the civil and the military element do not get on well together. Dissensions break out between the Minister for War and the Minister of the Marine. The coöperation of these two departments is a prime necessity to the carrying out of even the smallest operation, and yet each administration often keeps exclusive direction of the men under its orders. Each Minister, fearing more than aught else to compromise his responsibility, gives the minutest instructions to his subordinates, and as the result we see captains in the navy obliged to refuse help to their brother officers in the army, even when this help is urgently demanded. It must, however, be recognized that if such things happen—which all must regret—the fault is not to be exclusively attributed to the executive power. For a long time the Government had to contend, almost unceasingly, against a very violent Parliamentary opposition. Monarchists and Radicals, ever seeking opportunities to overthrow the successive cabinets, used to reproach the Government with weakening France by scattering her effective forces all over the globe; and whenever a difficulty arose, or a demand for money was made, the necessity of evacuating the new colonies without delay was preached with never-varying refrain.

If this systematic and relentless opposition was never strong enough to cause the Government to make a complete change in its policy, it nevertheless contributed a great deal to paralyze it and to prevent it from acting with the energy it ought. Harassed without ceasing, never knowing what the morrow might bring forth, and never definitely assured of the support of Parliament, the Government tried often to carry out a colonial policy while seeming to be doing nothing. Instead of preparing with care the necessary means of action, and of quietly pursuing the realization of a largely conceived plan, it nearly always sought to dissimulate the importance of the enterprise that it meditated, as also of the obstacles that it would have to overcome. The credits first asked for were always insufficient to assure an energetic action, and from the fact of these enterprises not being conceived as they ought, the resources actually furnished, inadequate in themselves, were often squandered by reason of the bad management referred to above.

It would, however, seem that the respective positions of the Government and Parliament in reference to colonial matters have at least undergone a certain modification, and the recent Parliamentary incidents of which I spoke at the beginning indicate that the Chamber is now showing on such questions a more just appreciation of events. A foraging company having fallen into an ambush in Tonkin, an interpellation was made in the Chamber, and the discussion that followed revealed the deputies in a new light—viz., as frankly realizing that such incidents are inevitable in a newly conquered country, for nobody spoke of evacuation. Still more, it would appear now

that Parliament sees into colonial policy more clearly even than the Government itself, and, far from hampering its efforts, points out to it the course to pursue. In the campaign that is about to be opened against the King of Dahomey, the Minister of the Marine, M. Cavaignac, wished to maintain the deplorable traditions of the past and keep the command of the sea forces absolutely independent of that of the land forces. Rendered wise by experience, the Chamber invited the Government to unite in one authority the command of all the expeditionary forces. The vote embodying this desire caused the resignation of the Minister in question, but it is impossible not to recognize that this time it is the Chamber which was right.

Another proposition, also voted in the last days of the session, is still more significant. Bearing the signatures of MM. le Baron Reille, Lockroy, and Reinach—that is to say, of a Conservative, a Radical, and a Moderate Republican—it seemed to make plain that the Opposition is disarming on matters distinctively colonial, and that soon these questions, like those of national defence, will be placed above the quarrels of party. As for the tenor of the proposition, it simply invited the Government to push on with the formation of the colonial army. Yet such a vote as this is already a great progress. Indeed, to leave aside technical considerations into which it would be too long to enter here, the formation of a colonial army, the principle of which was voted so long ago as last year—that is to say, the creation of regiments made up of special elements and charged exclusively with the defence of the various colonies, instead of the troops sent at the present time from France—would isolate the colonies more from the metropolis, at least in certain respects, and would thus be a first step in the direction of a real colonial organization. Moreover, it would show that France has a firm intention of entering more and more upon a steady policy of colonization, and this is why it is interesting to remark that it is now the Chamber itself that is urging the Government to form this army.

S.

AN EXTRA-TERRITORIAL ITALIAN CITY.

TRIESTE, August 1, 1892.

WE left Venice as the splendid marine band, playing in the Piazza San Marco under the windows of the popular Rear-Admiral, Prince Thomas of Savoy, struck up a warlike march. Sheet lightning illuminated the Piazzetta, extinguishing at intervals the electric lights there and on the deck of the Lloyd steamer *Maximilian*, on which we had taken tickets for the yonder shore of the Adriatic Sea.

Venice may celebrate her silver wedding, for just five-and-twenty years ago she gave herself a glad, enthusiastic bride to one Italy, as yet uncrowned in Rome. A quarter of a century has passed, yet the memory of those days is still fresh. To the Venetians it seemed as though the Austrians would never take themselves off. "I vai? I vai?" (Are they going? are they going?) was the eager interrogation every morning until the glad day when the last white uniform vanished and the population, with one great sigh of relief, shouted, "I ze andai!" (They are gone). For the rest of Italy, though gladdened by the liberation of Venice, the outlook was gloomy. The catastrophe of Custozza, the shame of Lissa, saddened the hearts of all. The "useless Alps," as Carlo Cattaneo called them, were and (alas) still are in the hands of the foreigner—France encamped on the heights of Mont Cenis; Austria, a stone's throw from Verona, Bassano, and Udine. That the Tyrol will gravitate to the mother country sooner or later no one doubts, but it must be in virtue of some extraordinary pressure that Austria will cede Trieste, her one great port on the Adriatic, the port till yesterday the most flourishing of all the ports on the Adriatic or Mediterranean shores.

Reared and fostered by Austria at the expense of Venice, which never for an hour or an instant concealed its hatred and contempt for Austrian rule, Trieste in 1848-'9 gave no sign of her relationship to the rest of Italy. On the contrary, when, the war between the Milanese, the Venetians, and their ally, Carlo Alberto, against the Austrians being at its height, the Sardinian fleet, commanded by Admiral Albini, with the Neapolitan and Venetian squadrons, entered the Adriatic, forced the Austrian fleet to take refuge at Pola, and on the 23d of May arrived in the Gulf of Trieste, the soldiers of the garrison, the civic guard, and the militia took up position along the shore ready to repulse "the invaders" if they should attempt a landing. The cannon on the forts were ready, the treasure was carried into the castle. The consuls of the various nations protested that Trieste was a commercial city in which all nations were interested; that any offence against Trieste would be considered an offence against all nations represented by the resident consuls. Two days passed, then the ships weighed anchor and left the Adriatic, the Admiral being recalled by a despatch from Turin, as Germany had protested against "the eventual occupation of Trieste." The Emperor Ferdinand, when the catastrophe of Novara decided the fate of Lombardy, and when famine and cholera, more than the incessant bombardment, had compelled Venice to hoist the white flag, handed over these rebellious provinces to the tender mercies of Radetzky; but "Trieste the loyal," "Trieste the faithful," was rewarded with a lavish hand. In 1849 a special and separate constitution was granted to Trieste, which *statuto* the Triestines still look upon as their greatest treasure. "To the city of Trieste, city of the Empire, is guaranteed her absolute autonomy within the limits fixed by the Constitution of the Empire. The colors and the coat of arms of the city of Trieste are reserved intact." To this city of the Empire "is guaranteed the right of sending two deputies to the first chamber of Parliament. The elections of the representatives of the city of Trieste in the second chamber will be regulated by the law of the Empire." The number of the municipal councillors was increased from forty to fifty-six, the city detached from the Litorale and constituted into a separate province with the territory which extends from Rosanda in the valley of Zaule to the village of Santa Croce in Carsia. But all these new and important privileges were nothing in comparison with *the* privilege of *porto franco* granted by Charles VI., by which the city was exempted from custom-house dues outside the walls; ships laden with merchandise could enter and quit the port, transfer their freight from one to the other, deposit their imports and exports in the warehouses on the Quay of San Carlo or in private stores, without paying duty or tax. And this privilege was maintained until 1888, when, some say to second the doctrines of the Austrian economists, others to punish the city for its late liberal manifestations, it was abolished, and grievous are the lamentations of the citizens.

Not that it would be just to attribute to this material fact the deep and ever-widening increase of Italian feeling among the Triestines. The sentiment of their Italian origin, the prompt reply to the "What is the city's fatherland?" has always existed more or less; but until Rome was freed from the French and the temporal power of the Pope abolished, the unity of Italy was not credited, and the annexation of Trieste to the "kingdom of upper Italy" was never regarded as a desideratum. But since 1870 the feelings of the Triestines towards Italy and of the Italians towards Trieste have become more intense and of more daring manifestation. True, "unredeemed Italy" has been the watchword for factious demagogues who seek only to embarrass every government, and who have no intention to risk their necks in attempting the redemption; but here, as there, a strong and deepening conviction has spread that without Trieste and Trent, without the Alps and the Adriatic, Italy will never be strong or safe from invaders. This conviction it is which has brought many thorough haters of Austria to tolerate and even favor the Triple Alliance, believing that, in the case of any war with foreign Powers, Italy's assistance or even her neutrality will lead to the peaceful cession of "one at a time" or even of both of the provinces.

These speculations were rife among the many voyagers from Venice to Trieste, between which cities constant intercourse is maintained. On board there were a number of *mandolisti*, young Venetians of good families who have formed a club, and who, with their mandolins, were going to give a gratuitous concert at the bathing station of Bagnolo. A heavy storm, accompanied by thunder and lightning, stopped their performances on deck, but below they made night weary with their scrapings and squeakings, which just now are all the fashion, so that it was a relief when dawn broke and we were able to distinguish in the distance the Gulf of Trieste on the eastern shore of the extreme Adriatic, with the mountains of Catinara and Opcina (the mountains of the Vena, as they are called), to the left, and the Julian Alps towering behind at some distance, while hamlets and villages strew the shore to the right and left of the city. The horns of the Gulf extend, as though offering a welcome, from the station and St. Andrea. The city has an imposing aspect, and, with its villas nested among the verdant slopes and its rugged mounts, bare, stony and barren, reminds you of Genoa; and of Genoa it has all the life and activity—the joyous sounds of hammer and anvil, the flags of all nations, and the business aspect at every turn, so wanting in faint and feckless Venice. The Lloyd steamers lie at the Quay of San Carlo, so there is no need for boats or gondolas; the porters are decent and evidently in well-kept order; you deposit your few traps at the nearest hotel, and away in a tram for "anywhere it goes to."

The first "anywhere" was Barcola, now a flourishing bathing station, bright, gay, and clean as a Dutchman's house. Everywhere the cleanliness of the streets, the public buildings, and especially of the charitable institutions, strikes one. At Barcola, an old Roman colony, the explorations for Roman remains have been carried on successfully. In the civic museum of antiquities an entire room is paved and walled with splendid and perfect mosaics. The remains of a vast thermal edifice with the plan intact have been discovered, and the municipality votes annually the necessary sums for the continuation of the works.

The Triestines, in familiar conversation, use

the dialect, and the *zezete* of the soft Venetian tongue prevails; but the language written and taught in the schools is pure Italian, and the burning question is the maintenance of the Italian language, for which Austria has vainly attempted to substitute the German. But the commune builds its own school-houses and pays for the education of the poor; on its shoulders fall all the expenses for higher education, and the number of educational establishments is remarkable. Until the grant of the *porto franco*, the German language was unknown. When the Emperor Frederic III. wrote for the first time to the city in German, a translator had to be found, and the Government opened an office, *Translatador delle lettere tedesche*. In 1524 the Council sent commissaries to Ferdinand I. to implore that the judges who adjusted the questions between Carniola and Trieste should use the Latin language, saying, "The mother tongue of the Triestines is Italian. No one born in Trieste understands the German language." After the introduction of the free port, and especially towards the close of the last century, the number of Germans, the employees and the military—German all—did their utmost to change the language, and Joseph II. decreed in 1786 that within three years the use of the Italian language in Government offices should be abolished. Next it was to be introduced into the schools, so that the people from their infancy should be familiarized with the German tongue. But all these efforts failed; the "old city" held its own. In the tribunals, in the Chamber of Commerce, in the municipality, Italian only is spoken. German, French, English, and Greek are taught, but the attempt to substitute German has failed utterly, and in 1868 the Emperor decreed that "all the nations forming the Empire have equal rights, and that every single nation possesses the inviolable right to preserve and to cultivate its own nationality and its proper idiom."

This right, however, has to be paid for. The municipality alone spends 600,000 florins (about $300,000) for public instruction, half of this for the popular elementary schools. There are infant schools in every district, and these are really child-gardens, all the children receiving a good meal a day. The gymnasia, lyceums, and superior schools are excellent. The female lyceum has eight classes and is thronged with students. The libraries, museums, and other institutions are many and good, and the sum spent by the municipality does not represent the actual outlay. The gymnasia and realschulen are subsidized by the State; their chief purpose being to prepare students for the universities and technical high schools. It is a standing grievance that Trieste has no university, while in Austria-Hungary there are eleven. Before the annexation of Venetian Lombardy to Italy, the Triestines frequented the universities of Padua and Bologna; now, in order to obtain diplomas for the exercise of their respective professions, they are virtually compelled to attend one of the Austrian universities. Neither does Trieste possess a technical high school, of which there are seven in Austria for various branches of engineering and technical chemistry. Many schools in Trieste are endowed or subsidized by private contribution. The Jews and Slovenes maintain schools of their own. The latter is the troublesome element, detesting the Italian supremacy, and the priests from their pulpits enjoin on the parents to abstain from sending their children to the schools. In Austria, though there is no poor-law entitling all to shelter, food, and clothing, the right to poor relief is defined by an imperial statute; but the regulations for the apportionment of the cost are varied, and made by the separate provinces. In Trieste the charitable institutions are many and well regulated. The municipality spends now some 700,000, as the abolition of the free port has thrown hundreds of families out of employment. The civic hospital is a magnificent building, containing 2,000 beds; the wards are bright and airy, and the wooden floors are white and clean as the deck of a man-of-war. A maternity ward has been opened lately, and the women are received without question and assisted on leaving to suckle and maintain their babes. There is no real foundling hospital, but waifs and strays are put out to nurse when found destitute. Infanticide, nevertheless, is a crime almost unknown; the "unfortunate" mothers in need being assisted at home.

There is a general direction of public beneficence, and its arrangements are worthy of study and imitation. Starting with the "poor fund," augmented by private subscriptions and the grant by the Government of 5 per cent. on the wine duty, the General Institute for the Poor was set on foot, and in 1862 the Pia Casa for the poor was erected, capable of housing 800 individuals. Old men and women unable to work are received, fed and clothed; orphans and poor children are also admitted, instructed and taught a trade, and kept, the boys until sixteen, when they always find employment, and the girls until a situation is provided. Here again the perfect cleanliness delighted one, the peaceful harmony prevailing, the smile of welcome that greeted the kindly and devoted Inspector wherever he passed, so different from the cowed aspect of the inmates of charitable institutions in Naples, where the funds belonging to the poor are squandered by the "administrators" (governors employed for electioneering) and sundries. Some 50,000 florins are distributed annually as out-door relief, and now the soup-kitchen is, alas, crowded with men and women and children who a year or two ago were industrious members of the community. The kitchens of both hospitals and this poorhouse are splendid; the food exquisitely cooked and abundant, especially for the aged and infirm. To these is given wine three times a week; to the able-bodied who work, once a week. As the wine of the Istrian district is dear and scarce, while beer is cheap and abundant, I asked why the latter beverage was not substituted for the healthy inmates. "Beer is a *tedescheria* [Germanism]," said the administrator quite naturally. One branch of the house is set aside for the poor Jews with separate kitchen, and this is just, as the Israelites contribute largely to the maintenance of public charities, and the Baron Elio Morpurg figures at the head of most public subscriptions. In a ward the beggars are kept apart until the managers can ascertain whether they are really indigent or ne'er-do-weels.

In a separate building and with a quite distinct management is the reformatory or workhouse for boys found on the streets or declared by the parents to be incorrigible. Here the fare is Spartan and the sleeping arrangements are certainly not luxurious. The lads are all drilled and have a fine band; they receive an elementary education and are taught trades, and in both the houses the work of the youths is remunerative to the institution and to themselves. So open and honest is, and I am assured ever has been, the administration that not a sou is squandered. Out of 800 waifs and strays taken in at six and kept till fifteen years of age, 80 per cent. may be called "redeemed"; 106 left the establishment last year. Of these, thirty are skilled workmen earning good salaries; thirty-six manage to earn their living; three have been sent to the Pia Casa; only eight are seemingly gone to the bad.

Every public department depends on the municipality. The Magnifico Podestà is the real and venerated representative of the city. The communal electoral right is possessed by every inhabitant over twenty years of age who has paid taxes for two years. The Podestà is also head of the diet which represents the Government of the territory. He must be elected by at least two-thirds of the members present, and these must in Trieste be twenty-eight. The election must be confirmed by the Emperor, and the confirmation communicated to the Council in public by the counsellor of the Lieutenancy. The present Magnifico Podestà, Dr. Ferdinand Pittari, elected by 51 out of 52 counsellors present, and at once confirmed in office, belongs to a well-known and much esteemed family of Liberals, and his son Richard is one of the literati of the city. The speeches that accompanied the inaugural ceremony were noteworthy for the pervading leaven of Italian sentiment. The "Magnifico," on his elevation to the highest civic dignity, was congratulated on being a "Triestine by birth and at heart," independent, liberal, *and Italian*; and in returning thanks, after dwelling on the disastrous conditions of Trieste at the present moment—a well-directed sentence to the pressmen, whom he exhorted "to keep in mind their high mission, to exert their widespread influence for the benefit of the well-beloved Trieste, to avoid party struggles and civic strife" —he promised the citizens present to "promote to the uttermost the instruction and the education of our people in the language of our forefathers, the mother-tongue that is yours and mine," which pledge was received with "rapturous applause." Soon after his election, a rumor spread that, in a tour of inspection, the Magnifico had addressed the populations in an alien tongue. He took the earliest opportunity to "refute the fable," saying, "In my tour of inspection throughout our territory, I spoke to all and everywhere in Italian, nor could I have done otherwise or spoken in an 'unknown tongue.' Although my principles in the question of nationality are deeply rooted in my heart, and their sincerity has been proved by my whole past, I gladly embrace this opportunity to affirm that the integrity of my sentiments, of my love for our mother tongue and for our national culture, increases with increasing years, and that I hold it my highest duty to promote the advance of both."

Such public expressions of sentiments by public functionaries in Trieste itself are proofs beyond all doubt of the Italianism of the citizens. During my too brief sojourn in the beautiful city, Dr. Attilio Hortis, the noted writer, most popular citizen, and the director of the civic library, was our courteous and intelligent cicerone. Politics were naturally eschewed between us. Since the suppression of the Pro Patria society by the Government, the National League has taken its place, and its members are numerous and patriotic. Certain it is that *if*, whensoever and howsoever, Trieste gravitate to Italy, the noble city and territory will bring a vast and valuable contribution of civic virtue, of talent, industry, and self-government, in the Anglo-Saxon sense of the term, to the mother country, which will welcome it with open arms. J. W. M.

BARDOUX'S LAFAYETTE.—II.

PARIS, August 16, 1892.

ON the 21st of October, 1778, Congress gave Gen. Lafayette leave to go to France and to fix for himself the date of his return. The *Alliance*, the best ship in the navy, was chosen to convey him to Europe. Lafayette had a long journey to make on horseback, to go to Boston, where he was to embark; he fell ill on the way, but he succeeded in reaching Boston, and put to sea on January 11, 1779. He arrived at Brest on the 20th of February.

He had left France as a rebel; he returned to it triumphantly. He had to undergo *pro forma* a week's arrest for his desertion; he was allowed to spend the time at the Hôtel de Noailles. All the ladies of the court wished to kiss him. Marie-Antoinette gave him a regiment. The French Government gave the command of the corps which was sent to America to Rochambeau. Lafayette was only twenty-two years old; Rochambeau had served brilliantly in the Seven Years' War. Lafayette remained in the service of the United States and became a sort of negotiator between the French and the American forces. He embarked on the *Hermione* on February 11, 1780. Two months before, Madame de Lafayette had presented him with a son, who was named George after Washington, his godfather. A French squadron, with 5,000 men, reached Rhode Island on July 17, after seventy days of navigation. The French fortified themselves, and Lafayette informed Rochambeau of the project which Washington had formed against New York. "The officers and soldiers of the American Army," wrote Lafayette to M. de Vergennes on July 23, "have not a shilling. The former receive only a ration, and get no clothes, nor have they, as the soldiers have, the hope of receiving clothes from France." M. Bardoux gives us an interesting correspondence between Lafayette, who was ardent for immediate action, and Rochambeau, who stuck to Rhode Island. "It is always old Father Rochambeau who speaks to his dear son Lafayette, whom he loves and will always love and esteem to the end of his life."

When Gen. Phillips, by the order of Clinton, left New York to join the traitor Arnold, who had landed in Virginia with English troops, Lafayette was sent by Washington to Virginia with a force which numbered hardly 2,000 men. They had neither shoes nor shirts. The merchants of Baltimore lent Lafayette 2,000 guineas to buy cloth. The women whom he saw at a ball given in his honor undertook to make up the shirts. The young men of Baltimore formed a squadron of light cavalry. Lafayette marched with great rapidity towards Richmond and arrived before Phillips. After the death of this officer, Lord Cornwallis came to make a junction with Arnold. Speaking of Lafayette, he wrote: "The boy cannot escape me." The boy escaped him, nevertheless, and was always on his flank or his rear. Writing to his wife, Lafayette says: "It was not reasonable to confide to me such a command; if I had been unlucky, the public would have treated this partiality as blindness. . . . However, the campaign has taken a better turn than we could have hoped." The end, in fact, was near. Cornwallis's plan is now well known, as well as Washington's. A new French force was expected; Admiral de Grasse arrived with 3,200 men, and the memorable siege of Yorktown began. Cornwallis had to capitulate on the 19th of October, 1781. "The play is over," wrote Lafayette on the 20th to the Comte de Maurepas, "and the fifth act is ended."

Lafayette arrived in Paris unexpectedly on the 21st of January, 1782. M. de Ségur, the new Minister of War, announced to him that the King had appointed him "Maréchal de Camp" of his armies. The return of Lafayette created a real enthusiasm. Verses were made for him on the stage; he figured in "L'Amour Français," a play of Rochon de Chabannes. M. Bardoux forgets nothing. What do you think of this? "The eighteenth century always claimed its rights, and this model husband none the less inspired a very tender passion, which in time changed into faithful friendship, in the most charming person at court, and the handsomest, said her contemporaries—Madame de Simiane." Then comes a long eulogy of this lady; the climax is in these words: "To be beloved by Madame de Simiane seemed in the eyes of the old Duc de Laval to be as difficult a conquest as that of the principles of 1789." Really we could not have expected to see the principles of '89 in this affair. To be sure, M. Bardoux ends this little episode by saying the worldly successes of M. de Lafayette "were never of the same value to him as the pleasures of home."

Lafayette had become a representative man. "Surely it was much in the eyes of the nation to have beaten the English, on land and sea, for the first time since Louis XIV., and to have thus avenged a century of humiliation. But there was another sentiment in the popular favor: public opinion felt instinctively that Lafayette had fought for a noble and just cause, the liberty of a people. It was the Revolution that came back from America, and the General represented at the same time the triumphs of the present and the hopes of the future." Lafayette's letter to Washington (February 5, 1783) after the signing of the preliminaries of peace, is well known and has justly been admired; it is that in which for the first time he touches the question of slavery. "Now that you are going to have peace, allow me to propose to you a plan which might become very useful to the negro portion of the human race. Let us join and buy a small estate where we can try to give liberty to the negroes." Lafayette was always in quest of some great and noble purpose. He embarked in June, 1784, on his third journey to America, and was received triumphantly wherever he went. Washington met him at Richmond and took him to Mt. Vernon. He had a formal reception in the Congress; his name was given to various towns; he became a citizen of the United States. His first act on his return to France was a campaign for the Protestants, who had no civil status at the end of the eighteenth century. Their marriages were not legitimate, their wills had no legal force, their children were bastards. It is certainly curious to see that at first Lafayette found no echo. "Nobody," he writes to Washington, "is willing to give me a written line or to help me in any way."

In these years which preceded the French Revolution, Lafayette received many Englishmen and Americans. He had for his *coureur* an American Indian in his original costume, who called him father. He received Marmontel, the Abbé Morellet, the writers and the philosophers. He lived with great simplicity. When the state of the finances determined the convocation of 144 Notables, he was chosen one, and he played an important part in the meetings of this pseudo-parliament. He examined boldly all the reforms which could be made, and stood by the principle that retrenchment was to precede the creation of new taxes. Calonne proposed to the King to shut him up in the Bastille, but Louis XVI. was sincerely inclined to the policy of reform and of retrenchment. Lafayette was the first to pronounce in the Assembly of the Notables the word "States-General." The effect was extraordinary. "What," said the Comte d'Artois, "you ask for the convocation of the States-General?" "Yes, Sir, and even something better." The "something better" was a national and representative assembly.

Lafayette obtained civil equality for the Protestants, and it is only just to say that his chief supporter was the Bishop of Langres. "He has," said the latter, "spoken as a philosopher. I speak as a bishop, and I will say that I prefer the temple to the *prêche* and ministers to *prédicants*." Lafayette was elected deputy of the order of nobility for the *sénéchaussée* of Riom in the States-General at the very moment when Washington had accepted the Presidency of the United States. His career in the difficult years of the Revolution is well known. He had illusions, but not too many. He knew that the Tarpeian rock was near the Capitol. On the very day when he arrived in Paris at the Hôtel de Noailles, for the assembling of the States-General, he told this story to his family: He had made in 1785 a visit to the great Frederick at Potsdam, and in their conversation he had maintained that America would never have either noblemen or kings. "'Sir,' said a moment afterwards the old King, fixing on me his penetrating eye, 'I have known a young man who, after having visited countries where liberty and equality reigned, took it into his head to establish all that in his own country. Do you know what happened to him?' 'No, Sire.' 'Sir,' continued the King with a smile, 'he was hanged.'" Lafayette would not have been hanged, he would certainly have been guillotined if he had not fled the army at the moment when he had become the *bête noire* of the Jacobins.

It will ever be a sad and painful thing to go over those agitated years which followed the convocation of the States-General, and which ended in the establishment of a bloody and organized Terror. Events follow each other in quick succession, but their direction is always the same. The Constitutional party, the party that thought of establishing in France a government similar to that of England, has soon to give way to the Republican party; the deputies of France become the mere tools of the clubs of the capital; the clubs themselves devour each other—after the Girondins, the Jacobins.

When we read this second half of the work of M. Bardoux, we are struck by the great hatred which Queen Marie-Antoinette felt for Lafayette. At a time when there was a question of choosing between him and Pétion for Mayor of Paris, she preferred Pétion; she thought he could manage the popular party better than Lafayette. Lafayette was a gentleman, a nobleman, and the Queen resented what she considered as his defection more keenly than she did the folly of a Pétion. It is unbecoming and cruel to say a word against the unfortunate Marie-Antoinette; but the historian may deplore that she would never place confidence in a man like Lafayette, who was not a real enemy of monarchy, and who, at any rate, could always be trusted and was incapable of treason. Lafayette, as commander of the National Guard of France, became the real gaoler of the King and Queen. Such are the terrible fatalities of history. His turn came soon afterwards; he, also, had his "flight to Varennes," but he was luckier than the

King and the Queen: his life was spared, but he knew the bitterness of exile and the languor of captivity in an Austrian prison.

Correspondence.

RAPHAEL'S HOURS AND GALATEA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent calls attention to the resemblance between the "Third Hour of the Day" in Raphael's "Hours" and the "Galatea" in the Farnesina fresco. This resemblance, which is so close as to make it impossible to doubt that one figure was copied from the other, was long ago pointed out by Passavant in his book upon Raphael ('Rafael von Urbino und sein Vater Giovanni Santi'). Oddly enough, in the original (the German) edition of his book Passavant, by a species of heterophemy, ascribes the origin of these figures of the Hours to the enthusiasm excited by the discoveries in Pompeii. I am writing away from my books, but I believe that in the French translation of the 'Rafael' "the Baths of Titus" is substituted for "Pompeii."

The action of the arms and hands is precisely the same in the "Galatea" and in the "Third Hour," but Galatea holds in both hands the reins with which she guides the dolphins attached to her sea-shell chariot, while in the Hour a censer with burning incense is substituted for the dolphins, and the chains it swings by take the place of the reins. Another point to notice in the Galatea fresco is, that the Cupid lying on the dolphin in the foreground is as nearly like as possible to the infant Christ in the Bridgewater Madonna. Of these two figures also, it may be said, it is impossible to doubt that one was copied from the other. Which of the two figures thus repeated, the Galatea and the Cupid, was the original? Were they first used in the Farnesina fresco, or were they employed in that picture after they had done service elsewhere—the one in the Vatican, the other in the Bridgewater Madonna? The figure of the "Hour" is so well balanced in design and so logical in composition that it looks made expressly for the place it fills. The "Galatea," when compared with it, has rather the air of an adaptation. The Cupid, on the other hand, seems at home on his dolphin in the "Galatea," while as a sprawling lusty infant in the Madonna picture he has certainly an incongruous look. C. C.

Fishkill-on-Hudson, August 22, 1892.

THE PROCESS OF AN ERROR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to make a few observations on a point which your review of Mr. Samuel Ramsey's *English Language and English Grammar*, in No. 1410, leaves untouched.

With regard to "the expressions of which 'the house *was being built*' is a type," Mr. Ramsey writes:

"According to Mr. Kington Oliphant, this form of expression came into common use about 1770, although he cites two examples more than 300 years older. How many examples escaped notice we cannot say; but so much is clear, that the expression has been in the language more than 400 years." P. 473.

First we find Mr. Oliphant saying:

"The new-fangled *tea is being made*, or any such-like construction, was not in vogue until about 1770." "Owing to this confusion, a wholly new English idiom was produced about 1770." *The Old and Middle English* (1878), pp. 337, 389.

Mr. Oliphant is here indebted to me, though I am unmentioned, and not even alluded to. In my *English Adjectives in -able* (1877), p. 28, foot-note, I quote "there *is* a good opera now *being acted*," and, "Sir Guy Carlton *was . . . being examined*," from letters of Mrs. James Harris (1769), and her husband the famous philologist (1779), respectively.

Desiring to be quite sure about these passages, I addressed a note to the late Earl of Malmesbury, the editor of the work in which they occur, begging him to look at their originals. The Earl thereupon wrote to me: "In reply to your note respecting the diction of the First Lord Malmesbury's letters, I beg to inform you that the manuscript was copied literally, and in no degree altered."

In *The New English* (1886), vol. ii., p. 188, foot-note, Mr. Oliphant says of me: "He seems unaware of the fact that the idiom was anything but new." Its antiquity he professes to have shown in vol. i., p. 273, and vol. ii., p. 58.

The "two examples more than 300 years older" than 1770, which Mr. Ramsey refers to, I have proved, in this journal, vol. xliv., p. 447 (1887), to be forgeries of Mr. Oliphant, if interpolation is forgery. This matter, I may add, has been examined by Mr. R. O. Williams, in *Our Dictionaries*, etc. (1890), pp. 40, 41 and p. 138.

Again, in this journal, vol. xlv., p. 313 (1887), I have pointed out that Mr. Oliphant was misled, by unscrupulous editing, in his representation that "Italy *is being held* dangerous" fell from the pen of a letter-writer in 1611.

My discussion of English Imperfects Passive, in *Modern English* (1873), pp. 321–359 and 368, seems, by the by, to have escaped Mr. Ramsey's researches.

Anticipating, it may be, the emergence of constructions like those in question is, "we *'re* still *a being robbed*," quoted in this journal, vol. xlv., p. 156 (1887), from *The Villain*, by Thomas Porter (1663).

Earlier, by upwards of a century, than the quotations given above from the Harrises is the following, which, if clear of corruption, is critically in point:

"Thence Creed and I, by water, up to Fox Hall, and over against it stopped, thinking to see some Cock-fighting; but it *was* just *being done*, and, therefore back again to Spring Garden." Samuel Pepys (June 3, 1667), *Diary*, etc. (1875-79), vol. iv., p. 357.

This sentence, taken from the Rev. Mynors Bright's edition of Pepys, does not appear among the excerpts previously published by Lord Braybrooke.

The Rev. Prof. Skeat, with his never-failing kindness, informs me, in reply to an inquiry relating to the sentence, that he believes Mr. Bright has been dead some years,* and adds: "I do not know who now can read Pepys' cipher." He also says, in the letter from which I am quoting: "I quite believe that *is being* can boast of no 'early instances.' I know of none."

In Mr. Williams's book which I have already named, Miss Austen's "for, as to Frank, it *was* more than *being* tacitly *brought up* as his uncle's heir" is cited as if it exemplified locutions like *is being built*. But Miss Austen's "being brought up," instead of forming part of an imperfect tense, is a passive gerund, forming part of a phrasal nominative after "was," the nominative before which is "it."

From "it is not shooting, but being shot, that I object to," who would think of extracting "is being shot," as an imperfect?

Further remarks on the style of construction about which Mr. Ramsey has repeated an exploded misstatement, I postpone to another occasion. F. H.

Marlesford, England, August 4, 1892.

* Mr. Bright died in 1883.—Ed. Nation.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have in press the second volume of Ten Brink's 'Early English Literature'; 'German Literature in its Chief Epochs,' by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard; a translation of Prof. R. Falkenberg's 'History of Modern Philosophy,' from Nicholas of Cusa to the present time; 'Hume,' by Prof. Aikens of Trinity, N. C.; 'Hegel,' by Prof. Royce of Harvard; a 'Dictionary of Botanical Terms,' popular as well as scientific, by A. A. Crozier; and 'Physics,' by Prof. George F. Barker of the University of Pennsylvania.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce that they have in preparation an edition of the writings of Thomas Paine, edited by his latest biographer, Mr. Moncure D. Conway. It will make two or three volumes uniform with the Life, with divisions (1) political and sociological, and (2) religious and literary; and the reprint will be from the original publications. Mr. Conway will furnish notes. The undertaking is much to be commended.

The Shakspere Society of New York propose a four-text edition of "Hamlet," to be sold to 750 subscribers. In exact facsimile the texts of 1603, 1604, 1623, will be paralleled with an eclectic modern text, and accompanied by a translation of the German version performed in Dresden in 1603. The volume will be luxuriously got up.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Children of the King,' a new novel by F. Marion Crawford. The 'Letters of Charles Dickens,' which originally appeared in three octavo volumes, are to be compressed by the same firm into one volume, uniform with their current popular edition of the novels.

Ginn & Co. promise in the fall 'An Introduction to Narrative Greek Composition,' by Prof. Morris H. Morgan of Harvard.

The letters, etc., of Columbus have been collected in English version by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in a volume called 'Writings of Christopher Columbus,' which will shortly be published by Charles L. Webster & Co., who announce also 'Autobiographia; or, the Story of a Life,' selections from the prose writings of Walt Whitman, by Arthur Stedman.

The Century Company's fall list includes, besides Mr. Cole's 'Old Italian Masters,' several other reprints from the *Century*, viz., Mrs. Van Rensselaer's 'English Cathedrals,' illustrated by Joseph Pennell—in two editions; 'Plays in Provence,' by the same artist in collaboration with Mrs. Pennell; Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Characteristics'; Dr. J. M. Buckley's 'Faith-Healing, Christian Science, and Kindred Phenomena,' and a new edition of Frank Stockton's works in five volumes, sold only in sets.

The Hakluyt Society are about to issue, in two volumes, Pietro della Valle's eight letters from India, edited by Mr. Edward Grey, late of the Bengal Civil Service. The same society will issue next year, also in two volumes, the voyages of Capt. Luke Foce and Capt. James to Hudson's Bay, edited by Mr. Miller Christy. Mr. Clements Markham, the distinguished President of the Society, has lately been stay-

ing at Genoa and studying the Columbian records. He has promised to contribute a collection of unpublished early voyages to America —fragments relating to Cabot, Cortereal, Vespucci, and Verrazzano. Mr. Delmar Morgan, the genial Honorary Secretary of the Hakluyt, has in contemplation the publication of an edition of the letters of Peter Martyr d'Anghiera, the chronicler of the great events of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. Meanwhile, Dr. Robert Brown's edition of Leo Africanus is nearly ready for the printer; and the same may be said of a book on early English voyages to the Levant, with some account of the Levant Company, by Mr. Theodore Bent. Mr. Everard im Thurm, who is now in England on leave of absence from British Guiana, hopes to devote two months of work at Torquay this autumn to his edition of Schomburgk's very admirable volume of Sir Walter Raleigh's 'Empire of Guiana.'

The latest step in the popularization of critical views about the composite structure of the Pentateuch is taken in Prof. E. C. Bissell's 'Genesis Printed in Colors' (Hartford: Belknap & Warfield). Each supposed documentary source or fragment has its own color of type, and the result is a typographically well-executed and graphic presentation of the scheme of textual analysis adopted by Kautzsch and Socin. Prof. Bissell himself does not go with the critics, and in a brief introduction makes an assault upon their methods and results. This lends a curious impression to his book, as if it were a testimony to the robustness of his own faith: he reasserts the old opinion in the face of the demonstration that it is no longer tenable.

'Poor's Manual of the Railroads of the United States' (New York: H. V. & H. W. Poor) rounds out its twenty-fifth year with its present issue. In the quarter century the task of the editors has grown from dealing with 39,250 miles of road to dealing with nearly four times that number (170,601 on January 1, 1892). The tonnage in the same period has increased fifteen fold. When to these simple figures we add the capital invested and the number of persons dependent upon or immediately affected by the railroad system, the folly of strikers who think the fiat of a "lodge" can withstand the weight of such an interest, becomes apparent. The Messrs. Poor themselves succumb to it, for in order to keep their volume within bounds they are constrained to separate some matters for issue in a new form, viz., 'Poor's Directory of Railway Officials' and 'Poor's Handbook of Investment Securities,' which must share the authoritative character of the older publication.

Two bibliographies are on our table, one a "List of Books relating to Aaron Burr," by Hamilton Bullock Tompkins (Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club). This fills eighty-three pages and as many leaves, and indicates in what public libraries the books may be found. The other work is a 'Homœopathic Bibliography of the United States (1825-1891),' by Thomas Lindsley Bradford, M.D. (Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel), a work of large proportions—nearly 600 pages—and seemingly conscientiously executed. It deals not only with books, and with books *con* as well as *pro*, but with societies, colleges, hospitals, dispensaries, pharmacies, and, synoptically, medical legislation in the several States.

In reprints, we have 'Three Feathers' and 'Madcap Violet,' in the Harpers' uniform series of William Black's novels; 'The Old Curiosity Shop,' with 'Master Humphrey's Clock,' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' in Charles Dickens 'the younger's reproduction of first editions of his father's works (Macmillian); and two final volumes in Roberts Bros.' edition of Jane Austen. The first call for no special remark. The Dickens volumes have a particular interest for America, since the original scheme of 'Master Humphrey's Clock' involved a journey to the United States in search of material for that ill-conceived periodical, and 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' if not a product of the journey, profited by it, and was laid to the charge of Dickens along with the 'American Notes.' The introductions give all necessary bibliographical information, and the original illustrations are reproduced. The posthumous 'Lady Susan' and 'The Watsons,' together with Mr. Austen Leigh's memoir of his aunt, fill one of the pretty volumes of the Messrs. Roberts. The other consists of a selection of letters of Jane Austen from Lord Brabourne's compilation. Miss Woolsey, who is responsible for this, furnishes a preface. The set is now capitally rounded out. Two portraits of the author are given in these last volumes, and a view of her burial-place in Winchester Cathedral.

The contrast between 'Young Lucretia, and Other Stories,' by Mary E. Wilkins (Harpers), and 'The Pot of Gold,' which was published contrary to her wish, is all in favor of the author's judgment. We willingly exchange the fantastic element of those earlier tales for these strong characters in plain setting. Miss Wilkins's children are as real as her grown people, and as distinctly possessed of the New England conscience which gives point to nearly all the stories. Her condensed style will especially suit young readers.

Any student who is industrious enough to keep a manuscript volume of notes and criticisms on his reading, and a scrap-book in connection with it, will find opportunity for still further labor, not without compensation, in T. E. Shields's ingenious 'Index Omnium' (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). This provides for a catalogue of the books annotated, and a dictionary of leading words by which the thought or passage can be traced back to the author, or to the synopses and criticisms in the subsidiary volumes mentioned above. The nearly three thousand lines of entry for books read would serve, if one chose, for cataloguing a very respectable private library.

Two little volumes, the fruit of recent studies by Prof. A. Beljame, may be recommended to students of the French language, but also to those who would have a better knowledge of their own English tongue. One is a prose translation of Tennyson's 'Enoch Arden,' facing the original text; the other is the same poem annotated and supplied with very happy comparisons of Tennyson with himself and with other poets and writers, and an elaborate examination of the versification of 'Enoch Arden.' Add a sketch of the life of Tennyson, and a bibliography which enumerates translations into Latin, German, Spanish, Dutch, Hungarian, Italian, Norwegian, Czech, and French—for Prof. Beljame has had predecessors. His publisher is Hachette.

From Hachette, too (Boston: Carl Schoenhof), comes a school edition of Manzoni's 'I Promessi Sposi' in pocket form, and therefore, of course, abridged; the sequel of the story after the flight of "the betrothed" being discarded. There are notes and a partial vocabulary.

The eleventh annual report of the Dante Society at Cambridge, Mass., reveals an increasing membership and one very notable loss—the late Mr. Lowell. Prof. Carpenter concludes his valuable reproduction of documents concerning Dante's public life. Mr. William C. Lane, with his customary skill, records the additions to the Dante collection in the Harvard Library. A Harvard Annex prize essay of last year, by Lucy Allen Paton, concludes the pamphlet, and will be read with profit. The subject is Dante's personal character, and for the major part is adequately treated, with some painstaking inductions and references for which students will be grateful to the author.

The old records of the ancient English Colony of Barbados are being now recopied at the public expense. Although the colony was planted as far back as 1627, fires and hurricanes have wrought havoc among its archives, and historical students will be glad to learn that a fair number of papers date as far back as 1640.

Americans who may be engaged upon historical researches should know that the branch of the Record Office, London, where the papers relating to America and the Plantations are dealt with, is now in charge of Mr. Hubert Hall, who is a most efficient successor to Mr. Noel Sainsbury.

Prof. W. M. Davis has recently published an interesting article upon winter thunderstorms, in which, from comparison of observations, he finds that while such storms are indeed less common in winter than in summer, those which do occur during the cold season are chiefly at night and near the coast. He concludes that the convectional origin of summer thunder-storms implies a like origin for such storms in winter, near or upon the ocean, even if they are chiefly nocturnal. He regards them provisionally as chiefly dependent upon a pronounced vertical temperature gradient, which may be determined partly by the cooling of the upper air by radiation about the lofty cloud stratum of cyclonic storms, and partly by the maintenance of relatively high temperatures in the lower air by the conservative power of the ocean.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Meteorological Society, Mr. E. J. Lowe read a paper upon raindrops. By careful study, and after making more than three hundred sketches, he has developed some curious facts relating to the varieties in raindrops—subjects wherein the careless observer would have said no difference could exist. An ingenious method of preserving their forms was described. By means of slates ruled in inch squares and made in book form, to be capable of instant closing, the splash of the drop was accurately obtained, and afterwards copied upon paper similarly ruled. It was found that some drops make a clean, circular spot, others show splashes about the edge, and some drops seem to be actually hollow, failing to wet the whole surface enclosed. The size varies from a mere point to a spot of at least two inches in diameter. Mr. Lowe exhibited, also, diagrams of interest as showing the shapes of low-lying mist-drops, and of the forms taken by melting snowflakes.

— The September *Atlantic* gives little occasion for comment. Apart from the serials, which occupy the space of the number to an unusual degree, room is found for a nature paper from the sympathetic pen of Olive Thorne Miller, under the clever but misleading title, "Cliff-Dwellers in the Cañon"; for a "Memory" paper, which contains a pre-natal reminiscence of the sort collected by psychical-research societies; and for a seasonable paper on the worn but important subject of how to teach literature in the schools, by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. It is not the first time that Mr. Scudder has urged the desirability of a more

rational method in the younger reading-classes, and, indeed, so much has been said in all quarters that nothing remains except to keep the subject alive and, if possible, troublesome, in the hope of wearing out the stolid conservatism of the "committeemen" by importunity, or of exciting the routine-drilled teacher to experiment by reiterated advice and encouragement. It may be suspected that one difficulty in the way is that such articles do not reach the power in control—that is, the school board; and teachers seem rather to rely on purely educational publications in which they have a voice, or, at least, find these topics treated from the pedagogic point of view. Mr. Scudder treats the subject from the position of a man of letters who believes in the educating power of literature as one of its great functions; and the methods he suggests of preparing the minds of school-children from the start, so that they shall come to the appreciation of the best books as naturally as they pass from arithmetic to geometry, are such as have been widely approved by thinking literary men, and should have entered upon the practical stage of reform before now. The poet Whittier pays a tribute to Dr. Holmes upon the occasion of his birthday, in lines which reflect the serenity and pleasantness of his own old age.

—*Harper's* continues the thumb-nail review of Parisian literary celebrities, or pseudo-celebrities, by Theodore Child, and at the head are placed the cultivators of "egoism" on the one hand and the followers of Vogüé on the other, as the present players on that stage of the coteries which has been contemporary with literature in Paris; and the author winds up with sketches of the old lions, the dramatists, and the editors. The most spirited paper is Mr. Martin's sporting contribution, describing fox-hunting in the Genesee Valley, where all the conditions for the sport exist in ideal perfection. Mr. Ralph writes of the State of Washington in his usual vein, and the back-country town-meeting is again described as "The Aryan Mark" by Miss Anna C. Brackett, while Mr. Howard Pyle pictures better than he describes the Sand-Hills. The most curious paper is Mr. Hutton's series of illustrations of death-masks, ranging from Dante to "Ben Caunt," with its thoroughly informed and lightly worded text.

—The *Century* contains a full account of the exploration of the Grand Falls of Labrador last summer by Henry G. Bryant, illustrated with several views which give us the first ocular knowledge of this great natural feature of the North, which has so long lain just beyond our horizon. The expedition was made at the same time the Bowdoin College party set out with the same object, and a narrative of the experience of the latter has been told, as Mr. Bryant remarks, in a scientific publication; but he was more fortunate in reaching results, and brought back measurements and photographs. The height of the principal fall is 816 feet, and the breadth about 50 yards, being narrowed in the rapids from a breadth of 300 yards a mile upstream. The story of the journey is told in an interesting way, and the wonder is that in these days the journey should have been so long unperformed, though not altogether unattempted. Alaska affords material for another paper of travel, and Mr. Roosevelt touches the same ground of interest in his Elk-Hunt in Northwestern Wyoming. Mr. Stedman concludes his papers on poetry; the Life of Columbus and the World's Fair series go on; and there is a large bunch of short stories. A welcome is given to Dvořák, whose portrait is the frontispiece; Mr. Theodore Robinson writes with enthusiasm, but not without restraint, of Monet; and Prof. Brander Matthews contributes a unique article upon artistic posters, mainly of Parisian origin, in which he confidently discerns the promise of a new, if humble, art.

—*Scribner's* brings forward the subject of the Tilden Library in this city, in regard to which Mr. John Bigelow makes several suggestions, the most important being the proposition to place it in Bryant Park and to give it a special cruciform shape, in adopting which it is possible that librarians and architects might agree. The study is a suggestive one, and the proposals made will no doubt receive proper consideration. The article upon "The Education of the Blind" gives information upon a subject which remains a mystery to most persons, and elucidates the different systems of printing; incidentally, too, by mention of a few cases of striking success in educating the blind, the author encourages increased interest in what is certainly one of the most fruitful of modern philanthropic efforts. The history of the buffalo, the prosperity of the Pueblo Indian, the Névsky Prospékt (in the series of Great Streets of the World), and French Classical Painting, are the remaining topics.

—Prof. James Bryce's interesting and suggestive address on the "Migrations of the Races of Men Considered Historically," delivered before the Royal Scottish Geographical Society at the inauguration of its London branch, is printed in the August number of the Society's magazine. After dwelling for a moment on the fact that geography is the meeting-point of the sciences, he defines the three different forms of the movements of population under the terms Transference, Dispersion, and Permeation. To the first of these belong the most of the prehistoric migrations and those which overthrew the Roman Empire. The second is the overflowing of a race into new lands, as the British into North America and Australia, or the Russians into Siberia. The third covers those instances in which "one race or nation so spreads over another race or nation its language, its literature, its religion, its institutions, its customs, or some one or more of these sources of influence, as to impart its own character to the nation so influenced, and thus to substitute its own for the original type." The earliest known instance of this diffusion is that of the Greeks over Asia Minor and the adjacent countries; a later, that of the Arabs over Syria, Egypt, and Northern Africa. Prof. Bryce suggests the possibility also of a similar result in India from English influence, without, however, any mixture of blood, "possibly with little social intimacy," between the European and native races. The main causes of these migrations are food, war, and labor; religion and love of freedom having operated rarely and with but comparatively small results. The lines followed by them have been usually those of least resistance, or, in other words, they have followed the "lines of equal mean temperature, and not so much, I think, of mean annual heat as of mean winter heat." The great movements of population Prof. Bryce divides into five epochs or groups, the prehistoric (including the Etruscan and Aryan, the earliest recorded); the Phœnician, Israelite, and Greek; that termed by the Germans the Wandering of the Peoples (*Völkerwanderung*); the Mohammedan; and the modern, beginning with the discovery of America. The latter is divided again into four great eras, that of the Spaniards into tropical America, the negroes from Africa, the English and French into North America, and the emigration from Europe within the last seventy years. A brief reference only is made to the analogy between these movements and those of animals and plants, as, for instance, the invasion of Europe in comparatively recent times by the brown rat, a native of Asia. In closing, Prof. Bryce gave reasons for the belief that the results of recent changes upon political organizations and types of human culture will be fewer and fewer, showing that since the eleventh century no new nation has arisen in Europe, nor has the migration of different races to America produced a new national type. The time is not far distant, however, when the habitable parts of the world will be filled and the outflow of the nations stopped, and then we may enter upon a "new era, whose phenomena will prove unlike any that have gone before."

—"Franklin Portraits" is a notable feature of the July Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, the list amounting to 239 numbers. The two oil paintings of Franklin—a Duplessis and a supposed Greuze—in the possession of the Library are very well copied by "process" to accompany the iconography. Besides this valuable achievement in a field heretofore little explored, the editors of the Bulletin annex a catalogue of the "John A. Lewis Library," now forming one of its most precious collections in the domain of early Boston books and Puritan literature. The volumes representing the Mather family alone exceed two hundred, and in addition to the large proportion of sermons embraced in them there are hundreds by various ministers, in the very titles of which are reflected the annals of New England, the polity of the Bay Colony, the morals and the superstitions of the time. Not a few of them, like multitudes since, doubtless deserved the running-title, "A manufactory sermon," innocently applied to the Rev. Thomas Barnard's discourse in 1758 before the Boston Society for Encouraging Industry and Employing the Poor. Others had serious occasion enough, like the common article of death, many worthies being commemorated at their taking off, as in Benjamin Colman's 'Ossa Josephi. Or, the Bones of Joseph. Considered in a sermon preached at the lecture in Boston after the funeral of the very honorable and excellent Joseph Dudley, Esq. [1720].' Comets always suggested a sermon, as one did to Increase Mather in 1682, viz., his 'Heaven's Alarm to the World. Or a sermon wherein is shewed that fearful sights and signs in heaven are the presages of great calamities at hand. Second impression.' Much more, of course, were earthquakes a godsend to the pulpit—"the works of God and tokens of his just displeasure," according to the Rev. Thomas Prince in 1727, who also traced in 1749, after an acute experience, "the natural and moral government and agency of God in causing droughts and rains." After Cotton Mather's 'Wonders of the Invisible World,' it is needless to cite the witchcraft sermons collected by Mr. Lewis. Increase Mather furnished 'The Answer of several ministers in and near Boston to that case of conscience, whether it is lawful for a man to marry his wives own sister,' as well as to the question, "whether it be lawful for a church-member among us to be frequently in taverns?" And he shot 'An Arrow against Profane and Promiscuous Dancing. Drawn out of the quiver of the Scriptures.' Joseph Seccombe, on the other hand, held 'Business and Diversion Inoffensive to God, and neces-

sary for the Comfort and Support of Human Society. A discourse uttered in part at Ammauskeeg-Falls, in the fishing-season." Apart from well-known New England rarities in this collection, we notice a 'Vade Mecum for America: or a Companion for Traders and Travellers' (Boston, 1732); a Hebrew Grammar for Harvard students (Boston, 1735); and Tully's "Cato Major" printed with explanatory notes of his own by Franklin in Philadelphia in 1744.

—Some of our readers who have known Mr. F. C. Penrose, supervising architect of St. Paul's in London, as Director of the British School of Archæology at Athens, will be interested to learn that the King of Greece has just conferred upon him the Golden Cross of the Order of the Saviour, to which not a few Hellenists of distinction, Prof. W. W. Goodwin among them, already belong. Meanwhile, Miss Emily Penrose, his daughter, has illustrated Somerville College, Oxford, by achieving a distinction never before won by any of her sex—a first-class in the Final School of Literæ Humaniores. The remarkable knowledge of History and Archæology which enabled her to win a distinction hitherto considered beyond a woman's reach, was well exemplified in a lecture on "Ancient Methods of Voting" which she gave at a friend's house in Oxford, just at the close of the recent heated electoral campaign. Miss Penrose has been presented to a Travelling Fellowship, and is now studying at Berlin. In the autumn she announces lectures on Greek and Roman history and archæology; some of them to be given (by permission of the Trustees) at the British Museum. Nor is this the only proof in store for us of the careful study of Greek that English women are now making. Following to some extent the example of Miss Harrison and Mrs. Verrall, Miss Eugénie Sellars is preparing a text, with translation and annotation, of those parts of the Elder Pliny's Natural History which bear upon Art and Archæology. This work is already so far advanced toward completion that its publication is arranged for.

STRACHEY'S HASTINGS AND THE ROHILLA WAR.

Hastings and the Rohilla War. By Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

MACAULAY'S Essay on Warren Hastings has hitherto been accepted and admitted into the historical curriculum as not only a brilliant piece of narrative and rhetoric, but a faithful account of the events with which it deals and a genuine picture of the early period of British rule in India. As a study in history it ought now to be laid aside, however highly it may be admired as a specimen of narrative and rhetoric. With regard to the story of Nuncomar, Sir James Stephen seems to have conclusively proved that the famous essay is a tissue of brilliant fable. He has shown that Hastings had nothing whatever to do with the trial of Nuncomar for forgery, which arose out of a lawsuit long anterior to the existence of any collision or relations of any kind between the two men, or with his execution; that the charges against Impey of judicial murder and other outrages are baseless; that Nuncomar had a perfectly fair trial, though under a very harsh law; and that the general picture of misrule and oppression, though by no means imaginary, is, like most of Macaulay's pictures, monstrously overdrawn.

Sir John Strachey has now performed a similar operation with regard to the "Rohilla" charge. That charge was supposed to weigh most heavily of all on the memory of Hastings. It had never been judicially investigated, Pitt having refused to impeach upon it, though he turned round and with his obedient train of followers voted for impeachment on the charge of extortion practised on Cheyte Singh, which is now, we believe, held to have been groundless, Cheyte Singh having been in reality required to pay no more than was due by the terms on which he held his fief, or than a native suzerain would have exacted. The charge continued, therefore, to pass current and obtain universal credence in Burke's rhetorical or super-rhetorical version; and the author of the last Life of Burke, Mr. John Morley, accepts it without hesitation and moralizes in the usual strain. It is now, apparently, disproved. The belief embodied in Macaulay's Essay is that the Rohillas were a nation of virtuous and prosperous husbandmen and mechanics, "not negligent," to use Macaulay's expression, "of rhetoric and poetry"; that they were invaded without cause and ruthlessly exterminated, while their smiling land was made a waste, by the Nabob Vizier of Oude; and that Hastings sold for a great sum the services of the British Army as auxiliaries in the invasion and extermination. The facts now, if we may trust Sir John Strachey, turn out to be that the Rohillas were not a nation at all, but a tribe of Afghan freebooters who had planted themselves in the midst of a conquered Hindu population and subsisted upon the labor of their subjects, not tilling the earth themselves nor pursuing any art or trade but war; that they had got, against the faith of a treaty, into sinister relations with the Mahrattas, and were threatening to lay open Oude, and ultimately the British Dominion, to the devastating inroads of those terrible marauders; that Hastings, in lending the Nabob the assistance of the British forces, was therefore pursuing a virtually defensive policy and violating no rule of public morality—certainly no rule recognized in the political ethics of Hindustan; and that the payment for the troops was taken from the Nabob not as a bribe, or as the hire of mere mercenaries, but in fulfilment of a regular agreement that the cost should be so defrayed when British troops were employed beyond the limits of their own territory. Not a Rohilla, it seems, can be proved to have been killed except in battle, and a portion only of them were ultimately banished from the country. Excesses were committed by the Nabob's army, as excesses are committed in all Hindu wars, but were deprecated and restrained instead of being cynically defended, as it has been alleged that they were, by Hastings. The native Hindu population, instead of being extirpated, had reason, when the war was over, to rejoice in their change of masters, and the land smiled more than ever. The only thing which lends color, it appears, to the black version of the affair given by Burke, and which his magnificent rhetoric has made familiar to all fancies, is the natural but compromising anxiety of Hastings to prove to his mercantile employers, the directors of the East India Company, that the transaction had been to their pecuniary advantage. A ridiculous feature of the fictitious indictment is the confusion into which the accusers fell of Hafiz Khan, an Afghan chief, who paid his tribute to the established custom of his clan by composing a lay of some kind, with Hafiz, the great Persian poet of the fourteenth century, whence Macaulay has distilled his general description of the people as "not negligent of poetry or rhetoric."

Sir John Strachey is disposed to exonerate Macaulay, whom he seems to regard with a somewhat Eastern veneration, on the ground that Macaulay only implicitly followed James Mill, the historian of India, without making any independent inquiry. To follow blindly a writer whose leaning is unmistakable, in a case where his bias was sure to be peculiarly strong and where justice to great characters was involved, is certainly less culpable than fabrication; but the amplification and exaggeration are Macaulay's own. In the case of Impey, he cannot be acquitted of a still graver offence. Impey's son put forth, after the publication of Macaulay's Essay, a defence of his father's memory. The book was the work of a man devoid of literary and controversial skill, but it brought to light certain facts, at once incontrovertible and momentous, such as that Impey had been arraigned before the House of Commons and formally acquitted, and that, at the trial of Nuncomar, he sat not alone but with three colleagues on the bench whose impartiality was open to no suspicion. Macaulay must have seen the book, and he could have had no answer to its statements, but, trusting, with too much reason, to its unreadable character and to the popular qualities of his own Essay, he continued to circulate charges against Impey's memory of the grossest kind, which he must thenceforth have known to be, in part at least, untrue. It is astonishing that he should not have been aware from his own knowledge of Parliamentary history that the charge of judicially murdering Nuncomar by the hand of Impey had been thrown out by Burke against Hastings in Westminster Hall, no doubt under the inspiration of Francis, and had been formally disclaimed by the House of Commons, which censured Burke for having made it, while Burke never attempted to vindicate himself by substantiating the charge. We will venture to say that no one who has compared Macaulay's Essay with the critiques of Sir James Stephen and Sir John Strachey, will ever again feel implicit faith in Macaulay as an historian.

Burke fell a victim to the malignant infusions of Francis, the deadly personal enemy of Hastings, combined with his own generous but uncontrolled sympathies and his rich but delusive imagination. How far he was carried away appears from his having insisted that Francis, who had fought a duel with Hastings, should be one of the managers of the impeachment—an indecency upon which Pitt, of course, put his veto. His emotions completely overcame his sense of justice. The articles of impeachment drawn by him are pronounced by Sir James Stephen "as shuffling and disingenuous in substance as they are clumsy, awkward, and intricate in form." "They are," says Sir James Stephen, "extremely tricky, very full of insinuations, and covering by their profusion of irrelevant matter the total (and no doubt designed) absence of averments essential to the conclusion which they are meant to support." The language of Burke's speeches in Westminster Hall is incredibly rabid and indecent, especially when it is considered that Hastings, who was present, had at all events filled high imperial office and done great things. Mr. Law, Hastings's counsel, did not very much exaggerate in saying that "the lowest blackguard in a bear-garden would have been ashamed of some of the expressions." Sir J. Strachey quotes some examples:

"For years he [Hastings] lay down upon that sty of disgrace, fattening in it, lying,

feeding upon that offal of disgrace and excrement and everything that can be opprobious to the human mind." "Such are the damned and damnable proceedings of a judge in hell, and such a judge was Warren Hastings." "A wild beast when his belly is full may be pleased and lick your hand. You might have a serene day under such a beast, but can you under that man Hastings?" "A captain-general of iniquity, thief, tyrant, robber, cheat, sharper, swindler; we call him all these names, and are very sorry that the English language does not afford terms equal to the enormity of his offence." "Sir Walter Raleigh was called a spider of hell. This was foolish and indecent in Lord Coke. Had he been a manager on this trial he would have been guilty of a neglect of duty had he not called the prisoner a spider of hell." "What! compare this man, a bullock-driver [Hastings was alleged to have had something to do with a contract for bullocks], with Tamerlane and those conquerors! When God punished Pharaoh and Egypt, he did not send armies but lice and locusts to lay the land waste."

The want of good sense and self-control displayed in these outbreaks, the list of which might be lengthened and which are not without their counterpart in Burke's Parliamentary speeches, must be held in some measure to account for what has been deemed his unjust exclusion from the Cabinet, though aristocratic prejudice may also have been in part the cause. The language of Hastings, on the other hand, is uniformly dignified, calm, and indicative of a self-possession such as we might expect in the man whose courage, unquailing in extremity, enabled him, when he was beset by an infuriated populace at Benares and in the utmost peril of his life, to send out two despatches, one ordering the commander of the troops at the nearest station to hasten to his assistance, the other giving directions for the prosecution of an extensive scheme of policy in which he was engaged. It is not easy for conquerors to be moral, least of all when they are contending with Mahrattas and with powers of wrong and rapine such as dominated amidst the wreck of the Mogul Empire. But Hastings was no mere marauder or tyrant; he was a great ruler after his kind, and his rule was felt to be at least comparatively beneficial, and a refuge from the plundering anarchy which reigned around, by those over whom he ruled. From personal corruption, whether in the Rohilla affair or any other, he is admitted to have been free.

Some of the most sagacious and patriotic of Englishmen have doubted whether England did what was best for herself in assuming the political dominion of India, and whether she would not have done more wisely had she been content with the possession of stations for her trade. We may all doubt whether conquest can really and permanently be made the instrument of civilization, while we cannot help admitting that the British Empire in India is the greatest experiment of that kind. But no one will doubt that the story of the Empire is worth telling as a record of the energy, fortitude, and administrative power of our race; and we cordially agree with Sir John Strachey in lamenting that it has not up to this present time been well told. Nothing but a history at once true and readable will displace from popular fancy the brilliant rhetoric of Macaulay.

FREEMAN'S HISTORY OF SICILY.

The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. Vol. III. The Athenian and Carthaginian Invasions. By Edward A. Freeman. Macmillan & Co. 1892. Pp. xxxv, 750.

JUST as this volume issued from the press a few months ago, Prof. Freeman was suddenly stricken by smallpox in Spain, and died. We may say, without disparagement, that Freeman's position as an historian was already established, and could not have been changed had he lived to produce many more volumes of the gigantic history on which he was engaged at the time of his death. At seventy, an author's methods are fixed, his message is known; we need expect from him no further surprise, but confirmation in various forms of his life-long opinions, and the reiteration of mannerisms which perhaps astonished when they were fresh, but grow tedious with age. In the volume before us, Freeman comes into direct competition with precisely the noblest specimen of historical writing which has ever been produced. The account which Thucydides has left of the Sicilian Expedition remains, after two-and-twenty centuries, the model, whether of historical depth and accuracy or of historical narration. It is, indeed, the only record we have of that most momentous episode, and we believe it is trustworthy, not because we can or cannot corroborate it, but because we perceive that Thucydides was one of those rare men who, by a law of their being, tell the truth. If he ever misstated, if he was silent on points about which we should be glad of information, we may be sure that he did not intend to falsify or to suppress. The sixth and seventh books of his history, which chronicle the arrogant ambition and the appalling disaster of the Athenians at Syracuse, being thus acknowledged not only masterpieces of historical composition, but also the sole adequate source from which an account of those events can be drawn, it would seem almost superfluous for a modern historian to attempt to compete with them. He cannot add much to the substance they contain, he cannot improve upon the manner in which they are presented: what, then, can he do?

For one thing, he can interpret them so that they shall be wholly intelligible to readers to-day. Thucydides, writing as a contemporary, could not possibly foresee the ultimate significance of the actions he described; a modern can discern the bearing of those actions, not only upon the immediate destiny of Athens and Spar a and Syracuse, but also upon the development of the world's history. Again, many allusions which were easily understood by Thucydides's fellows, now need explanation; much that they would take for granted now needs to be set down. And, finally, there is a good deal of journeyman's work to be done in reconciling textual contradictions and in settling moot points in topography. To do these things is Freeman's especial task, and in doing them he is aided by the results of recent archæologists and by his own indefatigable search for microscopic facts that may shed light on the main theme. He has, moreover, the advantage of treating the subject from the Sicilian point of view. Other historians have dealt with the Sicilian Expedition as an offshoot from the Peloponnesian War, or as a critical episode in the career of Athens; he deals with it as an experience in the career of Sicily. And though we may deplore the ruin of Athens which it involved, nevertheless we cannot help feeling that the result, so far as Syracuse was concerned, was just, nor can we withhold from the Syracusans who successfully resisted the aggression of the Athenians, admiration similar to that which we feel for any other people that fought for independence. To bring this side out clearly is one of the most important of Freeman's achievements.

But we suspect that to scholars his work will commend itself chiefly by its minute discussion of matters which are of peculiar interest to scholars. He has succeeded in locating the position of the various Athenian encampments, of the lines of circumvallation and counter lines, and of the route taken by Nicias on his retreat. He has examined, literally, every square rod of the site of Syracuse; he has drawn inferences from the wheel-marks in this place and from the traces of masonry in that; he has speculated as to the probable changes in the coast-line of the Great Harbor and as to the extent of the swamp of Lysimeleia. For one who has made no personal inspection of these things on the spot, it is unbecoming to presume to decide whether Freeman's conclusions are always correct; we may say, however, that, having seen some of the great battlefields of antiquity and of modern times, and many of the chief ruins of Greece and Italy, we are a little sceptical as to the possibility of establishing, after twenty centuries' obliteration, the site of a vanished palisade. Without for a moment belittling the real triumphs of archæology, we still find ourselves distrusting much of its circumstantial evidence. Perhaps the best reason for thinking that Freeman's plan is, in the main, correct, is the fact that by it we are able to follow Thucydides's account, which has hitherto seemed, in part, to offer conflicting statements as to the topography. Nevertheless, though from the standpoint of archæology this be an important gain, it is not of corresponding importance from the standpoint of history; for history is chiefly concerned with actions and results, and in her view it matters comparatively little whether the double walls of the Athenians came down to the shore a furlong to the north or south of the spot which Freeman assigns.

His propensity for investigations of this kind certainly impairs the interest of his work to the general reader, because it breaks in too often upon the flow of narrative, and, by constantly diverting the attention to details, lessens the effectiveness of those passages which the general reader and the specialist would alike agree in pronouncing the most memorable. It is to be observed, too, that these digressions often beget no facts, but only one or more conjectures; for, as we have remarked, all that we know of the Sicilian Expedition from contemporary and authentic sources comes from Thucydides. Diodorus Siculus wrote three centuries and a half later, and his account of the expedition is muddled, incomplete, and superficial—so much so, indeed, that we can hardly believe that he had Thucydides's work to guide him. Plutarch, in his lives of Alcibiades and Nicias, is the only other authority, and, though Plutarch made good use of the material that reached him, still he lived as long after the siege of Syracuse as we after the wars of the Roses. To piece out Thucydides with such scraps as Diodorus and Plutarch afford, and with such allusions as are found in other classic writers is, therefore, a task of not great extent. The number of facts cannot be added to; additions can come only by inferences and conjectures. At this work Freeman has few equals, as a single illustration will show. Thucydides mentions the towns of Centuripa, Hyccara, and Inessa; in the text the definite article happens to be omitted before the first two. From this omission, which a casual reader might attribute to the inaccuracy of some early copyist, Freeman deduces the following: "Thucydides did not expect his readers to have heard of Centuripa, any more than of Hyccara in vi, 62, 3. Most likely he had never heard of those towns himself till he heard of these particular facts

about them. *He therefore gives them no article.* Inessa, which had played so great a part in Sicilian history, he knew even when writing his earlier books. *To Inessa, therefore, he gave the article.* Much of the life of a great original writer is lost when these delicacies are neglected in modern reproduction" (p. 205, note 2). We have italicized the two sentences in which Freeman, who starts with a vague assumption, states a conclusion with extreme positiveness; but, we ask, by what rule of logic can a positive conclusion be derived from premises based on assumed probability? This is Freeman's habitual method in clearing up difficulties; and while no one can deny that his theory is often very plausible, the point to observe is that he sometimes mistakes plausibility for fact.

To give an example of his manner of expanding the brief statement of Thucydides into unnecessary prolixity, we will quote the following typical passage concerning the proceedings of the Athenians at Rhegium. Thucydides says:

"At length they reached Rhegium, the extreme point of Italy, where the fleet reunited. As they were not received within the walls, they encamped outside the city at the temple of Artemis; there they were provided by the inhabitants with a market, and, drawing up their ships on shore, they took a rest. They held a conference with the Rhegians, and pressed them, being Chalcidians themselves, to aid their Chalcidian kinsmen the Leontines. But the Rhegians replied that they would be neutral, and would only act in accordance with the decision of all the Italian Greeks." (Jowett's *Thucydides*, p. 440.)

Freeman's paraphrase runs thus:

"It was at Rhegium, the only ally of Athens, the far older enemy of Locri, a town which had fought on the Athenian side in earlier warfare, that the Athenian generals had most fully looked for welcome and alliance. The Chalcidians of Rhegium at all events must be ready to avenge the wrongs of their Chalcidian kinsfolk of Leontini, their fellows in the first alliance made between Athens and any Siciliot or Italiot city. At Rhegium the three divisions came together; a mighty show they must have made in the narrow waters. Here they did meet with better treatment than at Tarentum or Locri; but still very far beneath their hopes. They were allowed to draw up their ships on shore, and, as the historian emphatically adds, they rested. To Greek sailors the trireme, after all, was not a home for a long journey, but a means of conveyance and an engine of battle. Owing to the unfriendliness of the other towns, they had had to live almost wholly at their oars ever since they started from Corcyra. The rest at Rhegium must have been indeed welcome; but rest and food only were to be had. The army was quartered, and a market was found for them, outside the city, in the precinct of the Rhegine Artemis. But none were received within the walls, save those who went in the character of envoys, among whom we may fancy Alcibiades, rather than Nicias, taking the leading place. They addressed the Rhegine assembly, and called on them to join in helping their Leontine kinsfolk. The answer was that Rhegium would not act alone for either side, but do whatever was agreed on by the other Italiots." (Pp. 137-8.)

Let the reader compare this passage, in which we have not followed Freeman's whimsical "reformed" spelling of proper names, with the extract from Thucydides, and decide for himself whether the trebling in length is accompanied by any material gain in vividness or precision, or by any addition of genuine facts. Such a comparison will serve, better than much criticism from us could serve, to explain both Freeman's method and why it is that his volumes swell to so huge a bulk. At times his work seems not so much a history as a series of theses such as candidates for the doctor's degree prepare for the delectation of the faculty of a German university.

We have given so much attention to what some persons may think minor details, because it is to minor details that Freeman gives most attention. He has his own view of the significance of the great struggle he is describing, but his passion for the minutiæ of topography and archæology too frequently obscures this view. There are days and weeks concerning which we have not an authentic fact, but Freeman will not pass them over in silence; he must fill the void with conjectures as to what was doing; and the result is, that he detracts somewhat from the impressiveness of the really great crises in which he has been guided by the clear light of Thucydides's narrative. He has done well to give Hermocrates due prominence, because Hermocrates, besides being conspicuous as a leader of the Syracusans, was the first to lay down that programme of "Sicily for the Sicilians" which reappears from age to age as the central political ideal of the Sicilians, down to the extinction of the Bourbon tyranny a generation ago. He also emphasizes, as he should, that remarkable speech of Athenagoras in which the principles of true democracy are stated with startling clearness. His portraits of Nicias, Alcibiades, and Demosthenes have no new touches, but he exceeds previous historians in attributing great qualities to Lamachus, who may have been the consummate hero Freeman would have us believe, but whose claim to that distinction rests on insufficient evidence. In its way, there is nothing better in this volume than the description of the devices by which the elder Dionysius became the tyrant of Syracuse; we wonder that Freeman, who sometimes makes effective use of historical parallels, did not suggest a comparison between Dionysius and Louis Napoleon, between whom, in their rise to despotism, many resemblances exist. Certainly, Freeman errs when he implies that the autocratic position of Dionysius at Syracuse in B.C. 405 has a counterpart in the position of Abraham Lincoln during our Civil War (p. 555). We Americans have reached the time when we see that Lincoln was the central figure on the Northern side during the Rebellion, and when, speaking roughly, we say that he represents the cause of the Union, just as we say, speaking roughly, that Washington embodies the cause of the colonies during the Revolutionary War; but every American knows that Lincoln was not a dictator, that he was under the restraint of Congress just as Congress was hemmed in by public opinion, and that he could not possibly have made peace, or taken any other vital step, without the approval of both Congress and public opinion. And had he aimed at dictatorial power for himself, had his ambition been like that of a Cromwell or a Napoleon, he would have sought in vain for subservient accomplices. Dionysius, on the contrary, found a willing multitude ready to confer upon him autocratic privileges.

To only one other of Freeman's general criticisms have we space to allude. He exaggerates the rashness of the Athenians in sending the first expedition against Syracuse. Judging their decision by its disastrous results, it is easy enough to brand it as foolhardy. Freeman goes farther. He can scarcely conceive how a people in its right senses could be lured into such an expedition. He quotes with approval the words of Joseph Butler: "Why might not whole communities and public bodies be seized with fits of insanity as well as individuals? Nothing but this principle, that they are liable to insanity equally at least with private persons, can account for the major part of the transactions which we read in history" (p. 108). Freeman cites England's reckless plunge into the Crimean War, and the French expedition to Egypt in 1798, as modern examples of national mental aberration. It is of course possible that a person or a nation that adopts a policy which you would not adopt may be insane; certainly, it is flattering to your own sanity to hold this opinion; but, on the whole, it is wiser to endeavor to understand the motives which caused the adoption of that policy than to indulge in self-laudation, for two persons may be thoroughly rational though they cannot be stirred by the same motives. And in the case of the Athenians in B.C. 416 we shall discover reasons which, at the time, might have persuaded any people, the most rational, without rousing against it the suspicion of lunacy. The decision was not taken hastily; for months before the matter came to a popular vote, it had been agitated, and, having been once decided, it was brought up for reconsideration, an unusual proceeding, by the cautious Nicias. Grote has stated all this so clearly, and has given so cogently the various reasons which justified the Athenians in embracing this project, that we need only refer the reader to him.

And now we must apply the last test to Freeman's history—the test of style; for on this, in the end, the permanence of all histories depends. It is not enough that an historian be erudite and painstaking, not enough that his facts be precise, in order that his work shall endure. Later discoveries may reveal new data, and the circle of erudition constantly widens. His work, therefore, must have form, symmetry, vividness, life, and charm; and to produce these he must have the poet's imagination. In these days, we take it for granted that the historian has the scholar's equipment, but we have been taught to look suspiciously on any manifestation of the imagination; yet without its agency nothing enduring can be produced, because it is the organ which sifts the essential from the non-essential, which penetrates deepest, which discerns the farthest-reaching relations and laws, and which synthesizes and creates. Freeman possesses the synthetic faculty to a great degree, as he proves by stating that the chief purpose of his history is to show how Sicily has been the pivot on which the everlasting struggle between the Semitic and Aryan races has turned, and the battlefield of many nations. He has succeeded in these first volumes in keeping distinct the character of the diverse settlements in Sicily—not confounding Sicel with Elymian, nor Sican with Phœnician—and in tracing wherever possible the influence of the parent cities of Hellas upon their colonies. This is quite as necessary in the history of Sicily as in a history of the American colonies; for Segesta and Selinus, to take only one example, had no more in common than had Virginia and Louisiana under the reign of George II. But while Freeman understands what is essential in the great currents of history, he does not succeed in selecting what is essential to his narrative. He is not a good story-teller, because, as we have said, he too often interrupts his story by digressions or overloads it with details. His attitude is that of a disputant; he has himself debated so long over many of the points he treats of that he cannot state his conclusion without showing that he would like nothing better than to fight anybody who differs from him.

A really great historian should bridle the disputatious tendency; he should state his opinions as emphatically as he chooses, but not

fill his pages with answers to possible critics. It is time to defend himself after he has been attacked. Such is the method of Gibbon in his famous chapter on the early Christians. He gives the results, but not all the processes by which he reaches those results; and he knows that in the end no amount of arguing can save him unless his conclusions are correct. So we think that Freeman's chapter on the Sicilian Expedition is inferior as a narrative to the account given both by Curtius and by Grote. He has not the consecutiveness of the former nor the symmetry and sweep of the latter; and they all fall short, of course, of Thucydides in those great passages in which the Greek historian has described the night attack on Epipolæ, or the naval battle in the harbor, or the tragic retreat and overwhelming of the Athenians. Some of the most interesting portions of Freeman's work are those in which he has not to compete with either Thucydides or Grote—portions of his ninth chapter, in which he relates the second Carthaginian invasion of Sicily and the destruction of the great cities. Yet even here we find no specimen of historical narrative worthy to be placed beside Hume's account of the last days of Mary Stuart, or Gibbon's description of the capture of Constantinople, or Macaulay's picture of the siege of Londonderry, or Carlyle's living story of the Feast of Pikes. These specimens, by men very different in methods and genius, all illustrate what great and permanent historical writing should be, and wherein it differs from the writing of historical disquisitions; and when we compare Freeman with these men, we are forced to the conclusion that he is not their peer. His work is an encyclopædia of historical facts, a storehouse in which he has garnered all that is known and most that has been conjectured concerning his subject; but it has not the artistic symmetry and selection, nor the vividness, nor the narrative swing, of a great history. Scholars will prize these volumes, and long be grateful to their author for the patient fidelity he bestowed upon them; we doubt whether they will take rank as literature.

In taking leave of this colossal fragment we cannot refrain from expressing regret that Freeman's instinct for thoroughness led him to alter his original purpose, which was to write the history of Sicily during the period of the Norman invasion and the rule of the Hohenstaufens. For this task no other man of our time was so well-fitted as he. But in order to be thorough, he decided to begin at the beginning, and the consequence is that his three volumes comprise more than 2,000 pages and bring us down only to the year 405 B.C. At that rate, he would have required a dozen more volumes to reach the Guiscards and Hauteville, and two or three volumes beyond those to reach Frederick II. In view of the fact that the history of ancient Sicily is comparatively well known, while that of mediæval Sicily is scarcely known at all by English readers, Freeman would have rendered a far greater service by presenting the latter than he has done by revamping the former.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XV. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. [Rolls Series.] Printed for Her Majesty's Stationery Office by Eyre & Spottiswoode. 1891.

In the last addition to the Year Books, the volume containing the reports of cases in Easter, Trinity, and Michaelmas Terms of 1341 (15 Edw. 3), while the editor remarks in his introduction upon several matters interesting to scholars, he mentions little of special legal importance. It is probable, however, that legal specialists will reap their own harvest even here. To them everything is grist; to know for certain that a given period contributes nothing to their purpose is a boon. The editor courteously acknowledges and puts into practice a suggestion made in these columns, that the number of the cases should appear at the head of each page; it is certainly a help to the reader. Better and more scholarly editing than Mr. Pike's it would be hard to find in any department of learning. Lawyers may be proud that their matters are now so worthily treated.

In case 55 (Michaelmas) there is a discussion over the statute *De Donis*. W. Thorpe presses a certain argument. "Perhaps so," says Scharshulle, J., "for Hillary and I pleaded such a plea before Scrope in the Eyre of Northampton, because we had no other matter; and the plea was pending the whole Eyre, and then was adjourned to this Court and was pending before Herle [C. J., 1327-1337]; and he said that the strongest argument against us which he knew was that Hengham [J. and C. J., 1272-1309], who drew the statute, construed it in another way." This adds to what is found in Fitzherbert. The circumstance that Hengham drew the statute *De Donis* is interesting; it was mentioned by Hengham himself in one of the Year Books of Edward I.

At p. 84 the reporter notes that "where, by an obligation, one was bound in forty marks, the plaintiff was barred by an acquittance which purported that he received ten marks in full satisfaction of forty marks." In a full record preserved by Mr. Pike, at p. 484, one may note the persistence of legal phraseology. A certain Richard recites that so and so "per scriptum suum perdonavit, relaxavit et omnino quietumclamavit ipsi Ricardo omnimodas actiones, querelas, et demandas, quas habuit, vel aliquo modo habere potuit, per viam compoti, debiti, aut alicujus alterius contractus, ab origine mundi usque diem confectionis prædicti scripti." It is no longer the fashion to put such things in Latin, but otherwise this is probably still good form in Wall Street.

At page 446 the reporter says:

"Note that John Leukenore and Elizabeth, his wife, did homage to William Thorpe in this way: Both held their hands joined between the hands of W. Thorpe, and the husband spoke in this form: 'We do you homage and bear faith to you, for the lands which we hold of A., your cognisor, who has granted to you our services in B. and C., and the other vills, &c., against all people, saving the faith which we owe to the King and his heirs and to our other lords.' And both kissed him. And then they did fealty; and both held their hands on the book, and the husband said the words, and both kissed the book."

This is also found in Fitzherbert, to whose cases, as well as those in the Book of Assises, Mr. Pike always has the reference.

"Judgment of the writ," says Thorpe, at p. 372, "for by his count he makes the donor to be his great-great-grandfather [*tresael*], and by the writ he makes him to be cousin, whereas in the writ he ought to be called *abavus* and not *consanguineus*. Kelshulle (Justice): When one passes above the great-grandfather [*besael*], there is no other form but to call the ancestors cousins; for King John, the great-great-grandfather [*tresael*] of the present King, is in Latin called cousin."

Observe the brevity of the French equivalents for our long, linked names of the remote ancestors above referred to. The Norman French of the Year Books is a compact language. One notices that the translation of it, in a page of thirty-six lines, regularly overruns the French page from three to five lines.

The chief part of the editor's learned introduction is devoted to an investigation of the word *Merchet:* "in England the payment of *Merchet* was . . . an unfailing indication of tenure in villenage." The meaning of this term has been much discussed in connection with certain unhandsome claims of lords as regards their female serfs. Mr. Pike regards the question as not yet ripe for an answer; but he is inclined to the opinion that *Merchet* is the equivalent of *for-mariage, foris maritagium*, a fine for the marriage of a person of either sex beyond the borders of his lord's land. "The early history of villenage in England, if written," says Mr. Pike, "would constitute the greater part of the history of the people of England." The history of villenage, as the editor elsewhere remarks, has yet to be written. It is the admirable publications of the Record Office and the Selden Society, and other like associations, that ar preparing the way for such tasks as this.

Upon two cases in the Michaelmas Term Mr. Pike makes the following interesting comments:

"Should any one desire to know what was regarded as fitting sustenance for an officer of the King's wardrobe, or other person of the rank of esquire in whose support the King was interested, the details can be found. The most usual form of pension was that of a corody in a monastery, and the full particulars of a corody claimed are set forth in the record. They include a suitable apartment or chamber (*camera*) for the pensioner and stabling for two horses, six loaves of one kind and three loaves of another kind daily throughout the year, with six flagons of monastery ale and two monastery dishes of porridge. On every flesh-day there were to be two monastery dishes of meat, and on every fish-day two monastery dishes of fish, apparently for the midday meal. On every flesh-day there were to be also two monastery dishes of meat for the evening meal, dinner, or supper (*cœna*), and on every fish-day (unless the pensioner happened to be fasting) two monastery dishes of fish. Every day there were to be allowed six wax candles for the pensioner's apartment. There were also to be allowed a basket of oats daily, and twelve loads of hay yearly, for his two horses. He was to have yearly six loads of straw for his apartment and twelve loads of wood (*buscæ*) for fuel. He was also to have every year one robe of the suit of the Prior's esquires for himself, and one robe of the suit of the Prior's grooms for his groom, as well as twenty shillings for shoes and other necessaries. The Prior, it is true, denied the King's right to exact these demands; but that fact does not in any way affect the statement as to the requirements of an esquire and the illustration which it affords of the mode of life at the period.

"With the sustenance fitting for an esquire we are afforded the means of comparing the sustenance fitting for the poor. An action of *Cessavit* was brought against the Abbot of Creake in respect of certain services, among which was that of supporting five poor persons at a particular place. He had to find for each of them one loaf of the weight of fifty *solidi* every day, with porridge and ale and a dish of meat or fish or other food, according to the day, between two of them, and half a dish to the fifth. Each of them was to have also a cloth tunic suitable to his condition every other year."

The Autobiography of Isaac Williams, B. D., Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, Oxford. Edited by his brother-in-law, the Ven. Sir George Prevost, late Archdeacon of Gloucester. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

Dean Church wrote, in his 'Oxford Movement,' "Isaac Williams, if any man, represented in the movement the moderate and unobtrusive way of religious teaching." Yet no one of the Tractarians was thrust into an

uglier prominence than was he by his Tract 80, "Reserve in Communicating Religious Knowledge." As the controversy went on, this was interpreted as a plea for teaching Roman Catholic doctrines in the English Church, and Williams was punished by the loss of the Poetry Professorship in 1842. His 'Autobiography' is brief, but it is one of the most valuable contributions we have had to the history of the Tractarian Movement. Either his youth was without any promise of the seriousness of his maturity, or he delights to think so after the manner of the saints. The only passion which he names was for writing Latin verses—an injury, he confesses, to his English style. His meeting with the Kebles gave his life a turn to serious things. The influence of Thomas Keble on him seems to have been greater than John's. Under the latter's roof he made the acquaintance of Hurrell Froude, the Hotspur of the new departure. In what he writes of Froude there is the same disparity one always feels between the personal impression that he made and the arrogance and silliness displayed in his 'Remains.' In 1822 Keble was writing the poems of the 'Christian Year,' which was published in 1827. Neither Froude nor Williams cared for them. Froude opposed their publication, saying, "People will take Keble for a Methodist"—a potent sign how low religious feeling must have sunk in Anglican circles.

The most remarkable thing about Williams's book is the absence from it of all discussion or exposition of the Movement as an intellectual or spiritual thing. He has an algebraic term, "Church principles," to which he continually recurs. What those principles were he never offers to explain. As in every account of the Tractarians, we are impatient till Newman comes upon the scene; and, once arrived, he has no brother near his throne. Before Williams knew Newman he was advised to seek him out as an evangelical person and also warned against him as a liberal. Written in 1851 and revised in 1859, this little book effectually disposes in advance of Francis Newman's recent assault upon his brother as for many years a clandestine Romanist. It affords new evidence that Newman's dislike and dread of Rome were very great, while his clinging to the Anglican Church was very strong. All painful things attracted his ascetic disposition, and he might never have gone to Rome had his distaste for her been less. Williams's strangest judgment of him is that he united the "German rationalism" of Whately with the Churchism of Keble. Whately's rationalism was soundly English and not German; Pusey's beginnings had a German leaning that terrified many; Newman seems to have had no acquaintance with the German language or with German thought at first hand. The state of religion in Oxford, or of ecclesiastical observance, before the Tractarians made a difference, was never better indicated than by Williams's statement that he was "often nearly the only one in church listening to the usual hack preacher, who was reading some old sermon, not necessarily in connection with the Saint's day, earning his five guineas, in a manner unedifying and unprofitable to all but himself." One of the preachers was flattered by his attendance, but objected to the trouble of hunting up sermons for the day.

Williams's admiration and affection for Newman were very great, and the affection outlasted the ecclesiastical break between them, each writing to the other tenderly and each visiting the other; Newman's last visit to Williams being a few days before the latter's death in 1865. But the admiration seems to have been always qualified by some distrust. Newman's ascetic objections to the marriage of his friends troubled Williams, as did his suppression of his own domestic affections, and his tendency to daring speculations—a restlessness that nothing could abate. By far the most interesting part of Williams's book is that discussing the relation of the Tractarians to Newman and the Church of Rome. He makes out fourteen writers of the Tracts. It has been often said that it was the reaction from Evangelicalism that made Tractarians. But Newman was the only one who had been reared in Evangelical circles; what is more remarkable is that he was the only Tractarian who went to Rome. This is Williams's most interesting fact. It means that those who met Newman on any sort of equality had a saving distrust of him. None of them were carried away by the fascination which he exerted on them. The converts to Rome who preceded Newman thither and who followed him were younger men like Oakeley, Manning, Ward, and Faber. Ward's opposition to Newman was at first very strong; his conversion to his opinions was very sudden, and his advocacy of them unsatisfied with anything short of perfect logical consistency. What will please Anglicans most in this book is Newman's writing in 1863, that the English Church "upholds far more truth in England than any other form of religion would, and than the Catholic Roman Church could."

Some of the minor aspects of the book have an amusing turn. There are various incidents of the strange custom of preaching borrowed sermons: in America a fatal circumstance, in England taken for granted. Newman was responsible for the name of Williams's Tract 80, on reserve in religious teaching; and the name was the worst part of it. Williams says, "I think perhaps Newman himself made use of it to further his own secret inclinations towards the Church of Rome." Newman loses several of his divine attributes in the course of the narration, showing himself as one not without human weakness, vanity, ambition, touchiness, and pride. How the using of a little prayer-book held close to the eyes came to be a Tractarian sign that was spoken against was in this way: Thomas Keble used a little prayer-book at the daily service in order not to wear out the large parish book too fast. John Keble and Newman fell into the same custom for the same reason. All the young neophytes had to copy Newman in this respect as in others, racing through the service, for example, and writing of "Saint Charles," whom Cromwell beheaded, and "George the Good," presumably the third of that name and not "the first gentleman of Europe." Altogether there is more of disillusion in this little book than in any of its predecessors written with sympathy for the Tractarian Movement.

An Illustrated Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis, with groups of words etymologically related. By John Williams White and Morris H. Morgan. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1892.

It is refreshing to encounter a Greek schoolbook that is not translated or adapted from the German, and we are glad to learn that this 'Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis' "has been made from the 'Anabasis' itself, on the basis of an independent collection and examination of all the places where each word occurs." Another point which the editors emphasize is their "desire," in selecting English equivalents for the Greek, "to avoid that strange dialect which seems to have been devised by the Adversary for the express use of schools, and which has done much to make Greek (and Latin also) a dead language." This strange dialect is, of course due, not to the Adversary, but to the traditional use of obsolete words which have held their own in the schools after they had disappeared from the practical vocabulary of every day; and while no sensible person will object to making the English fresh and lively and to a certain extent modern—while no one will raise a finger to save "behoove"—still, it is possible to go too far. If one man uses "salaam" for "make obeisance," the next man will use "kow-tow," and justify it, too—in fact, justify it more readily than Messrs. White and Morgan can justify their rendering of δεσπότης by "Czar." As to that bugbear, the irregular verb, there is no use in quarrelling with the practice of making the vocabulary a key. But the trouble is to know when the help is to be withheld. If, unassisted by the grace of a dictionary, the beginner does not know that ἔλαβον is to be referred to λαμβάνω, by what inspiration is he to know that λαθεῖν is to be referred to λανθάνω? If ἀνέστην is put in, why is ἀνέκραγον left out? By the way, the lexicographers might have taken a hint from Autenrieth, and have printed in different characters the forms that do and those that do not occur. A Thelan might be allowed to say μόλωσιν. But who ever said βλώσκω except a dictionary-maker or some late snapper-up of curiosities? This God-forsaken Theban for whom the editors apologize says (vii., 3, 33), ἔστ' ἂν μόλωσιν; but ἔστε, to a dainty Attic, is almost as bad as μόλωσιν, and yet our lexicographers, who have something to say about ἀντίος, ἐξαπίνης, and σύν, have nothing to say about ἔστε for ἕως, ἐπεί for ἐπειδή, ὡς for ὥστε and for ὅπως; and the student is allowed to consider ἀμφί as good as περί, and ἀνά as common as κατά. Perhaps, however, it is as well not to prejudice the youthful mind against Xenophon, who is in great disfavor with the purists just now, and we will not quarrel with Messrs. White and Morgan for not imitating Holden, who follows Sauppe's system of noting the various kinds of wild honey that the Attic bee has stored in a hive which should have been consecrated to the nectar of Hymettus. Our lexicographers apologize for paying so much attention to "construction" in the several articles, but sometimes the attention has not been close enough: πρίν is badly stated, and διά with accusative 'through' is actually false.

From the time of the Messieurs de Port Royal and the 'Jardin des Racines Grecques,' teachers have been hoping marvels from the aid of etymology in enabling the students to master Greek, and some of the oldest generation of Greek scholars may dimly remember a certain volume of 'Greek Primitives' to be learned by heart. The results never come up to the expectation, and it would seem that Messrs. White and Morgan are too sanguine as to the practical service to be rendered by their groups of etymologies, among which there must be some individuals that will rouse the angry passions of those who consider an etymology a sacred thing. At all events, in a school-book like this, the semasiology ought to be clear, and the phonetics ought not to require an alembic. "Borrow" ought not to be put down under ἀπόφραξις, nor "hog" under ὅς, even if Skeat approves. And yet, after making all possible deductions, such as any one can make from any possible dictionary, it is but justice to say that the book is well cal-

culated to give life and interest to the study of the 'Anabasis,' and that the long articles on the antiquities, with their many illustrations, will lighten for learner and teacher alike their employment with a classic which shares the doom of Cæsar's 'Commentaries.'

The Robin Hood of Vermont. By Henry Hall. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. Pp. 207.

THIS book cannot lack readers. The time is ripe for another work on Ethan Allen. Former biographies, as by Sparks and Hugh Moore, are three-score years old, and based on less accurate information than is now accessible. Allen's own narrative, published in 1779, always obscured by his imperfect education, more and more needs illustrating and supplementing. It ran through a dozen editions within three decades, and will never grow old while men have regard for the courage of a hero or the fortitude of a martyr. As long ago as 1866, a copy of the *editio princeps* was eagerly bought for $56. Allen has a larger hold on popular interest because of a sort of resemblance to Abraham Lincoln on the humorous or (as some would say) the Jim Crow side. Both, too, used sportive sallies for a serious purpose. The racy remarks of both will live for ages in the mouths and memories of men.

This Life of Allen is enriched to some extent from archives of which former biographers made no use, as, the Journal and expense-account of Capt. Mott and the letter of Wedderburn, which we owe to the London research of B. F. Stevens. Hence, and in other ways, certain side-lights are thrown on the four cardinal features of Allen's career. These were his taking of Ticonderoga; his captivity; his struggle for independence of New York; and his diplomatic dallying with Canada. Recognition of his noble service at each of these crises moved Green Mountaineers to set up one statue over his grave, another in the Vermont State-house, and another in the Rotunda at Washington. The last-named is of really national celebrity because few American children grow up without learning his summons, in the name of Jehovah, to the head of the garrison at "Ty." Mr. Hall's style is terse, usually clear, and he gives a more vivid picture of scenes in Allen's career by grouping around them contemporary events. Familiar facts, under his pen, assume an unexpected freshness, and a reader becomes reluctant to lay down the volume till he reaches the last chapter.

After all, it is greatly to be regretted that Mr. Hall died while in the midst of his labor of love, for his work needed much more elaboration and must be pronounced both superficial and inaccurate. Capt. Mott is shown to have been the Moltke of the expedition against Ticonderoga, but his name appears as *Nott* in four different places, and that in such a context as to suggest another man. This misprint or blunder could never have escaped Mr. Hall's eye. In fact, however, this Nott must mislead many readers almost as much as the omission of *not* in printing the seventh commandment did. In the Journal of Mott there is a misprint of "for" instead of "from," not likely to be suspected, but which renders a whole paragraph totally obscure. "From our people" is supplanted by "*for* our people," p. 64. Mr. Hall has a spirited page on Allen's "alarum" which rallied his men, but not a word as to the boats, "the be-all and the end-all," which, in Allen's words, "were procured with the utmost difficulty." Had he put his last hand to the work, Mr. Hall would have made it manifest, as Goodhue and Chittenden have done, how nearly that difficulty proved insurmountable, and how adroitly it was overcome, though not till the last minutes of the eleventh hour.

But for the capture of Ticonderoga, it is not likely that the British would have been driven out of Boston. This Mr. Hall would have demonstrated by further research. The Colonial Records of Connecticut would have shown small arms and lead, sent from there to Washington, "at his earnest request," to have been among the spoils which Allen had taken. Mr. Hall would have set before his readers the army which blockaded Boston destitute of siege guns till fifty-nine pieces were secured from the same spoils. He would have quoted Washington's words to Knox, who was sent to Ticonderoga for these cannon: "The want is so great that no trouble or expense must be spared to obtain them with the utmost despatch." He would have added that, in a week after they were in position, Boston became untenable and that spoils valued at £300,000 were taken by an outlay of £520 15s 8¾d. In many other ways, had Mr. Hall survived, we should have been taught to appreciate Allen's exploits much better than is now in our power. In various details he would have caught Bancroft and even John Fiske napping. But, in point of fact, the deficiencies in his own work cannot be numbered. Among minor ones we note a stumble on the threshold. Allen's birth-place is nowhere mentioned. This omission is the more noteworthy because it is a point on which authorities differ. Hinman and Allibone say Allen was born in Roxbury; Dr. Dwight says Salisbury; Allen's Biographical Dictionary says Woodbury; and all four are wrong. Kilbourne has found the record of Allen's birth as at Litchfield, on the town-records there. Errors as to Allen's age were corrected by Mr. Hall.

Washington, who met Allen but once, remarked in him "an original something which commands admiration." We all share that feeling, which deepens at every page we read of his own writings, and we honor Mr. Hall's endeavor to heighten and diffuse that feeling.

The Apodidæ: A Morphological Study. By Henry Meyners Bernard. [Nature Series.] Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 316, illustrated.

THROUGHOUT this volume, determination to establish particular opinions is so prominent that readers can hardly avoid questioning every statement. Evidence of what may be prejudice and partiality is met with everywhere, and we lay the work aside with the feeling that it must be done again before we shall know what estimate to place on the author's personal equation, how to value his interpretations of facts, or whether his conclusions are worthy of adoption. At the outset it is stated that the purpose of the book is to prove the Apodidæ a transition form, a connecting link, between the other Crustacea and the Annelida. The statement was hardly necessary, for the purpose is sufficiently manifest. The book contains a very interesting presentation of the author's views; it would be more satisfactory if it were more convincing. It is decided that Apus is a modified annelid, and, therefore, a primitive crustacean; that Limulus and Apus have developed from the same "bent crustacean-annelid"; that the Trilobitæ had the same origin, and are nothing but specialized carnivorous annelids; that Limulus, Eurypterus, and Pterygotus are specialized forms of the early trilobites; and that the Ostracoda are derived from the trilobites, while the Cirripedia and Copepoda were from a larval, and the Phyllopoda and Malacostraca from an adult, form of Apodidæ. A deal of manipulation is required to bring the "bent annelids," the Trilobitæ, the Eurypteridæ, the Xiphosuridæ and the Apodidæ and other recent Crustacea into such close relationships, but Mr. Bernard has accomplished it, to his own satisfaction at least.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alarcón, P. A. de. The Child of the Ball. Cassell. 50 cents.
Arnold, Matthew. A French Eton. Macmillan. $1.75.
Austen, Jane. Lady Susan. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Bazán, Emilia P. The Swan of Vilamorta. Cassell. 50c.
Beljame, A. Enoch Arden. Poème traduit en prose française. Paris: Hachette.
Beljame, A. Enoch Arden. Texte anglais, avec notes grammaticales et littéraires. Paris: Hachette.
Bernard, J. H. Kant's Kritik of Judgment. Macmillan. $3.50.
Bigelow, Poultney. Paddles and Politics down the Danube. C. L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Bluntschli, J. K. The Theory of the State. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Brewster, H. P., and Humphrey, G. H. England and its Rulers. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Buxton, Mrs. Sydney. Side Lights upon Bible History. Macmillan. $1.50.
Clarke, Clara S. The Poet's Audience, and Delilah. Cassell. $1.
Darenberg, G. Le Choléra: ses Causes, Moyens de s'en Préserver. Paris: Reuff & Cie.
Davis, Mrs. Rebecca Harding. Silhouettes of American Life. Scribners. $1.
Essays by Sainte-Beuve. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Findlay, Rev. G. G. The Epistle to the Ephesians. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1 50.
Garland, Hamlin. A Spoil of Office. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Giffen, Robert. The Case against Bimetallism. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Heine, H. Italian Travel Sketches. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Hocking, Joseph. Zillah: A Romance. Ward, Lock, Bowden & Co.
Jagemann, Prof. H. C. G. von. Elements of German Syntax. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
James, G. F. Handbook of University Extension. No. I. Philadelphia: University Extension Society.
Johnson, Amy. Sunshine. [Nature's Story Books.] Macmillan. $1.75.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. Wedded to Sport. National Book Co.
Leaf, W. A Companion to the Iliad for English Readers. Macmillan. $1.60.
Leland, C. G. Leather Work. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Beatrix Rohan. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Macquoid, Katherine S. Berris. National Book Co.
Marryat, Florence. The Nobler Sex. Hovendon Co. $1.
Mayflower Tales. John A. Taylor & Co. 30 cents.
McCay, Miss S. C. A Modern Quixote: A Story of Southern Life. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. 50 cents.
Merrill, E. A. Electric Lighting: Specifications for the Use of Engineers and Architects. W. J. Johnston Co. $1.50.
Michel, Emile. Les Van de Velde. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Miller, Lucian. Greek and Roman Versification. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 75 cents.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Story of Philip Methuen. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Oliphant, Mrs. Diana: the History of a Great Mistake. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Payn, James. A Modern Dick Whittington. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Reinach, Salomon. Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. A Mad Tour. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Rolleston, T. W. Selections from Plato. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Salter, W. M. First Steps in Philosophy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Sanborn, E. W. People at Pisgah. Appletons.
Schoenhof, J. The Economy of High Wages. Putnams. $1.50.
Shields, T. E. Index Omnium. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.
Strecker, Karl. Der Sang der Mönchgut. Stralsund: Bremer's Verlags- Buchhandlung.
Swank, J. M. History of the Manufacture of Iron in all Ages, etc. New ed. Philadelphia: American Iron and Steel Association. $7.50.
Tenger, Mariam. The Hungarian Girl. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
The American Yacht List for 1892. Thomas Manning. $10.

The *Monist*. Vol. 2. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co.
The Professor, and Other Poems. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
The Story-Teller. No. 1. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Theuriet, André. A Young Man of the Period. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Thomson, J. A. The Study of Animal Life. Scribners. $1.50.
Underhill, John. "The Athenian Oracle": a Selection. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Warden, Florence. Ralph Ryder of Brent. National Book Co. $1.25.
War under Water. Cassell. 50 cents.
Whitney, H. M. The Tourist's Guide through the Hawaiian Islands. Honolulu: Hawaiian *Gazette* Co.
Williams, T. C. Principles of the Law of Real Property. 17th ed. London: Sweet & Maxwell; Boston: Boston Book Co. $5.
Wilson, J. G. Memorial History of the City of New York. Vol. II. New York History Co.

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EDUCATIONAL ANNOUNCEMENTS

Include—The long-expected Physics by Prof. Geo. F. Barker *of the University of Pennsylvania (about Oct. 1), which will present Physics as distinctively the science of energy, and will have the benefit of all the numerous recent advances in physical science, and a large and almost entirely new set of illustrations. It will consist of about 800 8vo pages and be included in the American Science Series—Advanced Course.* "Representative English Literature," *Selections with Historical Connections by* Henry S. Pancoast *of Philadelphia, the University Extension lecturer. (Large 12mo, about 500 pp., about Nov. 1.) A second volume of the late* Bernhard Ten Brink's Early English Literature *(12mo, about 300 pp., about Oct. 1), Short Histories of German and French Literature, entitled* German Literature in its Chief Epochs, *by* Prof. Kuno Franke *of Harvard (in English), and* Histoire de la Littérature Français, *by* Prof. Alcée Fortier *of the Tulane University of Louisiana (in French).* Materials for German Prose Composition, *by* Prof. Von Jagemann *of Harvard (about Oct. 1).* A Minimum French Grammar, *designed as a help to quick reading and containing many selections, by* Prof. E. S. Joynes *of the South Carolina College (12mo, under 200 pp., about Dec. 1).* Contes de Daudet, *edited by* Prof. A. G. Cameron *of Yale (about 250 12mo pp.), and other French and German texts with competent editors.* A History of Modern Philosophy *from Nicholas of Cusa to the present time, by* Prof. Richard Falkenberg *of Erlangen, translated under the author's supervision by* Prof. A. C. Armstrong *of Wesleyan, Ct. (8vo, about 550 pp., about Feb. 1, '95). In Dr. Sneath's Series of Modern Philosophers, 12mo,* Hume, *by* Prof. Aikens *of Trinity (S. C.)—and* Hegel, *by* Prof. Royce *of Harvard.* Greek Lessons, *by* Prof. Thos. D. Goodell *of Yale (16mo, about 370 pp., about Sept. 15), being an enlargement of his Greek in English that brings the pupil to reading Xenophon, and a companion Latin book,* The Latin in English, *by* Prof. Harry Pratt Judson *of the University of Chicago (16mo).*

READY THIS WEEK:

Crozier's Dictionary of Botanical Terms. By A. A. Crozier, M.S., Secretary of the American Pomological Society. 8vo, 202 pages.

This work attempts to define in alphabetical order all terms, both technical and popular, that are applied to plants, and to indicate those obsolete or obsolescent, and of several synonyms the one mos approved.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1892.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has on many occasions shown himself a shrewd and facile writer on public subjects, but his skill and judgment surely forsook him in the preparation of the diffuse and labored document which he gave out on Tuesday as his letter of acceptance. Aware of the immense unpopularity of the McKinley Bill in this country, he tries to cut his personal fortunes loose from it in two ways. First, he dwells upon "the reciprocity policy," the small results of which up to date he explains by saying that "we are only beginning to realize its benefits." He rightly, if tardily, gives Mr. Blaine the main credit for forcing the obnoxious principle upon his party. The President himself is the most distinguished convert of his late Secretary of State. What he really thought of reciprocity, and continued to think of it until after the disasters of 1890, was frankly revealed in his letter to the Senate of June 19, 1890, accompanying Mr. Blaine's proposals, and throwing most unmistakable cold water upon them. On that occasion he said: "It will certainly be time enough for us to consider whether we must cheapen the cost of production by cheapening labor in order to gain access to the South American markets, when we have fairly tried the effect of established and reliable steam communication and of convenient methods of money exchanges." There spoke the real Harrison and real protectionist, just as the same interesting combination speaks further on in his letter of acceptance, where he rails in the good old fashion at "the markets of the world," stands aghast at that "competition that would destroy the comfort and independence of our people," and chuckles over the closing of "foreign tin-plate mills and plush factories." Whatever may be said of the Republican party at large, it is clear that, with the President, reciprocity is, indeed, a "sham"—a thing in which he has no personal belief, and which he would make use of to deceive the people and obscure the political issue.

Most amazing of all is his attempt to run away bodily from the McKinley Bill. He says: "The Convention did not adopt a schedule, but a principle that is to control all tariff schedules." If Gov. McKinley makes any more speeches for the President after that flat repudiation of his masterpiece, he will be as magnanimous and long-suffering as the people must be who listen to his vain repetitions. Mr. Harrison seems to think it is still 1888. Then he could talk of not being committed to any "schedules," and of his party being ready to "revise rates"; but now that is four years behind the times. The schedules are made, the rates are revised, and the result is a tariff law of which the vast majority of the people have emphatically shown their condemnation. Not committed to a schedule? Still "differences of opinion among protectionists as to the rate upon particular articles"? What, then, becomes of that famous appeal to business men to continue the Republicans in power so as to secure a "permanent" tariff and "stable" conditions? According to the President there is just as much likelihood of a new tariff upheaval within two years, if his party is successful in the election, as there was four years ago.

On the Force Bill issue three courses were open to President Harrison. He could reaffirm his former avowed opinions, and call, as he did in his letter four years ago and in his messages to Congress, for a thorough-going Federal election law; he could admit that he had changed his mind in the face of the emphatic disapproval of the country; or he could trim. Needless to say, he has trimmed. And the usual fate of trimmers awaits him: his disingenuous allusions to a "non-partisan commission," and to the "new political movements" in the South, will not, on the one hand, reassure the South, nor, on the other, satisfy those Republicans in the North who wanted a flat-footed declaration in favor of Federal control of elections. On this subject he accurately represents the uncertain and shifting position and inconsistent pretensions of his party. Since the platforms were adopted, the Force Bill issue has come to have a prominence which is destructive of Republican hopes of electoral votes in the South; the President's letter serves only to accentuate that issue and the damage it is certain to do his party. The letter as a whole gives the impression of a "groggy" prize-fighter, who strikes wildly but weakly in all directions without once hitting his adversary. It will probably remain for all time unequalled in its dreary length, and we certainly hope that no candidate for the Presidency will ever again put forth an appeal to the American people containing so many passages which smack of the unscrupulous political haranguer.

The circular-letter sent out by the Treasury Department, with the sanction of the President, establishing a quarantine period of twenty days for all ships bringing immigrants to this country, has been approved by the public, but it cannot be affirmed that it has any legal effect. Even by its own terms it does not supersede any State laws or regulations, but makes an exception of them in all cases. In other words, if the Quarantine authorities of this port find that an immigrant vessel is free from disease or contagion, and accordingly issue a permit to land her passengers in less than twenty days, the Treasury circular has nothing to say to the contrary. Any controversy between Federal and State authority on this subject is thus avoided, and wisely so. It would add much to the embarrassment of the situation if there were room for such a dispute. Dr. Jenkins has said that he shall administer the State laws on the subject of quarantine independently, and if he finds a ship free from disease and from danger he shall pass her. In taking this position he is not only within his right, but within the terms of the circular itself.

There is a pretty general belief prevailing throughout the country that immigration ought to be checked independently of the cholera, and this sentiment will sustain the twenty-day regulation in the same way that it would sustain a law restricting immigration. But it must not be supposed that immigration can be stopped without producing effects on business in general. Ships cannot run in the same number as before unless they can carry immigrants, and as ocean freights cannot be moved without ships, there must be a curtailment of both imports and exports. A curtailment of imports will cause a loss of revenue to the Government and will naturally lead to some rise in the prices of the imported articles. It will be accompanied by some fall in the prices of exported articles. Indeed, such a fall has already been observed in the produce markets, due to the disarrangement which the cholera had produced abroad. That effect will now be intensified. Railways will lose both freights and passenger fares to some extent. People will economize, and this will cause some shrinkage of business, so that by and by there may be as strong pressure on the Government to cancel the anti-immigration circular as there was to issue it; provided, of course, the disease appears to be diminishing abroad. In other words, if the circular is an evil, a train of causes will soon be in motion to remove it. Meanwhile, we all know that the cholera is now controllable to a degree quite unknown in any former visitation. We have, therefore, every reason to expect that its ravages will diminish instead of increase in Europe, and that with the help of approaching cold weather it will soon disappear altogether. Whether it will gain lodgment on our shores no one can say with certainty. We think that the chances are against such an eventuality.

The action of the bolting Republicans in the Nevada State Convention on Thursday

appears to make it certain that the three electoral votes of the State will be lost to Harrison and Reid in November. The bolters comprised two-thirds of the delegates. They refused to nominate Harrison electors, and adopted resolutions condemning the Republicans of the Eastern States and Harrison's Administration for failing to enact laws in favor of free silver coinage. They also endorsed the Weaver Presidential electors, two of whom are Republicans and one a Democrat, and all of whom are pledged to vote against both Cleveland and Harrison. The free-silver party have a thorough organization throughout the State, and it is now believed to be certain that they will carry the State for their electors and all other candidates by a large majority. This fact will be a cause for serious anxiety to the National Republican managers, for the three votes of Nevada combined with the four or five which the Republicans will lose in Michigan make a dangerous break in their column of "sure" States.

Now that the protectionist press has fairly committed itself to the position that the McKinley Law has raised wages, it will have a lively fight on its hands. The Peck business is turning out badly, and the views of the workmen—who presumptively know best—as to their wages are being presented on every hand. An interesting summary of these views is made public by Mr. John De Witt Warner in the last number of *Tariff Reform*. Early in July of this year the *World* published a list of some 500 cases of reduction of wages, which were not veiled under the convenient obscurity guaranteed by the Bureau of Labor method of obtaining statistics, but were stated with details of name and place. The publication of this list threw the protectionists into dire confusion, and they attempted to break its force by asserting that in a few cases reductions in wages were offset by improvements in processes and machinery. An active distribution of circulars addressed to protected manufacturers took place, begging for reports of increases of wages with which to meet the *World's* statistics. The most earnest appeals and desperate exertions at last resulted in a beggarly array of twenty-eight instances where wages in protected industries had been increased, and the *American Economist* was forced to put these forth as the best answer it could make to the overwhelming figures against it.

This was just the opportunity for which tariff-reformers had been waiting. The *Economist* was compelled by the exigencies of the situation to give names and places and rates of increase of wages, and the tariff-reformers at once began an investigation of every one of the twenty-eight cases published by the *Economist*. The results of these investigations are now summed up by Mr. Warner. His summary is dismal reading for protectionists. In many of the establishments alleging increased wages, when the allegation was shown to the employees it was received with the exclamation, "What a lie!" In a number of cases wages had been maintained by strikes, in a few they had been advanced on account of strikes, in several the wages of some of the hands had been increased and the wages of others reduced, and in some cases there had been a reduction all around, instead of an increase. The employees even of the benevolent and blatant Dolge of Dolgeville, who publishes a Dolgeville paper devoted to the propagation of the theory that he does business purely for love of the laboring man, seem to find great difficulty in discovering any increase in their wages, although some of them complain of reductions. Altogether Mr. Warner exposes the *Economist's* statements most completely, and those who desire to learn the workmen's opinion of the protectionist claims will do well to look at this issue of *Tariff Reform*.

The Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Foster, seems to have displayed his usual facility in muddling any question into which "labor" enters, in the matter of the new Post-office building at Newark. In accordance with the general desire, the contract called for the use of Belleville sandstone, but a few weeks ago Mr. Foster authorized a change to Indiana bluestone. Among other citizens of Newark who wanted the Belleville stone used was ex-Congressman Halsey. Congressman English, in a recent speech, alleged that he called upon Secretary Foster in reference to the stone to be used, and that the latter said to him: "How do you expect us to do this for you when Mr. Halsey voted against us at Minneapolis?" However that may have been, the reasons now advanced by the Secretary for his action are worth attention. As explained in the *Tribune*, "the contractors could not procure Belleville stone to be worked by union men." Therefore the change to Indiana stone was made "to give Newark a post-office as early as possible, and to benefit union workingmen who were on strike." Now, if this is the principle upon which the Administration is to be run, it is evident that its applications have only begun. If the *Tribune* must be unionized and no Government contracts in Newark allowed to be defiled by the touch of a non-union laborer, why not apply the same rules to the contracts of the Carnegie Company? "Union workingmen on strike" are in great numbers at Homestead, and in the mills are non-union men making armor-plate for the Government. We advise the Amalgamated Association to notify the President and Mr. Reid that this must stop, and that if they really are the friends of "regular" workingmen, they will see to it that not a pound of steel plate is accepted from the Carnegies until "genuine laboring men" are allowed to make it.

A public document entitled "Gold and Silver," just issued by the United States Geological Survey, presents again the statistics of production of those two metals for the year 1890, and also for previous years. Two facts are especially noticeable in this report—the remarkably uniform production of gold, and the rapid increase in the production of silver. The gold production for ten years past has varied but little from $32,000,000 per annum, while that of silver has increased in the same time from $46,000,000 to $70,000,000 per annum. In 1869, the year of the completion of the first railway to the Pacific, the production of silver in the United States was only $12,000,000. In the following year the Kansas Pacific Railway was completed to Colorado, and the year's production of silver rose to $16,000,000. From that time to the present, railway building in the mountain region and silver production have gone hand in hand until the present enormous output has been reached. That the two facts are connected together as cause and effect is very plain. Railway building has enormously cheapened the cost of extracting all ores. New inventions and discoveries in metallurgy have worked in the same way. Now, if anybody is looking for a cause of the great decline in silver since 1870, he can find it in the enormous increase in the amount coming upon the world's market. If we take a wider range of observation, we find the same causes and the same results at work in Australia and in other countries. In 1870 the world's annual production of silver was only $64,000,000. In 1890 it was $171,000,000, as nearly as can be ascertained. In the former year silver was 34 per cent. of the production of the precious metals. It is now between 59 and 60 per cent., nor is there any sign as yet of a change in this ratio of production. Evidently the decline in the price of silver will continue until it passes out of the category of the precious metals altogether, if it is not already out.

That free competition of labor is the proper correlative of trades-unions has witness in English legislation. On the same day (June 29, 1871) that the legal status of trades-unions was recognized by act of Parliament, a law was passed for the more certain punishment of attempts to limit the freedom of labor. In France, however, another course was taken. No sooner had trades-unions received legal sanction by the Act of March 21, 1884, than the effort was made to repeal the three articles of the Penal Code which threw safeguards around the right to work. Two of these provided punishment for violence or fraud in restraint of the freedom of labor, and the third for what we know as boycotting. All three were

promptly repealed by the Chamber, but the Senate has so far refused to concur except in the repeal of the last. Even out of that, mischief has grown, as is seen by a curious decision just given by the Supreme Court. A certain workman in the Department of Isère had abandoned his union and was unable to secure work because it at once proceeded to boycott any employer who hired him. He sued the union for damages, but was beaten in the two lower courts on the express ground that the code no longer recognized boycotting as a crime. But the Supreme Court has made the ingenious distinction that boycotting is legal "when its object is defence of a union's interests," but not so "when it aims to force an employer to dismiss a workman because he has left the organization and refuses to return to it." On the strength of this distinction, the decision of the lower courts was reversed. This is apparently straining a point, but, if so, it shows the well-grounded fear of the court that society could not endure an unchecked tyranny, whether it were that of Government or of labor-unions.

The future of the French Republic seems now to be at least as well assured as that of any Continental Power. The elections of July 31 were perhaps of historical importance, for they were the first into which no question of the form of government entered. They were exclusively Republican. Party lines were no longer drawn, with Republicans on one side and Monarchists on the other. There were perhaps not ten candidates who did not, explicitly or implicitly, express their assent to the present order of things. The representatives of the various pretenders to the throne of France have not been slow to see the drift of events, and to act accordingly. Even before the elections, the party of the Whites of Spain had been thrown into disorder by the Pope's declarations in favor of the Republic, and by the withdrawal of some such members as M. Maurice d'Andigné. Don Carlos, their chief, has now himself yielded to the desires of the Holy Father, and gives, as he says, "a new proof of his devotion to the Holy See" by cancelling the powers of the Prince de Valori, who has been for a number of years his representative in France.

The Orleanists appear to be moved by the same considerations that have swayed the Whites, and to be following not very far behind them. On August 11 the Marquis de Breteuil, whose relations to the Comte de Paris have been those of close friendship, and who has known all his plans and hopes, sent a letter of resignation to his constituents in Argelès. This letter is noteworthy for its dignity and frankness. The Holy Father, says M. de Breteuil, has withdrawn publicly his confidence from the Royalist party, and adjured them to renounce their political opinions for the good of France. For himself, then, he bows respectfully before the counsels of the Sovereign Pontiff, but they have changed the state of things so much that the new situation demands new men. The chiefs of the Monarchist Right must be free from all suspicion of having profited by their sudden conversion. To inspire confidence in universal suffrage they must retire from public life, and leave to others the task of maintaining conservative interests in the Republic. Even the Imperialists accept the Republic in words. They say they would accept it fully and without reserve if it could only be changed a little to suit them, and made Bonapartist and plebiscitary. They kept the Napoleonic feast this year, the little remnant of them, very much as mourners might gather to a banquet of funeral baked meats. A certain M. Engerand, Deputy from Caen, addressed them in a long speech in which he pointed out the sure path to triumphant success. All that the party has to do is to add to its late Boulangism socialism, and to socialism the anti-Semitic ardors of M. Édouard Drumont. Drumont and Mores should be, in fact, its leaders. It is evident that the Republic will take no detriment from such midsummer madness as this.

Further reports in regard to the practical working of the German laws of compulsory insurance for workingmen show how far from acceptable they are to employers and laborers alike. Especially burdensome and irritating are they felt to be in the agricultural regions. Farm laborers have never had to pay any direct taxes, and now are tempted to consider the weekly insurance stamps as an exaction. Many of them tear up their official insurance cards, and more obstinately refuse to pay their weekly quota. Where wages are low, the employing farmer is often obliged to pay for his workmen, and where wages are high, he often makes them pay his own proportion. The natural result is an increased friction between employers and employed, instead of that happy-family condition of affairs which was expected to follow the paternal laws in question. Moreover, the business is an expensive one in its principle and wasteful in its administration. A large farmer of the Rhine valley sends his experience in the matter of insurance against sickness to an agricultural paper. In his employ are twenty-two families, besides extra help at planting and harvest. His total expenses for sickness, covering men, women, and children, used to be $75 a year; now he is obliged to pay into the fund for insurance against sickness no less than $350 yearly. He adds that his employees are greatly discontented, and gives it as his opinion that "the burdens created by the recent social laws are destined to bring about serious embarrassments in the relations of agriculturists with their workmen, and to have a pernicious political effect."

For more than two months public attention and the time of Congress in Brazil were taken up with a novel bill for "aiding industry." On May 12 a committee, appointed for the purpose by the Minister of Finance, made a report on the best methods of relieving the general depression in business. It advocated an extension of the protective principle in tariff legislation, but concluded that that way of putting money into the pockets of a favored few was too slow, and so recommended a grant of money outright to embarrassed manufacturers and speculators from the national Treasury. In accordance with the report, a bill was introduced in Congress for the issue of $50,000,000 in 5 per cent. bonds "in aid of trade and industry," the said bonds to be doled out to those who could show that their business was in a bad way, and so entitled to national aid. The bill was greeted with immense popular enthusiasm, mass-meetings being held in great numbers to endorse it, and great demonstrations of workingmen being got up at which the threat was freely made that if the bill did not pass, there would be an insurrection. The papers were full of the affair, and several of them approved the plan. Many members of Congress were outspoken in its favor, and even the Minister of Finance gave it a qualified endorsement. For a time it seemed certain that the scheme would become law.

But serious opposition arose. The solid business houses and manufacturing concerns concluded that they had no interest in being taxed for the benefit of shaky enterprises, and a petition against the bill was laid before Congress, signed by 500 of the most reputable firms in Rio de Janeiro. About the same time the foreign banking-houses which were carrying Brazilian securities began to telegraph the Government that if it did not quit fooling with such insane laws, Brazilian credit would be knocked to pieces in Europe. This action naturally aroused a vast deal of patriotic indignation among the promoters of the scheme, who at once began to rage furiously, in a way not unfamiliar in our own land, against "foreign intruders," and to ask if the Government was prepared to take its orders from the "Jews of London." However, the authorities took fright, and when the bill came to a vote on July 22, it was beaten by a large majority. It seems a pity that such a naïve and direct application of the great principles of protection was not allowed to be made for the instruction of mankind. We believe it to be the fact, however, that in this country the public is now pretty generally aware that protective taxes which really protect are as undisguised a gift to the favored manufactures as would be a direct bounty voted them.

CHOLERA AND QUARANTINE.

A TIMELY and reassuring article on the history of the several epidemics of cholera in this country, and of the efficiency of the New York Quarantine, appears in the last number of the NewYork *Medical Journal*, from the pen of Dr. S. T. Armstrong. The drift of it is that, with the better understanding of the nature of the disease and of the methods by which it is propagated, together with the great improvement in public sanitation and in the equipment of Quarantine, "the existing conditions are favorable for the possibility of adding 1892 to the credit side of the administrative account of the Quarantine at the port of New York"—that is, for excluding cholera from the city.

Dr. Armstrong takes up the record for ten cholera years, and shows that in four of them the epidemic "entered the country in part by the New York Quarantine, though in each of these years there was an almost contemporary introduction of the disease via Canada or New Orleans." In 1866 the local Quarantine was solely at fault, but in five years, viz, 1855, 1856, 1867, 1873, and 1887, it was entirely successful in preventing the cholera from getting on land, although in each of them the disease was on shipboard in the harbor. In other words, in five out of the last six appearances of cholera in New York Bay, the measures adopted by the Health Officer of the port have been adequate to protect the city perfectly. This is the most encouraging feature of the situation, inasmuch as it shows an increasing efficiency. In fact, as Dr. Armstrong points out, the facilities and equipment of the Quarantine establishment are now superior to any we have ever had before, and he very forcibly argues that if the cholera could be kept out in 1887, by "the meagre, unscientific, and inadequate appliances" of that year, the arrest of the disease this year, under the greatly improved conditions, will depend simply "upon the vigilance and capability of the Quarantine officials."

One very important point made in Dr. Armstrong's article is, that in several of the epidemics the outbreak occurred as the result of infection brought into the country in the preceding fall and winter. Thus, in 1832, when there were 3,512 deaths from cholera in New York city, the first known case was that of a man who entered the country by way of Canada in 1831. Similarly, in 1866, the disease broke out in the city on May 1, while the first infected ship from abroad was still under detention at Quarantine. It seems, however, that a steamship had reached the harbor on November 2, 1865, on which sixty cases of cholera had occurred on the passage, forty-three more cases appearing during her stay at Quarantine. Three other infected vessels came later in the winter of the same year, and it must have been from one of them that the germs found lodgment in the city. As regards the epidemic of 1849, it is stated that there were deaths from cholera in New York during the previous winter, the victims being immigrants who "*broke quarantine.*" This was a literal fact, as it is on record that more than one hundred immigrants confined in the Staten Island Quarantine station "scaled the walls and fled to the city"! No wonder that the worst epidemic in the city's history followed, no less than 5,071 deaths having occurred as the result of such fearful mismanagement.

It is only necessary to recall the blundering and ignorance of those days, to see how inconclusive is the argument of those who reason that things will go in 1892 as they did in 1849 and 1866. These despondent and alarmed persons forget, in the first place, how things went in 1873 and 1887, and they overlook, besides, the great improvements made at Quarantine since even the last-mentioned year, and above all the spread of better sanitary methods among the people generally. It was pointed out at the time of the great and prolonged heat last July, that the mortality from sunstroke was far less than it had been at similar times fifteen and twenty years ago. This was rightly attributed to a better popular knowledge of hygienic principles, and there is no doubt that the same thing would have its effect in staying the ravages of cholera should it actually get a foothold in the city. If it is said that there are larger masses of ignorant population than ever before, that is no reason why the rest of the city should be panic-stricken. Americans and Europeans live in Asiatic cities where cholera is endemic, and yet they have no fear that they will not be able to protect themselves. Furthermore, it is an undoubted fact that the poorer quarters of this city are subject to a better sanitary and medical inspection than ever before, and that the chances would be as good for isolating and preventing the spread of the disease here as they have been shown to be, so far, in London and Liverpool and Glasgow.

We believe that warning against needless panic is less called for now than a week ago. Those hysterical individuals, some editors among them, who then seemed to think it a marvel that they were still alive, have recovered their equanimity. Now that it is well settled that the infection of cholera is received only in a definite method, against which it is possible to adopt almost certainly protective measures, the obvious thing to do is not incontinently to fall sick of the disease before it arrives, and to make sure that you do not fall sick of it after it arrives.

THE PRACTICAL TARIFF ISSUE.

IT has for many years been the habit of protectionists to warn the American people that the Democratic party was determined to destroy their industries and reduce them to starvation. While there may have been persons of sufficient simplicity to accept this representation as true, it has generally been treated with silent contempt. The Democratic platform this year, however, is so emphatic in its denunciation of the protective theory as to give a certain faint plausibility to the affected alarm as to impending free trade. We should not have supposed this feeling to exist to any extent had it not been for a recent utterance by a journal of moderate Republican and protectionist tendencies, the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*. This journal declares that it

"does not believe the McKinley Bill and tariff for revenue only were the sole alternatives of those who sought in 1889-'90 a rectification of the tariff errors of 1883. The time was ripe for such a revision of duties in a downward direction as would have made the tariff laws then framed a finality for some years to come on the basis of moderate protection. That was a sound and reasonable doctrine which the McKinley Bill departed from, that our tariffs should be so framed as to yield the greatest possible measure of protection to American labor without fostering monopolies, and if the recent National Democratic Convention had not shown its usual capacity for blundering by adopting an extreme revenue-tariff platform, we believe the people of the nation would have put themselves on record as condemning the McKinley Bill by a large majority."

Now we do not agree with the *Reporter* as to what is "sound and reasonable doctrine." Many years of investigation have only strengthened our conviction that the à priori argument in favor of free trade is supported by overwhelming evidence from experience. We are unable to discover the slightest ground for supposing that "American labor" as a class has ever derived any benefit from protective duties, while we find most abundant reasons for concluding that these duties have been detrimental to the whole community. They have injured workingmen not only by reducing their remuneration, but also by stimulating the importation of the less desirable sort of foreigners, such as constitute the mass of the population of towns like Homestead. We entirely coincide with the *Reporter*, that general high wages are extremely desirable. Our difference appears when it is proposed to attain this result by taxation intended to drive laborers and capitalists out of those employments which they have found most profitable. This result the *Reporter* supposes to be attainable by such taxation. We do not, and the difference between us is radical.

But when we pass from the consideration of "theory" to that of the "condition that confronts us," our differences become immaterial. What is said in a political platform is important only as it is likely to be embodied in legislation; and conceding that the Democratic platform calls for free trade, free trade is an obvious impossibility. The Republicans have taken care to provide against danger from that source by incurring future liabilities that cannot be evaded. A large revenue must be provided, and we see no way in which it can be provided except by retaining

many duties that are "incidentally protective," and by maintaining an average rate that will more than balance the supposed greater labor cost of our manufactures. The Mills Bill was a conservative measure, even from the point of view of the *Reporter*, but the prospect is not very hopeful for even so much of reform as that bill contained. Unless our expenditures can somehow be cut down, increased rather than decreased taxation is to be expected in the future. We cannot have the crops of 1891 every year, but we can depend upon the magnitude of the appropriation bills.

The "condition" that confronts us, therefore, is the prospect of moderate tariff reform if Mr. Cleveland is elected, and the certainty of the continuance of the McKinley policy if Mr. Harrison is elected. There is not a voice in favor of tariff reform uplifted among Republicans, or if such a voice is raised it is drowned in the overwhelming outcry of the protected interests. In their present situation the Republicans cannot and dare not reform the tariff. They know that if they do not all hang together they will hang separately. Whenever they have tried to reform the tariff they have made it more prohibitory, and they must yield to this tendency or lose their following.

Since the *Reporter* desires moderate tariff reform, and will get it from the Democrats and will not get it from the Republicans, it seems to us that it should exert itself for the election of Mr. Cleveland. Its apprehension on account of the "free-trade platform" of the Democrats will melt away before the light of reason and experience. The more intelligent class of manufacturers in both the cotton and the woollen industries, as the *Reporter* knows, have no anxiety on account of Democratic success, but anticipate from it increased prosperity. The more influential class of Democratic statesmen, such as Representative Wilson, are in touch with the most intelligent business sentiment of the country, and Mr. Wilson, in the current number of the *North American Review*, shows what the reform policy of the Democrats is. Has the *Reporter* any serious fault to find with the six bills passed this year by the Democratic House of Representatives? Would not the country be much better off if the moderate reforms of those bills had been accepted by the Republicans? Which party adopted a really conservative policy?

But it is not enough to consider this election alone. Few Republicans who expect victory this fall are so sanguine as to hope for it four years from now. But four years from now it is scarcely to be hoped that the Democrats will have a candidate possessing the admirable qualities of Mr. Cleveland, a man in close relation with the intelligent patriotism of the country, competent through his associations as well as his own abilities to form wise judgments of legislative measures, and strong enough to guide his party. Such opportunities for prudent and conservative reform come rarely, and it is folly to neglect them. The McKinley Act produced such a popular uprising as nearly swamped the conservative Democracy. Four years more of the rule of the protected ring may bring about such a revolt as will be wholly unmanageable. For those who sincerely desire moderate reform, now is the time and Mr. Cleveland is the man. We trust that the *Reporter* and those who think with it will be found among "the people of the nation" who are going to "put themselves on record as condemning the McKinley Bill by a large majority."

THE EAU CLAIRE LUMBER CASE.

On September 1 the railroads in Wisconsin restored the lumber rates to the basis prevailing before the decision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission. The demand of the lumbermen of Eau Claire for lower charges, the order of the Commission, and the practical ignoring of that order by the railroads concerned, present an unusual instance of the difficulty of regulating transportation rates (and therefore values) through legislation.

The facts of the case are interesting as showing how dependent for growth Western towns are upon railways. Three small rivers penetrate the pine region of Wisconsin—the St. Croix, the Chippewa, and the Eau Claire—and down these streams the logs are floated to the sawmills. The town of Eau Claire is well situated at the junction of the Chippewa and Eau Claire Rivers. Logs floated down these rivers can be manufactured into lumber at Eau Claire or carried further, into the Mississippi, and thence to the town of Winona, Minn., or La Crosse, Wis., where, as well as at Eau Claire, there are extensive saw-mills. The greater part of this lumber cut is sold in the cities on the Missouri River—Omaha and Kansas City—and for a decade or more Eau Claire and the Mississippi towns have been bitter rivals. Lumber from Eau Claire is carried by the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway only, which also touches Winona and La Crosse. The Chicago and Northwestern serves the two points just named, but does not reach Eau Claire. In 1884, after rate wars, the whole question of relative charges from west of Lake Michigan to the Missouri River was submitted to George M. Bogue as arbitrator. Mr. Bogue, among other things, found that Eau Claire should pay 5½ cents per hundred pounds more than Winona and La Crosse, that being in his opinion the measure of its advantage in position. This higher rate from Eau Claire ("differential," as railroad men call it) has been in effect from 1884 to the present year. Under this differential Eau Claire has relatively declined as a lumbering town, while Winona and La Crosse have increased their output. Sawing lumber being the principal industry, the general trade and importance of the places have been affected in the same proportion. Eau Claire complained to the Inter-State Commission, which body, after hearing much evidence, found the differential against Eau Claire to be too high, and ordered the St. Paul to reduce it from 5½ cents to 2½ cents per hundred weight. That railway company complied with the order by quoting lumber from Eau Claire to Kansas City or Omaha at 3 cents less, whereupon the Northwestern reduced the Winona and La Crosse rate 3 cents also, leaving the difference exactly as before. Moreover, it was the intention of the Northwestern to keep the rate from the Mississippi towns at 5½ cents under Eau Claire, no matter how low the St. Paul Company might make the latter charge. If now the St. Paul had persisted in its position of reducing the Eau Claire rate as commanded by the Inter-State Commission, a rate war would have ensued which would have involved the whole Northwest and have entailed heavy losses upon all concerned. Not wishing for such a result, the St. Paul agreed to restore rates to the basis of the Bogue award.

The Inter-State Commission acknowledged that in this case it could not reach the Chicago and Northwestern Railway, for this road's rates from Winona were no discrimination against Eau Claire, because it did not run there. Could the St. Paul be blamed for accepting at Winona the rates forced upon it there by its competitor? Would Eau Claire have gained any advantage if the St. Paul Company had kept the Winona rate unchanged, provided the Northwestern quoted the Winona tariff three cents lower? What, then, can be done about the matter? It is very difficult to say. The testimony before the Commission seemed to show that the differential had in the course of years become unjust—that is, that 5½ cents was more than equal to Eau Claire's advantage, even on the theory of the award that the towns ought to be put upon a commercial equality. What reason, therefore, can the Northwestern Company advance for not conceding this act of justice to the injured town?

This question brings us directly to one of the principles of transportation which is often ignored, namely, that a proper charge for carriage is often as difficult to determine theoretically as a proper price for meat. The avowed object of the Inter-State Commissioners' order was to give to Eau Claire a larger share of the common cut of lumber. The result of such an increase would of course be to reduce the output of Winona and La Crosse. Hence the one railway which practically carries all the Eau Claire lumber would get a larger traffic, and the Northwestern, upon which Winona and La Crosse rely, would lose that much traffic in common with the declining trade of those towns. What matters it to the Northwestern that Eau Claire is suffering from an unjust differential? Its business is to preserve its

own tonnage, not to grant concessions which will benefit rival towns and carriers. In such a case that company may ask whether there is such a thing as "abstract justice" in transportation. Every spot in Wisconsin near the forests, and which might if favored by a railroad become a lumber centre, might make the same claim as Eau Claire. In one sense every sawmill not near a railroad is discriminated against, because it costs just so much more for the lumber to reach the market. If there were in Wisconsin a town site capable of becoming a manufacturing place, and if such town-site owner should complain that the advantages of his situation were not recognized, we should be tempted to reply to him, "Build your own railroad." A new railroad, or at least one whose interests are identified with that town alone, seems at present to be the only solution of the Eau Claire problem. It is useless to complain that the Northwestern, which has no thought for Eau Claire, is unfriendly, or that abstract justice is now being violated by a system of tariffs which has been in use for eight years. It requires force, not theory, to rearrange business so long established, where the main opponent is beyond legal reach.

GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS.

JOURNALIST, orator, man of letters, the leading Independent in our politics, the foremost among those who have endeavored to redeem our civil service from the baseness of a partisan system of rewards and punishments—such was George William Curtis, who died after much suffering on August 31. He was born in Providence, R. I., February 24, 1824, and was thus, as it were, sealed from his birth to that "soul liberty" of Roger Williams's proclamation which was a watchword often on his lips. With Lowell's birthday on the 22d of the same month, and Longfellow's on the 27th, there was here a pleasant omen of the friendly nearness of these men that would enrich his life; Lowell's the nearer, that the omen might not lack anything of exactness. On his father's side he came of a family that had long been honorably known in Worcester, Mass., and his father, George Curtis, was a man of pronounced business faculty. His mother was a daughter of James Burrill, jr., at one time United States Senator from Rhode Island, and at another Chief Justice of the State; and hence we may imagine that direction of his blood which tended to a life of public interests rather than one of mercantile pursuits. The latter would have pleased his father more, and to this end, in 1839, after the boy had been at a boarding-school near Boston for four years and with a private tutor for another, he was placed in a German importing-house in New York. In these years he had lost his mother, and his father had married again and come to New York to engage in banking. The boy's school-life at Jamaica Plain is supposed to be freely rendered in the opening chapters of 'Trumps,' Mr. Curtis's only novel (1858-'9), and not his most successful book.

By this time the transcendental movement was in full swing, and young Curtis's interest in it soon became much deeper than his interest in the routine of business, and he broke away in 1840 and went to Brook Farm, where he remained about four years. This episode afforded him acquaintance with Hawthorne, Margaret Fuller, Ripley, Emerson, Alcott, Parker, and many other permanent residents or transient visitors at the Farm, and laid up for him a store of happy recollections, on which he drew delightfully in his later years in conversation and in the lucubrations of his "Easy Chair"; with much graver matter, telling of his exploits in washing dishes and how he danced the clothes-pins from his pockets in the evening's joyous round. From Brook Farm he passed to Concord, Mass., and there for two years increased his intimacy with Emerson, Thoreau, and Hawthorne; the last-named, at ambrosial feasts in Emerson's parlor, "riding his horse of the night" in silence for the most part—in whatever company, alone. In his 'Homes of American Authors,' Mr. Curtis's memory of these years helped him to many a vivid stroke; among others, to that tragic incident of a poor girl who drowned herself, which furnished Hawthorne with the basis of his drowning of Zenobia in 'The Blithedale Romance.'

From August, 1846, until August, 1850, Mr. Curtis was in Europe, and he never went again and never felt any pressing inclination to do so. It may well have been, especially in the later years, because he knew that it would be "another Yarrow," and another everything, if he went again. His itinerary, even for those times, was of uncommon interest, for it took him first to Italy, then to Switzerland, Germany, Holland, Egypt, Palestine, and to England on the eve of his return; and it coincided with a period of great events—that of the revolutions of 1848. In Italy, wit" others, he risked a dangerous walk from Como to Milan, and he was in Berlin at the time of the outbreak, and saw that most impressive sight, the coffins of a hundred or more of the dead revolutionists borne in long procession on the shoulders of their comrades to their burial. He made many acquaintances that were an honor to his youth and a growing satisfaction to his maturer years; the Brownings possibly the most precious of them all. The manner of his meeting them is related in one of the "Easy Chair" papers included in the select volume published in 1891.

But Mr. Curtis's travels were of more importance because of the literary fruit they bore than because of any enjoyment that he reaped from them at the immediate time. This fruit—the 'Nile Notes' and 'The Howadji in Syria'—was of an Eastern daintiness which melted in the mouth. They were not the stuff to brace the intellectual or moral man, but they were no vain repetitions of a theme which, even then, was not unworn; they were fantasias upon it which involved every concrete detail in rosy mists of fancy and conceit. The manner was not unrelated to other writing of the time, but it had the stamp of individual talent upon every page. Here, as in 'Prue and I,' sentiment was pushed to the verge of sentimentalism, but not across the line. The 'Nile Notes' was published in 1851, and 'The Howadji in Syria' in 1852; and the latter gave to Mr. Curtis a sobriquet that clung to him for many years and into a period which had little in common with the dreamy languor of the Howadji. While Mr. Curtis was abroad he furnished occasional letters to the New York *Times* and *Tribune*, of which his friends Henry J. Raymond and Charles A. Dana were then managing editors. His first literary work after his return was in the way of musical criticism for the *Tribune*, and simultaneously, or soon after, he wrote a series of letters for the same journal about the Catskills, Niagara, Saratoga, and other places of summer resort. These were gathered into a volume in 1852, and they are as pleasant now as when they first appeared—pleasanter than the places which they celebrate are now, except Niagara, which, like Browning's forest, has "relapsed to its ancient mood." And here it may fitly be mentioned that Mr. Curtis's predilection for "doing good by stealth and getting found out," though for the second part he did not care, had a fine illustration in his silent partnership in the enterprise which saved Niagara from private greed and made it the possession of the State. No one except his friend Prof. Norton was more helpful in that business.

In 1852 Mr. Curtis did his first work for *Harper's Monthly*, the earliest of his comments on the social world, foregleams of 'The Potiphar Papers' and the long bright day of genial, social satire that was afterwards to shine in his department of the same magazine. But in the meantime he was to have some pleasant and some sad experience as the editor of *Putnam's New Monthly Magazine*. Parke Godwin and Charles F. Briggs, yclept "Harry Franco" in Lowell's 'Fable for Critics,' were associated with him in the editorial care. In it, as in no previous venture, was the promise and the potency of our present *Harper's*, *Century*, *Scribner's*, and *Atlantic*. But it had a character of its own, not reproduced in any one of these, though in the *Atlantic* more than in the others. Mr. Curtis contributed to it his 'Potiphar Papers' and his 'Prue and I,' the former his most satirical performance, showing unmistakably the influence of Thackeray, for whom he had the warmest admiration, increased by personal acquaintance; and though he could not be other than a "kindly wag," his spear disclosed abundant snobbishness and other folly in the social world. 'Prue and I' was very different, the most charming bit of sentiment he ever wrote. The different papers which made up 'The Homes of American Authors' were also written for *Putnam's*. His business connection with the enterprise was less fortunate. When the magazine changed hands, Mr. Curtis connected himself with the new firm, which soon failed. Well might Lowell write to William Page, a common friend, "Tincture of laurel is not good for daily bread." By availing himself of legal technicalities Mr. Curtis might have escaped his share of the responsibility, but he was incapable of doing this. Holding himself morally responsible, he went to work as heroically as Sir Walter in his last years, but fortunately with youth and health upon his side, to pay a greater sum than he had ever hoped to gather for his own.

He was now settled in his "Easy Chair," and was also writing a series of papers for *Harper's Weekly* called "The Lounger," but his income from these sources did not begin to meet the creditors' enormous claim. He enlarged his lecture field and gave some years a hundred lectures in the season for such edification. His rivals were Beecher and Chapin and Parker and Emerson and Phillips and many of less note, but no one was welcomed more cordially than he or did less to debase the currency which he exchanged for "Fame," as Chapin called it—"Fifty And My Expenses," then a maximum rate. Parker was more massive, Emerson more profound and mystical, Phillips more incisive, Chapin more vehement, Beecher more humorous and impassioned, but Curtis had a charm of voice and manner of his own, suiting the dignity of noble thoughts expressed in musical cadences. Many of his lectures were upon literary sub-

jects, but always with a lively feeling for the personality behind the book. His "Sir Philip Sidney" was related to his repertory much as Phillips's "Lost Arts" to his, which was much more contracted; and ever, as men heard it, they confused the speaker with the man of whom he spoke. As the anti-slavery combat deepened, his lectures took its impress more and more, until frequently it became his solitary theme, and he must go from Dr. Furness's house, in Philadelphia, to the lecture-hall with eight revolvers in the pockets of as many friends to insure his safety. But, whatever the subject or the inspiration of the lecturer or the editorial contributor, the bulk of all his earnings for a dozen years and more went to the payment of his debt. Yet could political passion rage so fierce in 1884 that men who knew all this could not account for Mr. Curtis's political course but by imputing to him mercenary motives!

Students of Lowell's life have found in his great love for Maria White and his happy marriage with that lady the secret of his deepening purpose and his devotion to the anti-slavery cause. Late in 1856 Mr. Curtis was married to Anna Shaw, and John C. Frémont was at the wedding. Mr. Curtis had just done his best for this candidate in the Presidential campaign, but the Quakers had not "come out," and Frémont could lend to Mr. Curtis's nuptials only the ornament of a defeated general, still picturesque, as he had always been, and little more. But the coincidence of Mr. Curtis's political beginnings with his marriage is too obvious not to suggest a wonder whether here also there was not a *propter hoc*. Certain it is that his wife, a daughter of Francis George and Sarah B. Shaw, and sister of Col. Robert G. Shaw, who was "buried with his niggers" at Fort Wagner, and of Josephine, who married Col. Charles R. Lowell of like glorious fame, was of a stock and parentage so earnest and so philanthropic, and was so true to all their inspirations, that Mr. Curtis may well have found some heightening of his aims in his new life and love and in the new associations that now touched his spirit. Before this there was little in his character that prophesied the man he came to be. It seemed much more likely that his star would lead him to a career exclusively literary, if not dilettantish, than that he would be found among the prophets of political justice and the organizers of political reform. But there was little doubt which way it was leading him after 1856. From that time onward the anti-slavery conflict became more engrossing to his mind and heart, and entered more largely into his public utterance. Not content with this, he entered vigorously into the local politics of Staten Island, where he had made his home, and soon found himself Chairman of the Republican County Committee, an office which he held for many years, nor was it any sinecure as held by him. In 1860 he was a delegate to the Republican Convention which nominated Abraham Lincoln; though Seward was his candidate, he afterwards appreciated to the full the happy fortune which secured the honor for the less experienced but wiser man. A speech which Mr. Curtis made at this Convention was the most impressive and effective of all the shorter speeches of his life. A motion by Joshua R. Giddings to add a clause from the Declaration of Independence had been lost by a large majority in their desire to conciliate the border States. Mr. Giddings was about to leave the Convention when he was brought back by John H. Bryant, a brother of William Cullen Bryant, to hear a motion by Mr. Curtis which differed inappreciably from his own, and a speech in its support which carried the Convention with its impassioned eloquence and secured for the motion a unanimous vote. After Lincoln's election, Mr. Curtis's energy on the platform and the stump was directed to so husbanding the victories of the war that they should be the victories of emancipation. But before the war was over (1863) he had become the political editor of *Harper's Weekly*, and thus secured "a door of utterance" much wider than the platform of the lecturer had afforded him. In 1869 he was urgently invited to assume the editorship of the N. Y. *Times*, Henry J. Raymond having died. Many have felt that here was the most splendid opportunity he ever had, yet he put it from him as a forbidden thing.

Mr. Curtis has been often spoken of as one who abandoned a literary career for that of politics and reform. But he did nothing of the kind. Ruskin assures us that all rivers have their deep and shallow side. It may not be so—most likely it is not; but Mr. Curtis had his deeper side in his political activity, and a side less deep where his mirth and humor played in and out among the social topics of the time, among men and books, as the sunlight plays among the leaves and pebbles of a river's shallower side. The literary impulse of his youth was continued in the essays of his "Easy Chair," but the essays were not editorials and the editorials were never the superfluous products of his "Easy Chair." It was remarkable that two lines of production could be kept so perfectly distinct for thirty years. But in all this time, and especially in the concluding score, Mr. Curtis had a third instrument of use and power, the oration, in which the strength of his editorial writing and the beauty of his essays both found expression, while there was scope for other faculties which these did not employ, something architechtonic, which evolved their structure into a noble symmetry,

> "swelling up loudly
> To a climax and then dying proudly."

In these last years Mr. Curtis wrote but few lectures in the manner of those earlier ones which delighted both the town and the country mouse, but he wrote and delivered many orations, and their structure was quite different from that of his lectures. They were generally read, but they had not the effect of reading, and when they were memorized, as at the laying of the corner-stone of the Washington Arch, there was no creak of the *memoriter* machine. He was the ornament of many great occasions; municipalities and States were always seeking him for their great commemorations and to honor their illustrious dead. His eulogies upon Sumner and Phillips and Bryant and Lowell were all significant and admirable, each subtly fitted to its special theme, and that upon Lowell (1892) fitly concluding the distinguished line. Each one of these and every other was made the vehicle of some impressive lesson needed by the hour. And the same is true of all that multitude of speeches which he delivered at civic banquets and on similar occasions.

Already a generation has arisen that knows not the Hon. Thomas A. Jenckes of Rhode Island, who in 1865 framed the first practical measure of civil-service reform, and, by his intelligent and earnest advocacy, compelled an unwilling legislature to give it at least the semblance of a trial; but Mr. Curtis was always ready to disclaim the honor, which was frequently accorded him, of being a pioneer in that "wilderness of shameful precedent." He always cherished for Mr. Jenckes a sense of loyalty as to a living chief. He became at once his second in command, and in 1871 was appointed by President Grant to the Chairmanship of the first Civil-Service Commission. He never doubted Grant's sincerity or earnestness in the matter, but the President felt himself too much alone to keep up the weary fight. It was given up in 1873, and Mr. Curtis, whose hopes had been absurdly high, was correspondingly depressed and full of mortification and chagrin. But he soon rallied, and, under his guidance, and inspired by his resolve, the National Civil-Service Reform League was formed in 1881, with local organizations wherever a nucleus of political idealists could be found. The first of these, the New York Civil-Service Reform Association, had been organized in 1877 and reorganized in 1880, from which time Mr. Curtis was its President, drawing to him many strong allies. In *Harper's Weekly* he applauded every onward step, and stigmatized in fitting terms each old abuse or cowardly retreat. He was in correspondence with every Senator and Representative or State official or municipal officer in whom there was any hope of better things. At each annual meeting of the National League, as its President, he made a careful address in which he counted up the losses and the gains and measured men according to their works. And his reward was great. At the time of the last annual meeting already more than 36,000 national offices had been redeemed from the spoils system and made subject to competitive examination and promotion upon merit—to say nothing of the reform effected in New York and in Massachusetts; while bills have been proposed in the present Congress which, if only evidence of that "hypocrisy" which is "the homage that vice pays to virtue," are signs that may not be despised.

To support Gen. Grant in 1872 was a great strain on Mr. Curtis's loyalty to his party; when it came to supporting Mr. Blaine in 1884, the strain was more than he could bear. At the Convention which nominated Blaine he did his best to avert the evil; and when that proved impossible, faithful to his constituents, he remained until the end, to save, if possible, a little from the general wreck. A conference of Independents was soon after held, and an organization formed allying the recalcitrant Republicans with the interests of Mr. Cleveland in the pending election. Of this conference and organization Mr. Curtis was the life and soul. His editorials gave no uncertain sound. They had always been the exact expression of his own opinions, absolute and complete, equally free from partisan duplicity and personal control. Once, in the Cornell or Folger time, when a phrase in one of them had been softened by his publishers, he being out of reach, the next week the paper was without an editor, and that was sufficient for the understanding that there should be no further tampering. Now, he and they were wholly of one mind. But the campaign was fraught for Mr. Curtis with the utmost bitterness. Day after day his mail came to him foul with anonymous abuse and the reproaches of his dearest friends. And no man had loved the Republican party more than he. Had he remained in it, we are assured that his ideals would have compelled the allegiance of the party soon or late, and that honors only less tempting than the highest would have been at once within his grasp. But for him to remain was simply impossible. Great offices had for him no great temptation.

President Hayes had wished to make him Minister to England, and, further on, to Germany, but he preferred his editorial chairs, though each had no doubt those "thorns in the cushion" of which Thackeray wrote so feelingly. Once he had accepted a nomination for Congress, but it was only "to stand up and be shot at," without expectation of success. But these things were neither here nor there. He could not support Mr. Blaine with a good conscience, and therefore he could not support him at all. In 1888 he again supported Mr. Cleveland. Not that he was by any means satisfied with his administration of the civil service, but he thought Mr. Harrison would do much worse, and the event has justified his premonition. Latterly, with renewed confidence in Mr. Cleveland, his confidence in the Democratic party as represented by its managers and Congressional representatives and Tammany Hall had steadily declined. But the nomination of Mr. Cleveland in spite of these assured him of the sounder mind in the great body of the party.

In 1867 Mr. Curtis was Chairman of the Committee on Education in the State Constitutional Convention, and in the course of the debates he urged the enfranchisement of women in a speech of great ability, but without any practical result. The enlargement of women's educational opportunities was a matter very near his heart, and he brought all the resources of his humorous satire to bear on the opposing party. As a member of the Board of Regents from 1864 he exerted a happy influence on the educational methods of the State, and as Chancellor of the University of the State of New York he mediated graciously between the confidence of the larger universities and the jealousy of the smaller colleges and academies. As President of the Metropolitan Museum his influence was steadily for the improvement of its collections and their more unrestricted popular use on all days of the week. He was the President of the National Conference of Unitarian Churches and a Vice-President of the American Unitarian Association. That he was also an officer of the Free Religious Association shows that his Unitarianism was of the radical type. In the little Unitarian Church at Staten Island he often read the sermons of Martineau and Dewey and others to "audience fit though few."

In 1889 Mr. Curtis edited an edition of John Lothrop Motley's letters, and it was characteristic of his genial disposition that he omitted almost every reference to the most painful episodes of Motley's life. It was only natural that there were those who thought that this was not well done.

No man was ever less inclined to insist upon the maxim, "The laborer is worthy of his hire." He did a very great amount of unrewarded, often thankless, work, especially as he answered every decent letter he received, however stupid it might be. He was prodigal of help to those who sought his judgment in great literary tasks. His eloquence was often at the service of some honorable cause or valued friend. In every personal relation he was a good man to know, a better man to love, as relative or friend. He was full of pleasant talk and golden memories of persons and events, nowhere more interesting and engaging than in some friendly circle; everywhere, and especially in his own home, the least formidable of men, putting the most awkward at their ease. His most remarkable endowment was not any intellectual distinction, any imaginative force or originality of mind, but a character which united in itself the rarest gentleness and the sternest sense of duty and resolve to have it done. He was our Puritan cavalier. His gracious manners masked an iron will. He added nothing to our literature which did not make for kindness, charity, and peace; nothing to our politics which does not shame its ordinary levels and beckon it to higher things.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY.

LONDON, August 15, 1892.

IN this age of congresses, literary, theological, and scientific, it is not strange that the workers in the new science of psychology should want a congress; and it may now be said, after two meetings of the above-mentioned body, that they have one. I say in the new science, because there can be no doubt that the psychology of the present is new, however much we may deplore the attitude of those who go the length of saying that there never was an old science, meaning that psychology has never until now been scientific at all. Whatever judgment our descendants may pass upon this question, we may thankfully claim that our psychology is more scientific today, and that it is sufficiently so to have a congress.

Congresses may be said to have two main functions, one scientific and the other social. There are those who say that they should have only one function, the scientific; and there are those who claim that, as a matter of fact, they have only one function, the social. I think, speaking from the point of view of private experience only, that both these functions are subserved in what we may call the stimulative function of congresses. It seems to be true that the savants do not save their best things to present at congresses, and it would be very difficult to get them to. But, on the other hand, leading savants do attend, and, by their attendance no less than by what they read, they stimulate and help the brethren. There can be no doubt that the members go away with new ideas, new sympathies, and fewer prejudices; but the reason of it is to be found largely in the personal intercourse which occupies the hours between the sessions.

The present Congress, while successful in most respects, yet lacked one thing which, in most gatherings of the kind, has been an important stimulative feature. The programme was allowed to grow to such length that altogether too little time was given to discussion and criticism. About the only consideration, as I conceive, which would be of weight as an inducement to the presentation of an important paper at such a meeting would be that the author might thereby have criticisms upon it which he could use before putting his work into final form for publication. This is especially important to unknown men, who could not be sure that their papers would be widely read and discussed after their appearance in the journals. A well-pointed criticism from an expert might, indeed, save the printers and the public altogether in some cases! And the contents of the most valuable papers would be made a thousand-fold more available if followed up by a half-hour's close, hand-and-glove discussion.

The London Congress was wofully wanting in the exercise of the right arm of criticism. It was the more to be regretted from the fact that the Congress is not yet universally recognized; and the authorities who deny it their influence, do so on the ground that it reflects too much the uncritical and suprascientific tendencies of the left borderland. Prof. Wundt, in an article on "Hypnotism and Suggestion" in the last issue of the *Philosophische Studien*, brought the charge in a manner which did not lack clearness; and that this is not an isolated example is seen in the scanty delegation, in numbers, sent to the meeting by the Germans. Prof. Wundt's charge was, in brief, that hypnotism, the romance of psychology, was the dominant topic of the Paris Congress in 1889, and that telepathy, the climax of romance, would be the keynote this year at London. As respects the London meeting, the programme and its successful accomplishment are an answer to the charge, as a matter of fact. But I think that the answer would have been more adequate if the Congress had discussed more fully all the papers presented. For example, the report of the Census of Hallucinations passed with no remarks, save a question or two; and the interesting papers of Mrs. Sidgwick on "Experiments in Thought-Transference" and Mr. Myers on the "Induction of Hallucinations" had even less examination. I mention these because they are the subjects which outsiders look at suspiciously. A good discussion, involving some criticism and calling out the lines of defence, would have done more to justify the right of the Congress to the term experimental than any number of verbal explanations. The lack of discussion was due, however, as I think all would agree, to want of time, and to the inadequate arrangements for getting the printed *précis* of the papers into the hands of the members in advance—not to lack of critical interest. At such meetings the *précis* should be distributed at least a day in advance—a plan which was proposed, also, at the recent meeting of the British Association at Edinburgh.

The Congress met on August 1 in the rooms of University College on Gower Street. There was an unexpected appropriateness in this, in that one of the Secretaries, Mr. James Sully, had just been appointed professor in that institution. The presiding officer, Prof. Henry Sidgwick of Cambridge, was assisted by the following vice-presidents, whose names I write in order that the truly international character of the membership may be indicated—to wit, Bain, Bernheim, Ebbinghaus, Ferrier, Hitzig, Liégeois, Preyer, Delboeuf, Richet, Schäfer, Baldwin. Besides the countries thus represented, delegates were present also from Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Italy, Holland, and Rumania. Among the names which gave *éclat* to the membership may be mentioned Helmholtz, A. J. Balfour, Herbert Spencer, Shadworth Hodgson, and Francis Galton.

The proceedings fell into three divisions, on the usual sectional plan. Besides the meetings in the Amphitheatre, at which papers of general interest were read, sections for "Hypnotism and Cognate Subjects" and "Neurology and Psychophysics" carried on their work in adjacent rooms. This was resorted to as a matter of necessity to accommodate the large number of readers. But its wisdom was questionable. Of course, at the meetings of such bodies as the British Association and its American sister, whose function it is to foster scientific work generally, sections devoted to the different sciences may do their work side by side; but it is not clear that work in a single science can be profitably prosecuted in this way. For example, how would it do to have three sections devoted to Historical, Practical, and Theoretical Geology, in a supposed geological congress? These subjects are not ex-

clusive, and a well-informed geologist would be interested in them all. So, to divide the psychological field in this way is, in my view, to deprive many members of many papers and many papers of many critics. The only cure for this, as well as for the other defect already mentioned, is to enlarge the sifting activity of the Committee on Communications. If all the papers were seen beforehand, and each given full time or not accepted at all, the meetings would be more stimulating, the published proceedings more valuable, and the honor of reading would be more highly prized by the younger men.

The general meetings were opened by Prof. Sidgwick's address. It was devoted to a discussion of the aim and proper work of the Congress. He defended the term "experimental" as a substitute for "physiological" in the official designation of the body—a change which was voted at the Paris meeting. He also took pains to inform us that Prof. Wundt's prognostications were not to be realized.

Prof. Richet read a paper on "The Future of Psychology." In his view there are four great topics to which scientific psychology should address itself: first, the physiology of the brain, and the relation of thought to cerebral circulation and to thermal and electric cerebral changes; second, the experimental study of sensation, ordinarily called psycho-physics; third, comparative psychology, including the study of animals, the insane, the criminal, of society and institutions and of education in theory and practice; and fourth, the "transcendental psychology," by which he means "clairvoyance, thought-transference, presentiments, etc."—in short, the line of inquiry begun by the Societies for Psychical Research. This may be taken as the platform of the science as one of the most eminent French psychologists understands it. It is interesting to note that it includes the subjects which, as I said above, some consider "romance." This programme suffers by defect in the mind of those of us who believe also in analytic introspective work; but no doubt the objective phases need more emphasis, especially in England.

Prof. Pierre Janet, of whom I spoke in a former letter, presented a noteworthy paper on "Anterograde Amnesia"—the name given by Charcot to the condition of a patient who has lost the power of acquiring new memories. Janet cites cases occurring in his hospital practice—one of them a very remarkable case in the Salpêtrière—which show that, although new events are not remembered consciously by such patients, and seem to leave no trace whatever in the mental life, yet in the hypnotic sleep, and even in ordinary dreaming, such experiences may be revived. "During the hypnotic sleep she recited without difficulty new pieces which she had seemed incapable of learning in the waking state." Janet has also succeeded in showing, by means of the automatic writing experiment, that such memories are present in subconsciousness at the very time that the patient is trying hard, but quite in vain, to recall anything of them from the past. This fact, that memories may be practically dormant, was the main point of interest also in Mr. Myers's paper on "Crystal-Vision," and in Janet's remarks following upon it. By gazing into a flat, bright surface some individuals can develop visual hallucinations which often take on the form of these subconscious memories. Especially may dreams and hypnotic suggestions be recovered again to consciousness in this way.

By way of interpretation of this—and of the corresponding fact, also brought out by Janet, that in cases of loss of will (*aboulia*), the patient may learn new actions unconsciously which he is incapable of learning by conscious effort—our psychologist holds that it is due to a disintegration of the complex of experiences which make up the conscious personality. When consciousness is no longer able by its synthesis to introduce new events into the circle which constitutes the empirical self, this is anterograde amnesia. But these new events are still retained and reproduced in subconsciousness, as the experiments mentioned go to show. It is, therefore, a particular case of psychic disintegration (*désaggrégation*). Janet's and Myers's papers excited some discussion, but not as much as they deserved.

Among the special topics treated, some of the more interesting may be mentioned. Prof. Henschen of Upsala gave a clear résumé of his views on "The Visual Path and the Visual Centre," published in detail in his *Beiträge zur Pathologie des Gehirns*. He localizes the visual centre in the *calcarine cortex*. His induction, although quite opposed to the view generally held, is important as being based on clinical cases. He does not need the caution that most workers in this field need, *i.e.*, that the analogy between animal and human brains must not be pushed too far. Prof. Schäfer communicated the results of experiments showing that the destruction of the prefrontal lobes in monkeys does not impair the attention, the inference being that these lobes are not the seat of the intellectual operations. This position is in opposition to the late results of Bianchi and of earlier experimenters. Schäfer may again be pressing too far the analogy just spoken of. He seems, however, to have made a step forward in method, *i.e.*, in merely severing the prefrontal region vertically from the brain mass, thus avoiding the shock and hemorrhage usually resulting from its complete removal.

Dr. Waller's paper on "The Attributes of the Cerebral Cortex" precipitated a discussion on the function of the so-called motor centres, participated in by Ferrier, Schäfer, Horsley, Henschen, and Hitzig. Details are impossible here, but I may say that psychologists need not be in haste to make up their minds as long as the brain physiologists are arguing for three distinct views, viz., the old idea of Ferrier, most current still, that the sensor and motor centres are distinct, the Rolandic region being only motor; the new view of Bastian, that this region is not motor at all, but purely kinæsthetic, the motor apparatus being lower down and out of consciousness altogether; and the view of Waller and Beaunis, that the anatomical distinction between sensor and motor is false, since every cellular process in the brain is both. This last, in my view, does justice best to the psychological requirements of the case, as I have argued elsewhere.

Space allows merely the mention of a half-dozen interesting papers on special themes. Prof. Ebbinghaus and Mrs. Ladd Franklin read respectively on "The Theory of Color-Vision" and "A New Theory of Light-Sensation"—the Helmholtz-Hering problem stated in two ways. Ebbinghaus returns to the *Sehpurpur*, which has been much neglected of late, derives from it blue and yellow, and postulates a *Sehgrün* substance from which sensations of green and red arise. Mrs. Franklin's new theory she calls the "Theory of the Differentiated Color-Molecule," an expression which those who are acquainted with the old theory of Donders will partly understand. Both of these papers are to appear, I believe, in the *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*—a reference with which I must content myself. Lehmann of Copenhagen contributed a research on the "Relation Between Respiration and Attention," which does not support Münsterberg's hypothesis that variations in effective attention are due to the innervation of the muscles of respiration. He finds that sensations of light, sound, and touch are hindered during both inspiration and expiration—that is, that sensorial attention is most effective during the pauses in breathing. This is confirmed, I may remark, by the fact that we unconsciously hold our breath or breathe softly when listening attentively.

Dr. Grüber of Rumania reported some extremely interesting cases of anomalous associations between the different senses, of which "colored hearing" (*audition colorée*) is the most familiar, though rare, example. Among the astonishing connections he mentions are sight-taste, sight-smell, sight-muscular associations, and sound-taste, etc. Moreover, he found in his subject a resistance-taste connection—a taste accompanying a given degree of muscular exertion. Even the temperature sense exhibited a kind of *chromatisme*. The range and richness of this subject's association of colors with words, syllables, letters, numbers, etc., is marvellous, and he may serve to give us a little relief from the famous Nussbaumer brothers, whom everybody has cited heretofore. In his remarks upon this paper Mr. Galton said that he had new evidence that the tendency to anomalous association is hereditary, but not so the details; a fact already illustrated in the Nussbaumer case, and seen also in the number-form peculiarity discovered some years ago by Galton.

Dr. Witmer of the University of Pennsylvania read the results of a research on the "Æsthetic Value of the Mathematical Proportion of Simple Figures," which tends from the point of view of exact experiment to establish the "golden section" of Zeising; and Prof. Donaldson reported the main results, already published, of his examination of Laura Bridgman's brain.

The hypnotic section was not very productive, although here the current discussions of the journals were actively reflected. Paris and Nancy both held the floor. Bernheim cited evidence to prove the purely psychic character of hysterical and suggested amblyopia; also the psychic character of the deafness, anæsthesia, etc., of hysterics. He holds that all these phenomena are due to a central or mental inhibition of sense data which are normally reported from the periphery. Dr. Bérillon of Paris, editor of the *Revue de l'Hypnotisme*, drew conclusions on the "Applications of Hypnotic Suggestion to Education," based on a wide range of experiments with children from six to fifteen years of age. He finds children normally very suggestible, and the more so, it is interesting to learn, the more healthy and normal they be. This last is a fact which may be of great importance in primary education, as I intimated in my last letter. It is easy to see how the acquisition of bad habits by children may be prevented by judicious suggestions—hypnotic, if necessary—of acts which counterbalance and neutralize what is mischievous.

The Proceedings of the Congress will appear in the autumn. They are to contain full synopses of the papers and discussions. A limited number of copies will be available for libraries, I believe, and for persons not members of the Congress. In the meantime, those who may want fuller information will find very good reports of many of the papers in the London *Times* for August 2, 3, and 5. A feature of

the Proceedings will be the publication, with each paper, of the name of the journal in which the author intends to print it in full.

The next regular session of the Congress is to be in Munich, in 1896, with Prof. Stumpf as President and Baron von Schrenck-Notzing as Secretary. An American committee was appointed, also, to consider the advisability of holding an extraordinary session in the United States next year. On the whole, the second session of the International Congress may be pronounced a success, and all who wish good to modern psychology must rejoice in the stimulus it has given to the investigation of mental facts by exact and scientific methods.

J. Mark Baldwin.

IN THOMAS HARDY'S COUNTRY.—I.

West Lulworth, August, 1892.

Thomas Hardy thinks that the time seems near, if it has not actually arrived, "when the chastened sublimity of a moor, a sea, or a mountain will be all of nature that is absolutely in keeping with the moods of the more thinking among mankind." He adds that ultimately, even to the ordinary tourist, spots like Iceland may supplant the vineyards of Southern Europe, and "Heidelberg and Baden be passed unheeded as he hastens from the Alps to the sand-dunes of Scheveningen." But if one seeks a combination of moor, sea, and cliffs almost deserving the name of mountains, he need not, if he is in England, travel far in search of it. If he is willing to sacrifice a little of the sublimity of the Alps, to avoid their overcrowded summer hotels, and will exchange the picturesque monotony of the beach of Scheveningen and the discomforts of Icelandic travel for the heaths and downs and cliffs of Dorsetshire, he can within five hours of London find himself in a spot which offers all the attractions enumerated by Hardy, and others in addition. It is so little known, even to Englishmen, that it is not likely to be familiar to their transatlantic cousins, and a brief summary of the experience of a couple of Americans who have selected it for their summer home may not at this time of year be uninteresting to those whose dog-day horizon is not bounded by the New Jersey or the Maine coast.

The defects of the summer holiday of the overworked business or professional man in America deserve more consideration than they usually receive. His vacation, to do him the maximum amount of good, should bring with it an entire change, not only of air and scenery, but also of thought, occupation, and general environment. It should lose none of its value by reason of its cost; it should give him opportunity to vegetate simply, if he so desires, or to keep up a certain amount of intellectual activity, diverting it, however, into new channels. New faces, new subjects of conversation, new experiences are often, as every medical man knows, of chief value in restoring the equilibrium between waste and repair in the brain-cells and other tissues of an organism which has been pushed beyond its normal physiological activity. These essentials of a summer holiday, regarded from the standpoint of the therapeutist as well as from that of the pleasure-seeker, are of course attainable in America, but they are too often ignored, and the life at Newport, at Narragansett, at Lenox, at Bar Harbor, at the Springs, becomes a repetition of the city life of the winter: the money-market is not forgotten, nor business cares laid aside by the one sex, while, with the other, toilets are as exacting, gossip as unceasing, and domestic duties as onerous as at any other time of year. It is with the idea of sketching the outlines of a holiday that seems to me to meet the proper requirements, that I have begun this letter.

The journey from New York to London in these days may be made to combine both comfort and economy. A train leaving London from Waterloo Station at 11:15 A. M., reaches Wool, in South Dorset, at 3:36, and in a few minutes rattles on towards Dorchester, leaving the passengers and their belongings on the little platform. To the properly informed visitor, one of the charms of the district begins immediately, if he is an admirer of Hardy's stories. To the north is seen a vine-clad, ivy-covered, many-chimneyed old manor-house, standing in a meadow through which runs the river Frome, crossed by a five-arched stone bridge with peculiar angular buttresses. The house is of great antiquity, and occupies the site of still older buildings, said to have belonged to a nunnery dating back to the time of Elfrida. Some unmistakable "herring-bone" masonry in the walls of one of the outbuildings fixes it as Saxon beyond a doubt, and fragments of stone chalices for holy water, narrow slits now filled up, on either side of the main entrance, through which alms could be passed by holy hands to profane wayfarers, and subterranean passages caved in and impassable, but thought by the irreverent to have once communicated with a neighboring monastery, all seem to favor the tradition which places a nunnery on the spot. This, however, is legend. What is certain is that, about 1630, it passed into the hands of its present owners from those of the D'Urbervilles, who became extinct. Its actual history has been uneventful, but it has gained a living interest for the admirers of Hardy from the fact that it was to this house that poor Tess was taken by Clare on the night of their wedding. It was across the stone bridge that he afterwards carried her in his sleep, and it was among the ruins of Bindon Abbey, hidden in the thick clump of trees an eighth of a mile to the eastward, that he laid her in the stone coffin.

One can reserve for another occasion a visit to the remains of the Cistercian Monastery of Bindon, and to the beautiful old carp pools in the depths of the surrounding woods, inky-black in the shadows, and no longer tenanted by the fat fish kept for the larder of the brethren. But before leaving the station at least a glance should be taken at the vast expanse of moorland to the north and west, which reaches almost to the horizon. It is Wool Heath—the "Egdon Heath" of the "Return of the Native," in which novel it is repeatedly described by Hardy, by whom, as a Dorchester man, every foot of this region is known and loved. He says that this obscure, obsolete, superseded country figures in Domesday Book, where it is known as "Bruaria," a heathy, furzy, briary wilderness. Leland, centuries later, speaks of it as "overgrown with heth and mosse," and it appears that its area has diminished little, if at all, down to the present day. The "barrows" or "tumuli" with which it is dotted, are to be seen here and there, and bring back the romantic incident in which Eustacia Vye (a name, by the way, still common here) brings Wildeve to her by building a bonfire on the summit of one of them.

A waggonette for the travellers and for the London servants engaged for the summer, and a donkey cart for the trunks, presently start along the six miles of winding and hilly road which leads across the "downs" towards the coast. On both sides at first are views of nothing but the broad, breezy, grassy, rolling plains, covered with grazing farms and dotted with innumerable flocks of sheep of the celebrated "Southdown" variety, indigenous to this district. After the highest point of the road has been reached and the descent begun, glimpses of the sea appear to the right between the cliffs which extend westward to Weymouth; to the left through those leading towards St. Alban's Head and Bournemouth. Close at hand is a picturesque break, Arish Mill, directly in front of Lulworth Castle. The road rapidly descends, passes a low ivy-covered typical English inn, with thatched roof penetrated by dormer windows, and becomes a winding, irregular street bordered by cottages in various stages of picturesque decay, but almost without exception exquisitely neat, covered by vines or ivy, and always presenting towards the road that most typical feature of English village landscape, a flower garden. The space devote to flowers may vary in size from a rod to that bounded by a half-dozen earthenware pots, but it is rarely absent from the home of a self-respecting Englishman, however humble his social position. It gives color and freshness and beauty to the least pretentious English village, and adds greatly to its attractiveness.

The winding street down which we drive constitutes the village of West Lulworth, which, beginning thus upon the hill a half mile from the sea, ends at Lulworth Cove, an almost land-encircled bay with a pebbly semicircular beach, bordered by high precipitous cliffs of chalk and Portland stone, and facing to the southward. The cottage which is our destination, and which was engaged by us a year ago, stands a little back from the road behind a low stone wall enclosing a pretty little garden and miniature lawn, on which grows a magnificent lime tree, completely overshadowing the grounds. The house is built in an excavation in the base of a steep, grass-grown hill, which rises almost perpendicularly for a hundred feet, and a portion of the side of which is occupied by a vegetable garden, sloping upwards at such an angle that it would seem easier to drop its products down the chimneys of the cottage than to bring them to it in the ordinary manner. It recalls Alpine or Tyrolese or Norwegian farms similarly placed, though at greater heights.

A gray thatched roof, with a line of red timber showing just beneath the eaves, diamond-shaped panes in the white sashes of the pointed windows, vine-covered trelliswork, and ivy-clad walls, flowering plants and geraniums on the window-sills, make up a sufficiently attractive exterior. Within, an old-fashioned stone-floored kitchen, with pantry, a dining-room of small dimensions, a drawing-room fifteen or twenty feet square, and overhead three bedrooms of corresponding size, with servants' room, etc., constitute the accommodations furnished by what is perhaps the largest cottage in the village. The gable end of the house overhangs a spring running out from beneath great gray boulders, and commands a view of the cove and of the open sea beyond.

Life here among this population of 150 or 200 fishermen, swelled in the summer by a few families from various more or less remote parts of England, is of the most primitive description. Our belongings, therefore, are correspondingly few, and in a few hours we are as thoroughly settled and at home as though we had lived here for months. The very nice old Englishwoman from whom we rent the cot-

tage, aids our new servants, who show themselves most willing and efficient; our clothes are put away or hung up, a few familiar photographs are placed on walls and tables, our travelling library is ranged upon the shelves, and, when dinner is announced an hour or two later, it seems as if we were just coming home after a short absence instead of beginning the experiment of housekeeping in a foreign land. It may be that inherited instincts are at work. Many Americans coming to England have noticed the development, possibly it should be called the reawakening, of feelings of affection and of liking almost strong enough to be termed loyalty, and they have not always been of the class of Anglomaniacs either. Hawthorne and Lowell and Bret Harte may be so classed by the hypercritical and ultra-patriotic, but there are others, of the most robust Americanism, who have felt and have not hesitated to acknowledge the same sentiment. At any rate, whatever the explanation, the prosaic fact is that we were able to settle into our temporary place in this little out-of-the-way spot with much more ease and serenity, and what we designate at home as "solid" comfort, than would usually be possible in moving from one house to another in the city of our birth.

The attractions of the place itself consist in the scenery of the neighboring coast, the historic and romantic interest of the towns and villages hereabouts, the beauty and variety of the spots which may be selected for sea-bathing, and, above all, the absolute quiet and repose of the whole region, almost any portion of which might have appropriately figured as the scene of Hardy's fine story, 'Far from the Madding Crowd.' He certainly knows Lulworth itself, as, many years ago, a legal gentleman to whom he had been articled, occupied the cottage from which I now write. This gentleman left the profession, and Hardy, fortunately for himself, for English literature, and for this and subsequent generations of novel-readers, was led into other paths.

The scenery here has a distinctive character of its own, differing somewhat from that on any other portion of the coast of the British Isles with which I am familiar. The many-colored serpentine of the Lizard, the dark, jagged granite of Land's End, the red-brown and the slate of North Cornwall and North Devon, the magnificent perpendicular gneiss and granite of the West of Ireland, have each a peculiar charm; but so have the cliffs of Dorsetshire. They consist of a series of hills ranging from 300 to 700 feet in height, with intervening valleys running down to the sea level. From their summits the view inland is over vast grass-grown expanses of rolling ground—the South Downs—and further yet across the moors and heaths which intervene before the hills of Devon and Somersetshire are reached. From the water, the face of the cliffs, which are almost or quite perpendicular, seems to be made up of parallel strata of limestone, curved and broken into all sorts of twisted and irregular lines, and varying in color from the creamy white of the almost pure chalk to the differing shades of red and yellow imparted by the presence of the salts of iron. This coloring is sometimes brilliant in the extreme, and one cliff, appropriately known as Golden Cap, when looked at from the westward on a bright afternoon, vies with any of the Dolomites in the richness of its tints, and would put to the blush even an impressionist water-colorist. The contrasts in coloring, too—not only on the face of the cliffs, but in the browns and greens and yellows of the grass which covers them, the blacks and purples where here and there a portion of bare rock peeps out from the chalk, and the changing shades of blue of the sea itself, varying with the sky—are a constant source of surprise and delight.

The bathing-places are as unfrequented as they are beautiful and peculiar. After a stay of some weeks, with baths varying in number from one to three daily, we have not once encountered any one else in some of our chosen spots, and have only twice been joined by a few young Englishmen at another place. Our party usually consists of two families, our own and that of a London friend, a distinguished professional man, who has a cottage close at hand. Before breakfast a dip in the Cove, or a row to its mouth and a dive from the boat, occupies a short half hour. After breakfast a row or sail to the eastward for a mile, past a "petrified forest," containing beautiful specimens of gigantic fossil-trees, brings one to a fine cavern known as "Smugglers' Cave," penetrating beneath the sloping layers of limestone for a considerable distance, and showing unmistakable evidence of having once well deserved its present name. Indeed, the whole coast was at one time the scene of very extensive smuggling operations, which here, as elsewhere where they take place, are regarded with peculiar leniency by the resident population. One of the most industrious and highly respected of the village fishermen has served his term in jail for one unsuccessful attempt out of many in which he was more fortunate; and the generation has not yet passed away in which the bringing in of illicit cargoes of spirits or tobacco constituted a locally recognized and entirely respectable avocation. Just above Smugglers' Cave, enormous slabs of rock, the projecting edges of the strata seen everywhere along the coast, run out so as to make a platform or shelf which affords a splendid view seaward and is one of our favorite perches. A little further to the eastward are the Mewp (or Muke) Rocks, gray, jagged masses of Portland stone, completely detached from the mainland, and covered with foam and breakers whenever a southerly wind prevails. Just back of them another sheltered cove with sandy beach and clear still water gives an opportunity for another bath, or permits a view of the wonderful panorama of animal and vegetable life on the bottom, some fathoms below. Still more to the eastward a break in the cliffs known as Arish Mill leads up directly to Lulworth Castle, a picturesque embattled edifice of the fourteenth century, which has been kept in repair and continuously inhabited since its erection. During all the intervening years it has remained in possession of one family, whose vast property extends in every direction, and is said to include twenty-five miles of sea-coast. The intimate history of such families, several of which still exist in England, dating back to Saxon times, preferring to remain commoners, yet the entertainers of kings, the practical lords and masters of miles of this little island, of dozens of villages, and, to all intents and purposes, of hundreds of people, would make a story of much interest, and one which, if faithfully written, would illuminate for foreigners many past pages of English history, and throw a flood of light on some of the social and political problems of the present day.

If a walk seems preferable to a row, five minutes' climb over a hill topped by the lofty coast-guard station, and then a steep descent by a sort of goat-path, lead to Stare Hole Cove, where a tremendous mass of Portland stone, hundreds of feet in height, has been separated from the mainland and fretted into chasms, arches, and tunnels by the action of the waves, leaving enclosed a beautiful little land-locked bay communicating with the open sea only by means of the openings thus worn through the great outside cliffs. A swim from the quiet dark-green water of the cove, through the blackness of one of these reverberating caverns, out into the sparkle and freshness of the blue sea beyond, is an experience to be remembered. At Durdle Door, still further westward, a rocky arch, thus fashioned by the sea out of the cliffs, is perhaps a hundred feet in height, broad enough to permit of the passing beneath it of a good-sized sail-boat, and entirely symmetrical. It shelters still another favorite bathing beach; and "Man-of-War Rock," near by, converts a portion of an open roadstead into a quiet lagoon with pebbly shores. And so the list might be continued, each spot having special advantages for bathing under certain conditions of wind and weather.

J. William White.

Correspondence.

THE PENSION ABUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a recollection of seeing, a few years ago, among the communications to the *Nation*, one or more letters from some person, I think an officer of the army in the War of the Rebellion, who was making a study of the pension question. In the letters I refer to, the abuses of that system were set forth in vigorous language, and the writer intimated a purpose or desire of forming an association for the purpose of correcting those abuses or guarding against their increase.

I have since heard nothing further on the subject. If my memory is correct, and the communication in question did indeed appear in the *Nation*, I am anxious at this time to get in touch with the writer of it. I therefore send this to you in hopes that it will reach his eye. Should it do so, he would confer a favor on the writer, and do something which might be productive possibly of future public good, by communicating with you.

An Ex-Colonel.

August 30, 1892.

[Our correspondent has doubtless in mind Lieut. Allen R. Foote, who, on July 4, 1891, delivered an address in the District of Columbia on the viciousness of our pension legislation, and who was shortly reported to have organized, with some other old soldiers, a "Society of Loyal Volunteers," with the aim of effecting a revision of the pension system so that only persons actually in need should receive the Government's bounty.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. WHITMORE'S ANCESTRAL TABLETS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen a genealogical chart entitled 'The Record of My Ancestry, containing the Genealogy of the —— Family and its branches from the year —— to ——. Compiled by ——. Book designed by the Rev. Frederic W. Bailey, B.D., Worcester, Mass., 1892.' It is marked "Copyright" and "Patent applied for." It is a blank book in which the owner is to record his ancestors, and, as it is

merely a modification of my 'Ancestral Tablets,' I wish to know on what the copyright or patent is based. My device, as is well known, was that of cutting holes in the pages so that a name could appear in more than one table. The invention, though trifling, has proved to be very useful, and its originality has never been disputed. Mr. Bailey has changed the position of the holes, and added some ruled spaces for photographs, etc. He has not, so far as I can see, acknowledged his indebtedness to my work, though he says that "at last, as a matter of necessity, he has, with the results of his experience, published the enclosed." As an equal "matter of necessity" (for the copyright in such a matter is mainly honorary), I feel called upon to warn your readers that whatever is good in Mr. Bailey's book is taken from mine, that his additions are trivial and confusing, and that my 'Tablets' are still published by DeWolf, Fiske & Co. of Boston. Yours very truly,

WILLIAM H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, August 30, 1892.

MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS IN CHICAGO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with compunction "E. L. M.'s" communication of August 18, in which he attributes the small per cent. of boys who complete the grammar and high-school course in the Chicago schools to the fact that the great majority of the teachers are women, and that "boys don't like petticoat government." While he does not advise that women be eliminated as a whole from the public schools—for he admits that they show a peculiar fitness for the places with small salaries attached—he urges that for the good of the "future voter" they be no longer retained in the best-salaried positions. He trembles to see them holding principalships, he trembles more to see them holding grammar principalships, and he trembles most to see them holding principalships in those schools having a thousand or more pupils, where their presence, he freely asserts, is the great and potent factor in driving the boys out of the higher grades.

Now, with the memorable Gradgrind, I want *facts*. I have therefore collected facts, and herewith respectfully submit them for the delectation of "E. L. M.'s" imaginative mind. Chicago has one hundred and six grammar-school principals; forty-one are women, sixty-five are men. From those schools in charge of what "E. L. M." speaks of as college-bred men of broad ideas, working for small pay and small appreciation (save in their own inner conscience), 88 per cent. of the graduates of last year were boys, while from those in charge of fussy, fidgety, elderly, nervous, uniterary, unscientific old women, destitute of culture or broad ideas, but with a good political pull, 43 per cent. of the graduates were boys. The twelve largest grammar-schools of Chicago have an attendance of 1,500 pupils and upwards; six of these have a man at the helm, 38½ per cent. of whose graduates were boys, while the other six, towed along by these same old women, with enfeebled bodies and uncultured minds, graduated classes of which 45 per cent. were boys. In ten grammar-schools more boys than girls completed the course; six of these were in charge of women, four of men. The school which graduated the largest percentage of boys, 60 per cent., was in charge of a woman. The school presided over by the gentleman whom the Democrats honored with the nomination for County Superintendent, and who stands admittedly high in his profession, graduated one boy and fifteen girls.

Now, if these facts prove anything, they prove that women as principals of large schools are much more successful than men in keeping boys in school. I do not believe, however, that they prove anything except that sex cuts a very small figure in the public schools. I believe in equal rights, and that half of the positions should be open to men, if they desire them, from the highest down to the lowest, with like salaries for like work; and my mind, though it may be narrow and contracted, is broad enough to grasp the fact that not all the virtues are concentrated in either sex, and that it is not a sign of growth to cling to the old customs and prejudices of a hundred years ago when we may live in the light and progress of the nineteenth century.

MARY DARROW-OLSON.

CHICAGO, September 1, 1892.

COLORADO'S SHARE OF PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To your editorial on "Riot and Protection," in your issue of August 25, you might have added another instance of protection as an influence working for a confusion bordering on riot in our finances and currency. I refer to the moral support which the Colorado mine-owners find in protection for their free-coinage-of-silver issue. It was the frequent statement which I met with from ex-Republicans of Colorado, in a recent visit to that State, that they had voted to protect the Eastern manufacturer and to pay a bounty to the Southern sugar-grower long enough, and now the manufacturer and sugar-grower must concede to their great industry the only protection which would benefit it, viz., the free coinage of silver, or forfeit all claim to their support now and in the future. And why not? Certainly if Government aids one industry, it should aid others in their need. There is no logical answer that can be made by a protectionist any more than there is to the suggestion in your editorial of protecting the home labor market by a tax on imported labor. Both would be dangerous experiments, and both are the logical offspring of a system of paternalism the evil consequences of which as a precedent for such suggestions cannot be estimated.

Colorado will be carried by the Weaver party.—Yours, etc., M. D. HULL.

CHICAGO, September 1, 1892.

ART FALLEN AMONG CUSTOMS APPRAISERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In 1888 I was commissioned to visit Paris to select a sculptor to model a crucifix intended to be part of a monument designed for the chapel of a religious institution in this city. The monument is in memory of a gentleman distinguished for his charities. The sculptor selected undertook to model a life-size figure, to be cast in bronze. The figure was to be attached to a bronze cross, also cast, and in connection with this work he also overlooked the modelling and casting of two large inscription plates to be attached to the monument.

The monument proper is a wall tablet of terracotta which was made in this city. The cross and tablets were cast by a noted bronze founder, Gruet, in Paris, under the sculptor's direction, models for them having been previously prepared from my own drawings. Various occurrences delayed the sculptor, an American, in his work on the figure for the crucifix, which was subsequently modelled and cast in America, the cross and tablets remaining in Paris. When the monument was finally about to be erected, the cross and tablets were sent from Paris by way of New York, where they were detained in the Custom-house. Duty of 45 per cent. was paid under protest for their release. On appealing from the Collector to the Honorable Board of General Appraisers, praying for a rebate of the duty, it was shown that the goods are in themselves works of art having been designed as such, and also as forming part of a monument which could come under no other definition than that of a "work of art." Two artists of this city, one of them distinguished by world-wide reputation, made statements that in their judgment these goods are "works of art." Photographs of the finished monument, showing the cross and tablets in position, were submitted for the inspection of the Honorable Board. As "works of art," "to be presented to a religious institution," I understand the law would allow them entry free. As mere "casts in bronze," I believe they should have been admitted free. The Honorable Board of General Appraisers decide they are not "works of art," and are not "casts in bronze," and refuse to refund the duty paid.

My client can afford the amount of the duty, $217.35, better than many people, and the principle involved is of more importance than the money. The arbitrary power of the customs authorities seems to reach beyond wisdom and to be incapable of enlightenment from ordinary sources. I have characterized their judgment in this case as being neither intelligent nor just. I think it is open to more severe criticism.—Yours respectfully,

A. W. S.

PHILADELPHIA, September 1, 1892.

Notes.

THE fall announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. include 'Three Episodes in Massachusetts History'—viz., the Bay settlement, the Antinomian controversy, and town development (1640-1890)—by Charles Francis Adams; 'Essays, Historical and Political,' by Henry Cabot Lodge; 'The Army of Northern Virginia [Confederate] in 1862,' by the late Col. William Allan; 'The Southern Empire,' three essays, speculative, political, and historical, by Oliver T. Morton, son of the late Senator Morton; 'France under the Regency,' by James Breck Perkins; 'The Eve of the French Revolution,' by Edward J. Lowell; a third edition of Edward Stanwood's 'History of Presidential Elections,' brought down to date; 'The Story of Mary Washington,' by Marion Harland; 'The Life and Writings of Jared Sparks,' in two volumes, by Prof. Herbert B. Adams; W. G. Collingwood's 'John Ruskin: His Life and Work'; 'Cæsar,' by Col. Theodore A. Dodge, in his series of "Great Captains"; 'The Nature and Elements of Poetry,' being the first lectures given on the Turnbull Foundation of Poetry at Johns Hopkins, by Edmund C. Stedman; 'The Complete Poetical Works of Shelley,' in four volumes, edited with a memoir and descriptive notes by Prof. George E. Woodberry; 'A Book of Famous Verse,' selected for young people by Agnes Repplier; 'Little Folk Lyrics,' by Frank Dempster Sherman; 'The Song of the Ancient People,' by Edna Dean Proctor; 'Songs of Sunrise Lands,' by Clinton Scollard; 'Prose Idyls,' by John Albee; 'The

Footpath Way,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Autumn,' a new gleaning from the journals of Thoreau, edited by H. G. O. Blake; 'Japan,' a compact history, by the Rev. W. E. Griffis; 'An American Missionary in Japan,' by M. L. Gordon, M.D.; 'Pagan and Christian Rome,' by R. Lanciani; 'The Old English Dramatists,' by James Russell Lowell; 'Uncle Remus and his Friends,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'The Interpretation of Nature,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'The Creation of the Bible,' by the Rev. Myron Adams; and 'Favorite Flies and their History,' an illustrated book for anglers, by Mary E. Orvis Marbury.

Macmillan & Co. hope to have Mr. Bryce's latest edition of his 'American Commonwealth' ready by October 1. They also announce 'The Beauties of Nature and the Wonders of the World,' by Sir John Lubbock; and a 'History of Early English Literature,' by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke.

The Scribners have in press 'The Campaign of Waterloo,' by John C. Ropes, with an atlas; 'Spanish Cities,' by Dr. Charles A. Stoddard; 'Poems of Rod and Gun,' by Ernest McGaffey, illustrated by Herbert Butler; and the complete Poems of Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr.

Roberts Brothers have nearly ready the complete Poems of Philip Bourke Marston, edited by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton.

'Echoes from the Sabine Farm,' translations from Horace's lyrics by Eugene and Roswell M. Field, will be published by A. C. McClurg & Co., with illustrations by Garrett.

Harper & Bros. will issue 'A Tour around New York and My Summer Acre,' by Felix Oldboy, and the following other illustrated volumes: Curtis's 'Prue and I'; James's 'Daisy Miller' and 'An International Episode'; 'A Little Swiss Sojourn,' by W. D. Howells; 'Along New England Roads,' by W. C. Prime; 'The West from a Car Window,' by Richard Harding Davis; 'The Praise of Paris,' studies of the French capital; and 'London,' by Walter Besant.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will shortly bring out the First Part of "Faust," edited with notes and a bibliography by Prof. Calvin Thomas of the University of Michigan.

M. Alphonse Daudet, the French papers say, is just now engaged in putting the last touches on his new novel, which is to be called 'Soutien de Famille.' Unless the reports of its plot and of his treatment of it which have been given out are all wrong, there seems to be but little likelihood that it will prove to be any such work as the 'Nabab' was, or 'Numa Roumestan,' or the 'Rois en Exil.' After this book is finished Daudet proposes, it is said, to undertake the translation of the 'Mémoires d'un Valet de ferme,' a book in the Provençal dialect, written by a peasant named Baptiste Bonnet. These memoirs are much read in the villages of Provence.

Quite recently—on the 19th of August, to be exact—M. Émile Zola was seen, to the surprise of some observers, on a railway train that was conveying six or seven hundred priests and laymen and sick people, all pilgrims, to the shrine at Lourdes. It was thought, naturally, that he was making a collection of human documents for his next novel, 'Docteur Pascal.' But it was for a novel which he means to begin immediately after the appearance of that romance that he was "documenting himself," as he told a reporter. 'Docteur Pascal' will appear in April next, and at that time M. Zola will be free to set about a work in which he will have occasion to speak of Lourdes.

The *Temps* announces that Ibsen's new play will be published towards the end of the year. Current talk in Copenhagen says that the appearance of this work will excite a certain sensational interest, inasmuch as its tone is quite other than that of its author's previous writings. Gay satire is its dominant note. The scene is laid at Copenhagen, and many well-known personages, political, artistic, financial, will figure in it—"une pièce à clef, en un mot."

The consular reports and other economic publications of Mr. Jacob Schoenhof have marked him as an acute and thorough investigator of the questions related to cost of production; and his latest volume, 'The Economy of High Wages' (Putnams), has the merit not only of painstaking and intelligent research, but of great timeliness from the political point of view. Its main aim is to go behind the crude though taking assertion that a surface difference in wages argues an equal difference in cost of production and of competing power, and to show by careful comparisons and a great range of facts gathered at first hand, that high wages not only are consistent with low cost of production, but generally cause it. There is the less need to give a detailed review of the book in that it is certain to be an arsenal for tariff-reformers in the next two months, and so to be widely read and quoted.

Mary Wollstonecraft's 'Vindication of the Rights of Women' opens a handy series to be called "The Scott Library" (London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell Co.). It is provided with a preface by an American, Mrs. Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Companion volumes in the same series on our table are Heine's 'Italian Travel Sketches, etc.,' translated by Elizabeth A. Sharp; 'Essays by Sainte-Beuve,' translated by Elizabeth Lee; 'Selections from Plato,' revised upon Sydenham and Taylor by T. W. Rolleston; and 'The *Athenian Oracle*; a Selection,' edited by John Underhill. We can do no more than bespeak attention to this excellent and attractive collection and the continuation of it.

'The Chetwynds of Ingestre,' by H. E. Chetwynd-Stapylton (Longmans, Green & Co.), is a readable history, in 264 pages, of an English family for several centuries. Originally settled at Chetwind, Co. Salop, as early as A.D. 1180, the oldest branch died out in the early part of the fifteenth century, while a younger branch at Ingestre, Co. Stafford, maintained the family honors. Some fourteen generations of the name held Ingestre and Grendon, but in 1692 the line ended with Walter Chetwynd, the antiquary. Grendon, Co. Warwick, went to a junior line, now become baronets, and recorded by Shirley in his 'Noble and Gentle Men.' Ingestre passed to a still more remote line settled at Rudge, and soon ennobled in 1717 as Viscounts Chetwynd in the peerage of Ireland. The daughter of the second peer carried Ingestre to the Talbot family, though the title exists in the male line. The family is distinctly one of high rank among the gentry of England, yet we fail to discover a single member thereof of any especial force or attainments. The history is interesting and yet unsatisfactory, inasmuch as the author fails to use the material evidently attainable. A good antiquary would have made a valuable book out of the family papers; a skilful writer would at least have made us realize more fully some of the romantic episodes of the family history. Possibly, however, English reserve and traditions are to be blamed for the reticence of the editor.

'The History of Boxley Parish, Kent,' by J. Cave-Browne (Maidstone, Eng.: E. J. Dickinson), contains little to interest any but local readers. Boxley Abbey, indeed, has obtained an undesirable notoriety on account of its juggling "Rood of Grace," or crucifix, which was noted for miraculous movements of the eyes and other features. The exposure of the fraud was one of the excuses for the abolition of monasteries by Henry VIII., and the historian sets forth the story in some detail. The Wiat family held part of the Abbey lands for two generations, but no other names of note seem to be associated with the vicinity, unless we except that of George Sandys, the poet, who often visited here his niece Margaret, the wife of Sir Francis Wiat, Governor of Virginia. The book contains some extracts from the parish registers, but we fail to notice any names which have been reproduced on this side of the Atlantic.

Among the publications of the Gesellschaft für vervielfältigende Kunst in Vienna, the fifth instalment of Dr. Rosenberg's 'The Rubens Etchers' has just appeared. The text, by the editor, Prof. Dr. C. von Luetzow, treats exhaustively of the three chief masters of the famous school of etching, Paulus Pontius, Boetius, and Schelte a Bolswert. The works of these men are exemplified by a number of able illustrations and by four full-page reproductions of etchings by Pontius. There are also two heliogravures of leaflets by Chr. Jeghers and P. Witdock. Two more instalments of 'The Rubens Etchers' are to follow.

Students of Dante will be interested in 'Luca Signorelli's Illustrationen zu Dante's Divina Commedia,' now published for the first time with explanatory text by Franz Haver Kraus (Freiburg: Mohr). Signorelli's frescoes on the walls of the Capella della Madonna di San Brizio in the Cathedral of Orvieto represent scenes from the Last Judgment. Their importance for the history of painting in the early Renaissance period and for the influence of Dante on art can scarcely be overestimated. This reproduction of them in twelve plates by the process of photogravure is admirable, and forms the first of a series of similar publications in illustration of the 'Divine Comedy' which Herr Kraus intends to issue.

The opening article in the August Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is an account of an expedition made by officers of the British East Africa Company for the purpose of ascertaining the navigability of the River Tana. They succeeded in taking up a steamer for some 360 miles, though with great difficulty, from causes common to all tropical streams. Much of the country along the banks was rich land and especially adapted for the cultivation of rice; but all agriculture was greatly checked by the constant raids of the Masai and other warlike tribes. Some Gallas, who had been forced by them to take refuge on an island, gave as a reason for the loss of their former power the swallowing by an ox of the book which God gave them at creation containing his orders, and which was carelessly left lying about. "Hence a custom which is now observed of opening and examining the entrails of any ox that dies or is killed for food, in the hopes of recovering the lost book, for if they could once more regain possession of it, they believe they would again become the most powerful nation on earth." An attempt was made to ascend Mount Kenia, which failed apparently from want of time. An account of an expedition to a mountain in the interior of the Malay Peninsula, hitherto unvisited by Europeans, tells also of non-success. Arabian coffee-trees were found, but the rajah in whose garden they were cultivated "was totally ignorant of the use of the coffee-berries, using the leaves only to make tea of."

Before the outbreak of the cholera, the citizens of Hamburg were organizing a Columbus celebration to be held in October, at which

there were to be meetings to be addressed by delegates from all the German universities and the geographical societies; and an exhibition of books, maps, globes, nautical instruments, and other things in use at the period of the discovery of America, as well as objects illustrating the present-day development of America, modern pictures, books, and charts. It was also proposed to publish a memorial volume containing papers on early German transatlantic trade.

About 1,087 volumes of the private library of Dr. Nicolas Léon, formerly director of the Museum at Morelia, are for sale. They embrace publications of special value for Mexicologists, many very scarce and several unique, together with manuscripts on the history of Michoacán and other Mexican States, on the Tarasco (the Indian language of Michoacán), etc. Parties interested should correspond with Dr. Léon, No 16 Portal de Matamoros, Morelia, Mexico.

—At the meeting of the American Economic Association held at Chautauqua in the last week of August, President Francis A. Walker, who had been President from the organization of the Association, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Prof. Dunbar of Harvard University. Prof. Ely, who had filled the office of Secretary with indefatigable assiduity, also resigned, and was succeeded by Prof. Ross of Cornell. The change in officers marked no change in the character or policy, and yet was significant, emphasizing as it did the catholic nature of the association, and the union in its ranks, for the promotion of calm and unbiassed study of economic phenomena, of economists of all shades of thought. In no department of knowledge has American scholarship made a more striking advance in the last ten years than it has in economics, and it is fortunate that the writers and teachers who have achieved this change have united, irrespective of some important differences in opinion, for the promotion of thorough and scholarly work. At the August meeting, papers were presented, among others, by Prof. Patten, on some aspects of Ricardo's work; by Profs. Clark and Giddings, on the theory of value; by Prof. Taussig, on value and distribution as discussed in Marshall's recent book; and by Prof. Seligman, on progressive taxation. Not the least interesting contribution to the discussions was an essay, of a more popular sort, on the endowment-society craze, by Mr. F. P. Bennett of Massachusetts, to which the collapse of the Iron Hall, announced in the daily papers at the very time of the meeting, gave a dramatic emphasis. We are glad to take this opportunity of commending the Association to all public-spirited persons who wish to aid in promoting the advance of economic science. Its publications are sent to all members. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Secretary, Prof. Ross, at Ithaca, N. Y.

—Rarely have the summer meetings of scientific associations, home or foreign, produced anything to equal the admirable and scholarly address of Sir Archibald Geikie, President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Edinburgh, August 3. The centenary of James Hutton's 'Theory of the Earth' suggested the subject, one in which the Scottish geologists have ever been well to the front. Our space forbids that ample citation which we should like, but Sir Archibald's treatment of the time-contest between astronomer and geologist is peculiarly felicitous. Among the debts, he says, which science owes to the Huttonian school, not the least memorable is the promulgation of the first well-founded conceptions of the high antiquity of the globe. Previously some 6,000 years had been believed to comprise the whole life of the planet, and indeed of the entire universe. Astronomy had made known the immeasurable fields of space; the new geology seemed then to reveal boundless distances in time; the whole of bygone eternity lay open to the requirements of the geologist. Playfair, reëchoing and expanding Hutton's language, had declared that neither among the records of the earth nor in the planetary motions could any trace be discovered of the beginning or of the end of the present order of things, and that no symptom of infancy or of old age appeared on the face of Nature. Then came Sir William Thomson to point out that these conceptions were fundamentally erroneous, that every lineament of the solar system bears witness to a gradual dissipation of energy from some definite starting-point. It is not a pleasant experience to discover that a fortune which one has unconcernedly believed to be ample, has somehow taken to itself wings and disappeared. When the geologist was suddenly awakened by the energetic warning of the physicist, who assured him that he had enormously overdrawn his account with past time, it was but natural under the circumstances that he should think the accountant to be mistaken who thus returned to him dishonored the large drafts he had made upon eternity. He saw how wide were the limits of time deducible from physical considerations, how vague the data from which they had been calculated. And though he could not help admitting that a limit must be fixed beyond which his chronology could not be extended, he consoled himself with the reflection that, after all, a hundred millions of years was a tolerably ample period of time, and might possibly have been quite sufficient for the transaction of all the prolonged sequence of events recorded in the crust of the earth. He was therefore disposed to acquiesce in the limitation thus imposed upon geological history.

—But physical inquiry continued to be pushed forward with regard to the early history and the antiquity of the earth. Further consideration of the influence of tidal friction in retarding the earth's rotation, and of the sun's rate of cooling, led to sweeping reductions of the time allowable for the evolution of the planet. The geologist found himself in the plight of *Lear* when his bodyguard of one hundred knights was cut down. "What need you five-and-twenty, ten, or five?" demands the inexorable physicist, as he remorselessly strikes slice after slice from his allowance of geologic time. Lord Kelvin is willing to grant the geologists some twenty millions of years, but Prof. Tait would have them content with less than ten millions. Dr. Geikie frankly confesses that the demands of the early geologists for an unlimited series of ages were extravagant, and even for their own purposes unnecessary, and thinks the physicists have done good service in reducing them. Also, he will freely admit that the latest conclusions, from physical considerations, of the extent of geological time require that the interpretation given to the record of the rocks should be rigorously revised, with the view of ascertaining how far that interpretation may be capable of modification or amendment. Still, it is also to be remembered that the geological record constitutes a voluminous body of evidence regarding the earth's history which cannot be ignored, and must be explained in accordance with ascertained natural laws. If the conclusions derived from the most careful study of this record cannot be reconciled with those drawn from physical considerations, it is surely not too much to ask that the latter should be also revised. It has been well said that the mathematical mill is an admirable piece of machinery, but that the value of what it yields depends upon the quality of what is put into it. That there must be some flaw in the physical argument, Sir Archibald can hardly doubt, though he does not pretend to be able to say where it is to be found.

—In accordance with a resolution adopted by the International Congress of Criminalists, held last year at Christiania, a work entitled 'Die Strafgesetzgebung der Gegenwart in rechtsvergleichender Darstellung' is now in preparation, and will be published in five vollumes by Otto Liebmann at Berlin. It will consist of treatises on the penal legislation of the principal countries of the world by recognized authorities in the province of jurisprudence, such as Van Hamel of Amsterdam, Gauckler of Caen, Stross of Berne, Prins of Brussels, Lamasch of Vienna, and Von Liszt of Halle, to whom the editorship of the work has been committed. It will be issued also in French. Among the papers read before the Congress for Criminal Anthropology which convened on August 7, at Brussels, was one on "Les Crimes des Foules," by a French judge, M. Tarde, from Sarlat in Dordogne. The subject is invested with peculiar interest at the present time, and finds ample illustration in the daily chronicles of current events as well as in the records of history. M. Tarde comes to the conclusion that "la foule, parmi les populations les plus civilisées, est toujours une sauvagesse et une faunesse, moins que cela une bête impulsive et maniaque." Persons who combine for the accomplishment of even the worthiest purpose are easily led to set at defiance the simplest principles of morality and justice in order to attain the object of their desire. Corporations have proverbially no souls, and crowds animated by a common selfish impulse are apt to divest themselves of all ideal motives and natural sympathies, and degenerate ethically into a brutal mob. "L'égoisme collectif est plus intense mille fois et plus impérieux que les égoismes privés synthétisés en lui." M. Tarde applies this principle to nations, and adduces England as an illustration. "The individual Englishman is honorable, open and magnanimous; the English nation is less so." He refers also to the German Peasants' War of 1525 and the terrors of the French Revolution. But there was no need of going so far back for examples, which may be found much nearer in the atrocities recently perpetrated by Homestead rioters and murderous miners in Idaho, and in the utter disregard shown by labor associations for the rights of the laborer outside of their own organization. The same tendency manifests itself also in political parties, whose members, although personally upright and wholly truthful and trustworthy in private life, extenuate and endorse the most rascally measures taken for the success of "the cause." They go with their party into whatever sloughs it may lead them, and let their individual ethics fall into abeyance.

—Vol. xiii. of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* opens with a curious and hitherto unknown essay composed by Goethe—as the editor thinks—in 1793-5, and entitled "Proposal for the Introduction of the German Language into Poland." The poet's scheme was, in brief, to provide a

number of itinerant dramatic companies that should play for a short time each year in all the principal cities of the land, their *répertoire* to be regulated by Government and to consist of short pieces reflecting the daily life and speech of the common people. Among the new letters published are two from the Baroness Elise von Türckheim, *née* Schönemann, to whom, in his early manhood, Goethe was engaged to be married. They date from 1801 and 1807. One asks Goethe's aid in securing a place for a young man whom Frau von Türckheim had befriended, the other introduces her sons. Incidentally the letters testify to the high regard in which the Baroness held her quondam lover. How far she was from blaming him for the rupture of their youthful engagement appears from a passage in another letter published in the *Jahrbuch*—a letter of Barbara Schulthess to Goethe, written in 1794 or 1795. In this the writer says that she has just made the acquaintance of Lise Türckheim, who had this to say of her former lover: "I send him greeting. In thinking of him I delight to keep in my soul the pure image which he left there by his conduct toward me. I shall not let it be effaced by anything that can be said to me." Notices like this only emphasize a fact long known to the well-informed, viz., that that important and much discussed chapter in Goethe's life which deals with his relations to women, can no longer be based upon 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' but needs to be radically revised in the light of contemporary documents. The present trend of German "Goethe-philology" is well indicated by the character of the essays in the newest *Jahrbuch*. They are five in number and all intensely matter-of-fact. The first is devoted to the personal relations of Goethe and his Swiss friend Barbara Schulthess, and the second to a long account (based partly on new matter in the archives) of Goethe's studies in anatomy. The third endeavors, with no very striking success, to find traces of the Song of Solomon in "Faust"; the fourth tries to demonstrate the influence of the Dutch Neo-Latin poet Johannes Secundus upon Goethe's erotic elegies; while the last discusses the history of Goethe's Frankfort citizenship and the formalities connected with his abandonment of it in 1817. The department of bibliography has grown so large that the editor complains of being unable to manage it; so he gives only sixty pages of matter under this head and omits the remainder for lack of space.

A NATION-MAKER.

The Life and Times of Sir George Grey, K.C.B. By William Lee Rees and Lily Rees. Auckland, New Zealand: H. Brett. 1892.

Our absorption in ourselves leaves us little time to attend to what goes on in remote parts of the world, even in countries where a common origin, language, institutions, and general spirit ought to arouse sympathy. Here is a biography in which is summed up in a remarkable way the story of the development of that great society of English-speaking men, 5,000,000 strong, which has been established almost during the Victorian age in the South Pacific. The record is most picturesque and full of interest for Americans. Sir George Grey, beginning his career in 1837 as one of the boldest of Australian explorers, becoming afterwards Governor of South Australia, twice Governor of Cape Colony, and twice Governor of New Zealand, still lives, an octogenarian almost as vigorous as Gladstone, to play a part in the federation of Australasia, and the setting in order of that great brotherhood of provinces for the work of the twentieth century.

Born in Lisbon in 1812, a few days after his father, Colonel of the Thirty-third Regiment, had been killed at the head of the storming party in the breach at Badajos, George Grey, too, became a soldier, after a brilliant career at Sandhurst receiving a lieutenancy, and departing in the year of Victoria's accession with a commission to explore northwestern Australia. Here the harshest obstacles were encountered—deserts, jungles, rugged coasts—now thirst, now tropical cloud-bursts, which brought the party to death's door. But nothing is finer in the account than Grey's wise and humane dealing with the natives whom he encountered; he struck here into methods which he followed in a most notable way through life, becoming at last one of the most successful tamers of savage men whom the world has seen. His desire was not to destroy even though his life were imperilled, but to lift up. His followers, with apparent good reason, thought him quixotic when he lamented the death of a chief whom he shot at the moment when the savage's spear had nearly taken his own life; when he ordered his men to leave untouched a hostile party's weapons which might have been seized; and when he forbade them, almost starving, to take from the stores of the natives more than enough to satisfy the present necessity. In the sequel, however, the expediency as well as the humanity of Grey's policy was abundantly demonstrated, as in many similar cases in his later career upon larger fields.

Leaving the scene of his explorations, which has since become a cultivated and populous tract, Grey, twenty-eight years old, was made in 1841 Governor of South Australia, then the youngest colony of England, he being the youngest man ever put into such a position. His difficulties here were not less than in his previous exploit, though different in kind. The virgin province was in danger of falling into the hands of land monopolists, against whom the young Governor stubbornly set himself, striking here, too, a keynote with which his future life was to harmonize in arenas far distant and much wider. The rapacious crowd were foiled; the State Church they had contemplated, the extensive revenues for which were to flow in great part from taxes paid by dissenters, came to naught; instead of a dependent working-class who, according to the plan, were to furnish an abundance of cheap labor with no opportunity to rise into independent proprietorship, a society appeared in which each man lived on his own moderate holding, after the type of the ancient English yeoman and the New England farmer of a later time.

Grey was opposed violently, both in the colony and by the Home Government, but his power was recognized; and when in 1845 a wise and firm hand became indispensable in New Zealand, he was transferred thither, finding in that magnificent province, nearly as large as Italy and abounding in the finest resources, a noble opportunity. Leaving behind him peace and content among the South Australian colonists, while the natives, few though they were in the scale, were slowly rising through the influence of firmness and kindness, he turned to confront in his new province a turmoil far greater than he had thus far coped with. The same land-grabbing was rife which had so nearly blighted South Australia; a feudal order was in process of formation, with lordly proprietors and a State Church on one side and on the other a mass of dependent laborers; at the same time a new element of danger was at hand—the presence of a native race, the Maoris, perhaps the most formidable barbarians in the world. Aggression and injustice had provoked the Maoris to war; the eight or ten thousand English colonists were, at Grey's arrival, in imminent danger of being "at supper" with 120,000 cannibals after the fashion of *Polonius* with the worms when *Hamlet's* thrust had done its work. It all happened in an out-of-the-way corner of the world, but it is a shame that the story of the manner in which Grey set his difficult viceroyalty in order should not be known to all English-speaking men. With deft blending of force and forbearance, the tribes were subdued and won at last to enthusiastic friendship. Many a picturesque adventure is narrated as the Governor, sometimes alone, sometimes with some kindred spirit, like the consecrated Bishop Selwyn, penetrated to the fastnesses of the grim tattooed chiefs, subduing their hearts with no weapons but humanity and justice. With similar tact and courage the colonists were guided; opportunities were opened to the poor; in 1852 a thoroughly democratic constitution went into operation, which fifteen years later was copied substantially for federated Canada. Grey was beset with opposition in his province and in Downing Street. Quixotic, visionary, impracticable were adjectives always coupled with his name; but somehow his rashness and folly rarely failed of success. His enemies, silenced, often were forced to adopt his measures which they had once ridiculed. He was knighted in 1848; but it was in 1853 that his career received its most emphatic vindication, though it was grotesque enough. On a visit to England in that year, Oxford conferred upon him the degree of D.C.L., while 2,000 undergraduates responded to the Latin eulogy in which his exploits were recounted, by roaring at the tops of their voices, "The King of the Cannibal Islands."

South Africa was now in great straits, and Downing Street, with much hesitation, felt at last that no one was likely to deal with the problem better than the organizer of South Australia and New Zealand. Colonized in the seventeenth century by Dutch and Huguenots, South Africa was ceded to England in 1814, during the forty years subsequent to which date it had been constantly harassed by troubles with Boers and natives. The Government, at their wits' end with embarrassments, were about prepared to resign everything but Cape Town and Table Bay. At this point Sir George Grey was despatched thither with powers almost autocratic. The story of his proconsulship is but a repetition on a larger scale of his preceding administrations. In the main, the same problems were dealt with by the same expedients. The presence of the Boers, indeed, an alien European population, among the colonists, caused a new complication, in managing which Grey was helped by the fact that there was a Huguenot strain in his own ancestry. Here, however, were Basutos, Kaffirs, and Zulus, native races scarcely less formidable than the Maoris, outraged by the aggression and injustice of European intruders; here also were rapacious monopolists; and over against them a mass of Englishmen in danger of falling into semi-serfdom. Grey's success was complete. He could be a soldier on occasion, as when, in a general Kaffir uprising, he corralled by a ruse all the principal chiefs, bringing the war to a sudden and almost bloodless end. But his weapons

were for the most part schools, hospitals, and courts where equal justice was meted. At the same time, securing in the territories a population of small proprietors, he constituted a thoroughly democratic order.

At the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny, by diverting on his own responsibility to Calcutta troops destined for China, and by sending at the same time from his own province every soldier and every gun, he perhaps saved India to England. In this crisis he took a most extraordinary and characteristic course with the natives, which on the face of it seemed like folly itself, but in the result was brilliantly justified. So far from trying to conceal the circumstances from savages lately in fiercest war with the English, he explained to their chiefs with perfect frankness the whole situation, stating his own helplessness, the straits to which the Empire was reduced, and throwing himself upon their honor and good will. The painted and feathered dignitaries pledged to him hearty support, and not one departed from his word. Peace reigned in South Africa until his policy was abandoned; then came wars in which 30,000 lives were sacrificed, and names like Isandula and Majuba Hill were added to the days of disaster in British story. "No Roman proconsul," says his biography, "wielded power over wider dominions or was brought into contact with wilder nations. No man ever subdued with so little bloodshed such great numbers of barbarians."

Nevertheless Grey was disapproved. He was a dreamer, disobedient to instructions, a contriver of impossible policies, altogether a dangerous man. He was removed from South Africa, only to be sent back again, however, before he could land in England. His ways were so radical and absurd, but how well things turned out, after all! Canada was promised him; Sir Charles Napier said he should have been sent to India instead of Lord Mayo. New Zealand, however, was again wrapped in blood and flame because his methods had been forgotten, and only he could be trusted to restore order. Once more he laid hand to the task, but only to be curtly dismissed. The administrative work which has caused him to be known in the South Pacific as the "Great Proconsul" came to an end in 1867. As regards the colonists, they have been peaceful and happy only as his policy has been followed; as regards the natives, what he did may be judged from the grateful outburst of Florence Nightingale: "God bless you! I wish I could have helped you more. You are nearly the only Governor except the great and good Sir John Lawrence, who have condescended to qualify yourself by learning the language, the physical habits, and the ethnological peculiarities of the races you have had to govern. God bless you for all you have done for those fine races!"

Though no longer a Viceroy, Grey was still in public life. Returning to England, his ability and character were universally recognized; the Tories even, with Disraeli at their head, making flattering overtures in the hope to gain him. He was, however, too liberal even for the Liberals, going so far in 1869 as to advocate home rule, formulating in October of that year "the first definite and practicable proposition ever made for the local self-government of Ireland." In this he was strenuously opposed not only by Lord Granville and John Bright, but also by Gladstone. The truth was that Grey, in his long and widely extended experience with rising States, had conceived the idea of a great federation of English-speaking lands, in which idea he went so far as to include even the United States, anticipating a brotherhood in which America, by virtue of power and numbers, should hold the leading place. For some such consummation in the future the world, in his thought, even now must be set in order. He was in this far before his time. In those days the "dismemberment policy" was in favor—that Britain must cast off her colonies. He failed of election to Parliament, and was stigmatized by men who within twenty years were to adopt, in great part, his views. He did not quite fail, however, of appreciation. Said Carlyle: "He is born of the Tetragonidæ, built four-square, solid, as one fitted strongly to meet the winds of Heaven and the waves of Fate."

Grey returned to New Zealand, not to the retirement which his years justified, but, like John Quincy Adams, to struggle, as a simple delegate in the lower house, for the principles he had upheld in the chief position of the State. His last noteworthy appearance in public life was at the convention for formulating a federal constitution for Australasia, held at Sydney in the spring of 1891. The outcome was little to his taste, for the instrument preserved such aristocratic features as "plural voting," a device by which a rich proprietor might cast his ballot fifteen or twenty times if his estates were numerous and scattered; and also, instead of providing for the election of the supreme magistrate by the people, contemplated the appointment by the Crown of some high-born Englishman. The old cries of "visionary, impracticable" were once more raised against him, and in the convention he stood almost alone. No sooner was it dissolved, however, than, while making a tour of the Australian provinces, the people came everywhere to meet him. In each city and town he addressed enthusiastic thousands, and it became plain that if the federation of Australia was ever to occur, it must be upon his lines.

No man of our time better deserves the title of nation maker than Sir George Grey; and there are few careers which anticipate to the extent which his career has done, what we may fairly hope will be the spirit of the twentieth century.

China Collecting in America. By Alice Morse Earle. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

THIS is a first-rate book of its kind. It is written in a flowing, easy style that holds in cheerful solution a goodly number of facts industriously gathered and used with judgment. Several of the subjects treated in these chapters have been written about by others, but no one, we believe, has, thus far, brought the whole matter at once so completely and so comfortably under one roof as has been done by Mrs. Earle. The hard-hearted critic may now and then be led, in the opening pages, to ask whether the lady do not protest too much, and work herself up into a fine state of adjectivity about what, at best, must be allowed little more than another of the many modern devices "to make tedious hours believe we think not of them." But this objection is sure to make itself felt less and less as we read further, until, on closing the book, we find that we have obtained from its pages one more clear and spirited picture of the social life of our "old colonial times."

The aim of the book is, however, scientific (if that be not too large a word) rather than to add to the amusement of the hour. It proposes an account of the introduction of china into our country, and of its use on the tables of Americans, from the time of its first employment as a substitute for wooden bowls and trenchers and for pewter ware. The word "china" is conveniently used by the author, as is the common practice, to include stoneware, earthenware, and porcelain; but, in the detailed treatment of the subject, the distinctions are, of course, clearly kept in view. The chapters on "Early Fictile Art in America," and "Earliest Pottery Wares," on "Liverpool Ware" and "Oriental China," with that on "Punch Bowls and Punches," will be found pleasant reading, we should think, whether one cares about the matter or not; and they add considerably to our knowledge of the subject. There is a whole chapter on punch-bowls and their contents, without a word of apology or so much as a hint of deprecation. In fact, there is a certain gusto on the lady's part in discussing the subject which, when considered along with her true womanly appreciation of the delights of tea-drinking, as shown in the chapter on "The Cosey Tea-pot," proves her to be well fitted by nature for an all-round treatment of her subject.

Mrs. Earle would not be a china-collector of the true breed were she to stand quietly by when a fight is going on, nor long to take a hand in it. On the contrary, she smells the battle from afar, and runs half-way to meet it. But a fairer foe was never in the field, as all will admit who have read her chapter on "Oriental China," where she discusses the "Lowestoft question," and, to the satisfaction of one of her readers at least, settles it in favor of the Chinese origin of that ware. This, however, is less to our purpose than the illustration it gives of the author's method of getting at the facts in the matter she is discussing. Her aim is the truth.

So industrious a student might have made her book much longer, no doubt, had she not been mindful of the French saying that there is no better way to be tiresome than to tell all you know. Mrs. Earle is never tiresome. She is so humorously interested in her subject, showing us that she knows well enough how far it is worth while to be interested in it; she is so ready to enjoy a legend or a myth and to let you enjoy it even after she has proved it unbelievable; she so cheerfully resigns herself to the hardships and disappointments always lying in wait for the explorer, that, out of a subject which in another's hands might have proved dry and unfruitful, she has made a valuable and entertaining contribution to the history of small things without which the history of great things cannot successfully be written.

The book is prettily illustrated with process-prints taken from the objects themselves. Considering that until very lately there were but few pieces of Persian ware to be found in this country, and that even now they are rare, a more appropriate device might have been chosen for the cover than the Persian design for a plate; but the book is very attractively made. The index is rather of the haphazard order; but as the facts are well grouped in their respective chapters, the reader cannot be seriously put about in finding what he may want.

Dreams of the Dead. By Edward Stanton. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1892.

THERE is a stage of scientific inquiry, ineluctable as the calentures of youth, whose work is pure play of fancy. The wonderful molecular theory which has served our age as master-key to the arcana of nature, would

never have come into our possession if Democritus and Epicurus had not first dreamed it. Copernicus had never dared his leap, the audacity of which we cannot easily appreciate, if he had not had Pythagorean fancies of a central fire to egg on his mind. Concerning a future life and the nature of spirit, we know about as much to-day as Democritus and Epicurus did about the cosmos. We are most of us hoping now that our descendants, at least, may some day find out in this world something positive about the other. Meantime, speculation must mew its plumage for a new flight; for it is surprising how feeble all the attempts of the Dantes and the Aquinases have been—the Aquinases vainly trusting to the flappers of ratiocination to raise them from the earth; the Dantes hampered by preconceived downdragging baggage; and both too much occupied with ideas of Hell to wing their way freely in a spiritual ether. Swedenborg might have helped us, if he had not been so positive and peremptory. Dogma weighs down; it is unsubstantial suggestions and light interrogations that are wanted to bear the mind aloft.

The author of 'Dreams of the Dead' makes no effort to persuade his reader; he insists upon nothing—he just sets forth his reveries, with an unaffected power that makes itself felt. Were the book a product of art, it would bespeak an imagination not less than extraordinary; but be it the production of a one-book man, the brooding of many years, and it is none the less valuable to the public. The author quotes on his title-page those lines of young *Hamlet*, "For in that sleepe of death, what dreames may come," etc. He has raised the thought that the dead dream, that the disintegrating brain has its flickering consciousness, and he has clothed this idea with so vivid a form that it refuses to be exorcised or shaken off. Had he argued it scientifically, as there was every temptation to do (for, after all, what solid facts are there against it?), he would have failed to impart to it such a clutch upon the imagination as he has effected by a simplicity and unpretentiousness very seductive. What an awful variation upon the purgatorial conception it is, one must read the book to know. In fact, it is too dreadful for human belief. The attractive and elevating features of the conception (and such are by no means wanting) are the ones the book mainly dwells upon; but surely no subsequent paradise could indemnify the soul for such fearful bondage to the flesh. For that reason, not many readers will be inclined to accept the theory as true. Besides, Calvinism is in ebbing favor, nowadays—some persons will call it an unsavory ebb. Now this book exhibits curious vestiges of the Calvinistic, or rather the old theological philosophy, though these are softened down till barely perceptible. Mr. Stanton does not, for instance, hold, with St. Augustine, that the honor and glory of God demand that the great majority of mankind should be predestined to everlasting fires; but he does tell with theologic glee of the misery of two old hidebound Puritans prolonged throughout two centuries. He has faith in the radical reprehensibleness of certain created spirits, which to some minds has always seemed vile blasphemy. Above all, he cannot free his conception of the other world completely from that of retributive justice, and practically postpones the Beatitudes to the comfort of another life.

Considered merely as a tale, 'Dreams of the Dead' is a story that, once read, will never be forgotten; and the lessons it impresses are not unprofitable. Any reader of it who might have been inclined to repine at the thought of mortality, will be safely cured of that complaint by the perusal, and be glad enough to adopt, if he can, the opinion of old *Prospero*, "Our revels here are ended," etc.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austen, Jane. Letters. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Pride and Prejudice. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Barrett, Frank. Out of the Jaws of Death. Cassell. $1.
Black, W. The Maid of Killeena, and the Marriage of Moira Fergus. Harpers. 90c.
Bonney, G. E. Induction Coils. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Elmslie, Theodora. His Life's Magnet. Appletons.
Elton, Charles. The Career of Columbus. Cassell. $1.25.
Fitzpatrick, W. J. Secret Service under Pitt. Longmans, Green & Co.
Gautier, T. Four Destinies. Worthington Co.
Glouvet, Jules de. The Woodman. Harpers. $1.
Gossip of the Century. 2 vols. Macmillan. $10.50.
Grandgent, C. H. Materials for French Composition. Part V. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 12 cents.
Hartshorne, H. Cholera: Facts and Conclusions as to its Nature, Prevention and Treatment. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Marvin, Rev. A. P. Life and Times of Cotton Mather. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
McArthur, J. N. Government. Longmans, Green & Co.
Merserau, W. T. Vesper Bells, and Other Poems. Privately Printed.
Molesworth, Mrs. Leona. Cassell. $1.
Muir, Alan. Charming to her Latest Day. Harpers.
Palmer, A. B. A Treatise on Epidemic Cholera. Ann Arbor: *Register* Publishing Co. $1.50.

SEPTEMBER
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—The System of Payment by Results, B. A. Hinsdale; Religious Instruction in State Schools: An Agnostic View, Lewis G. Janes; Compulsory Education in the United States, III., William B. Shaw; Results under an Elective System, II., Richard G. Boone; Teaching Elementary Physics, Edwin H. Hall.
EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.—Sex in Education, Sir James Crichton-Browne.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 15, 1892.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S letter seemed carefully planned to put an extinguisher on the President's, and certainly it had the effect of doing so. In the first place, it is a document which can be read between the rising of the sun and the going down thereof, and, moreover, has considerable advantages in point of style over Mr. Harrison's extraordinary combination of a stump speech, a statistical report, a selection of clippings from a press-bureau, and a jumble of familiar editorials and "scare" articles taken from loyal Republican papers. Nor are Mr. Blaine's omissions unintentional. He expressly says that he "would not multiply issues," and so he sets aside deliberately a good part of the campaign material of the Republicans. First among the omissions is that of the names of the party candidates. This is doubtless accounted for in the "reasons which I have explained" to Chairman Manley. They were also explained to the country when Mr. Blaine threw his resignation of the State Department in the President's face, and thereby proclaimed his opinion that it was neither wise nor safe for the party to renominate Mr. Harrison. Next we observe a failure to refer at all to our glorious foreign policy, and a disposition to leave President Harrison to the exclusive enjoyment of the ex-Blaine Irishman whom he ostentatiously shouldered and attempted to make an issue in our politics. In like manner the Force Bill is put aside as one of those subjects to which Republicans ought not to allow themselves to be "diverted by our opponents." Steamship subsidies and poor, persecuted tin plate are also given the go-by.

Of the McKinley Bill Mr. Blaine says that, "for a time," it "failed to meet with popular approval," and even that "it was regarded with a certain degree of distrust by those who had always upheld the protective system." He has private information, however, that "a powerful reaction" has now set in. Mr. Blaine is naturally strong on the subject of reciprocity. He is rather hard on his own party, though, for having "refused to accept" the beneficent principle for so long a time, and compliments the Democrats for their "most generous appreciation of the question." This is only historical justice. On September 9, 1890, Senator Gray of Delaware moved a reciprocity amendment in nearly the precise words which Mr. Blaine had employed in submitting his original proposals to the Senate. Every Democratic Senator present voted for this amendment, and every Republican Senator present voted against it. This was a genuine measure of reciprocity, and the Republicans would not have it. It can scarcely be very soothing to them at present to be reminded of that fact by Mr. Blaine.

Both President Harrison and Mr. Blaine fall foul of the brief resolution in the National Democratic platform in favor of a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State bank notes. The former, having some hazy conception that the national bank system is coming to an end through natural causes, and that something ought to be done about it some time, says: "Changes may become necessary, but a national system of currency safe and acceptable throughout the whole country is the good fruit of bitter experience, and I am sure our people will not consent to the reactionary proposal made by the Democratic party." Mr. Blaine, with his usual recklessness and his real ignorance of finance, assumes that the national system is a permanent system, and that the people have merely to choose between that and the State system which existed before the war. Any other or better State system born of experience, intelligence, and accumulated capital is equally ignored by both, and it is quite likely that neither of them considers any other than the wild-cat State banks possible, although the old State Bank of Indiana, with its numerous branches, was as sound as the Bank of England, and, when compelled to wind up its affairs, paid every depositor, note holder, and shareholder in full. There have been many national banks with a worse record. In truth, the bad banks of the ante-war period, taking the country altogether, were the exception and not the rule; but, of course, the bad ones had the most notoriety, just as one case of cholera now has more notoriety than a hundred cases of sound health.

The September election in Maine is always watched with interest throughout the nation. The campaign this year has turned to some extent on State issues, especially the question of the prohibitory law, as the Democrats have come out strongly in favor of resubmitting the constitutional amendment, and, in case of its rejection, substituting a license law. The rising tide of public sentiment throughout the country against the policy of prohibition is felt also in Maine, although it is not likely that the reaction is as yet strong enough to effect a change in the Constitution. But if State issues have been more prominent in Maine than in Vermont, the Republicans have done all in their power to make the election a test of popular feeling regarding national affairs. Boutelle's Bangor *Whig and Courier*, for example, closed its last appeal to the faithful with these words:

> "All eyes are upon Maine, and she should be true to her past record of devotion to the great principles of good government. A Democratic vote is a vote in the interest of free trade and free silver; a vote for the Republican ticket is a vote for protection and honest money."

As we go to press, the returns of Monday's election are still incomplete, but indicate that the gain of the Democrats has been four times that of the Republicans as compared with their respective votes in 1890, when the total of course fell far short of the Presidential year. The same percentages applied to the remaining towns allow a Republican plurality of barely 12,000. The significance of this can be fully understood only by comparison with the record of similar September elections in Presidential years. We append a table giving these figures for each such election during the past twenty years, except 1880, when there was a fusion of Democrats and Greenbackers which elected a former Republican to the Governorship:

	Rep. vote.	Dem. vote.	Rep. plurality.
1872	71,917	54,701	17,216
1876	75,867	60,423	15,444
1884	78,912	59,061	19,851
1888	79,393	61,350	18,043
1892	68,000	56,000	12,000

It will be seen that the Democrats have this year polled within 5,000 of their full vote, while the Republican vote is more than 10,000 short of what was cast in the corresponding elections of each of the last two Presidential years. As a consequence, the Republican plurality will be unprecedentedly small—only about 12,000, against 18,000 in 1888 and nearly 20,000 in 1884. Compared with 1888, the Democratic vote now is within 9 per cent. of what was then cast, while the Republican vote has fallen off 15 per cent., or nearly twice as much. Of course, if the Democrats poll anything like their vote of 1888 throughout the United States, while the Republicans lose 15 to 20 per cent., as in Vermont and Maine, Cleveland will sweep the country.

A noticeable effect of the Vermont election has been the sudden discovery by the Republicans that, as their chief organ hastened to announce, "Reciprocity is a Great Issue." Unlimited high tariff and escape from foreign competition were dinned into the ears of the Vermont farmers, but their stolidity under the treatment, and their obstinate demonstration that they do not like the McKinley Bill any better now than two years ago, have forced the Republican managers to cast about for a more alluring battle-cry. Unfortunately, they have as their candidate a man who is not heartily in favor of reciprocity, and who no-

where in his letter of acceptance showed more clearly his pettifogging training and habit than in his references to the effects on our trade of the reciprocity arrangements. It is a pity that he had not seen a letter written to the *Commercial Bulletin* of September 2 by a merchant engaged in the South American trade, in which is the most complete exposure of the real workings of reciprocity. This writer shows that while there has been, in the past five months, a gain of 32 per cent. in our exports to the Spanish-American countries with which we have treaties (almost all of it being due to Cuba), there has been an increase of over 11 per cent. in our exports to the other countries in the same part of the world, and, on the other hand, a decrease of 43 per cent. in the case of those countries — Hayti, Colombia, and Venezuela — where "reciprocity" has taken on its real form of retaliation.

It is already apparent that the Republican platform did not go far enough in its efforts to identify protection with the interests of the workingmen alone. Its sole demand was for "duties equal to the difference between wages abroad and at home." On the question of immigration it simply called for "more stringent laws and regulations for the restriction of criminal, pauper, and contract immigration." But this bid for the labor vote has been found to be absurdly low, and accordingly it is being raised from time to time as the canvass progresses. In the platform of the Connecticut Republicans, adopted on Wednesday week, we read, for example:

> "We believe that the interests of the laboring men of this country demand that the tariff upon the productions of cheap foreign labor should be supplemented by the stringent prohibition of the importation of foreign paupers, criminals, and contract laborers; and that, if necessary, existing laws regulating immigration should be so amended as to further protect the American wage-earner against degrading competition *with imported cheap labor as well as the imported products of such labor.*"

This is a practical admission that the tariff of itself does not protect the workingman, and shows that the party of protection has been forced at last to abandon the position of which the late Congressman W. D. Kelley used to boast, that the only kind of free trade the Republicans wanted was free trade in labor.

Senator Sherman has written a letter, designed ostensibly to contradict a report that he was hostile to a protective tariff, which contains this decidedly lukewarm praise of the McKinley Law:

> "I have believed that as to certain items in different tariffs we have gone beyond the line of protection which is necessary to foster American industries. A few rates have been adopted that I think will exclude competition between foreign and American productions, and secure a monopoly to the American manufacturers. This I do not believe to be a wise policy. There are some details of the McKinley Tariff Bill that may be subject to this objection, but, on the whole, it is the fairest and best tariff, not only for revenue, but for protection, that has had a place on our statute-book."

There is very little sympathy for latter-day protection in that passage, for the main object of that system is to secure a monopoly of the market to the American manufacturers. "American markets for American goods" is one of the party slogans of the campaign, yet Mr. Sherman says he does not think that kind of policy is a wise one.

We shall see in the result of the election in the Fourteenth Ohio Congressional District how much appreciation the ex-soldier of Ohio has for services rendered him. This is the new district in which Mr. Michael D. Harter is a candidate for re-election, and he has against him the formidable majority of 1,692 votes. No man in Congress did more to defeat free coinage than he, and it is clearly within bounds to say that, if he had not been there, it would have passed the House, for our readers and the ex-soldiers of the country remember how very near it came to passing as it was, and the entire nation recognizes the great efforts, indeed the enormous amount of work, Mr. Harter did in compassing its defeat. In this fight he served the pensioners in a way they can hardly forget. Contrary to expectation, the Senate passed the free-silver bill, and when it went back to the House it was defeated signally. The country and the soldier may never know fully how much they owe to Congressman Harter. Mr. Harter's work in Congress last winter has saved the pensioners of his district alone $155,000 a year. There are enough Republican ex-soldiers in the district to turn the majority in his favor, and there are very many people in the district who say that the soldier vote will send him back to Washington triumphant.

Gov. Russell of Massachusetts has propounded a dilemma to protectionists of the McKinley type which it is safe to say they will let severely alone. If, when a duty is laid by the United States upon an imported article, that duty is paid by the foreigner, it follows that a "drawback" of 99 per cent. of the duty when the article is exported is a gratuity to the American exporter. To take the case of tin plate: it is now claimed by the protectionists that the Welsh manufacturers are selling it in this country at about the same price as before the McKinley tariff was adopted, and that the duty is therefore paid by them. But the Standard Oil Company, it is said, has received from our Government $1,500,000 as a drawback upon the tin cans in which their product is exported. If the foreigner paid the duty on the tin plate, the Standard Oil Company did not pay it. It is therefore a falsehood that the duty is paid by the foreigner, or else the Republican party is paying an enormous subsidy to a very great monopoly. It is also well to consider that if the foreigner does not pay the duty, the American people are taxed in order that the Standard Oil Company may sell oil cheaper to the inhabitants of foreign countries than to their fellow-citizens. How can the American tin-plate industry flourish under this competition? Unless our tin-plate-makers will sell their wares to the great exporters of canned goods at the cost of the Welsh tin plate without duty, these exporters will not buy of them. They will point out that if they buy the Welsh tin plate, they get back more than two cents a pound when they sell it again, while if they bought the American tin plate, they could not afford to pay so much for it by two cents a pound, because when they sell it they get no drawback. So far as the immense export trade in canned goods is concerned, the duty upon tin plate has no protective character. The operation of the drawback system deserves examination at the hands of the Democratic campaign orators.

The question has been raised at Washington, Who are to be considered immigrants under the recent Treasury circular? It must have been known at the time when the circular was issued that it contained no definition of the word "immigrants" which could serve as a guide for steamship companies. There is a difference between tourists and immigrants, yet if an immigrant calls himself a tourist, how is his own statement to be rebutted? The steamship companies generally considered the term to apply to steerage passengers, and stopped taking people in the steerage. Now the report comes that persons who are probably immigrants are taking passage in the second cabin, and the Treasury Department is stirred up on that account. This dilemma shows the importance of issuing an order in the right terms at the beginning—if there are any right terms for an unlawful act. It has been pointed out that the utmost authority granted by law is to exclude immigrants from infected ports. Public opinion, no doubt, sustains the order at the present time, but that circumstance does not give it additional validity, nor does it help to supply definitions for the word immigrant. Some idea of the difficulty surrounding this matter may be inferred from the fact that on the last trip of one of the White Star steamers a steerage passenger, when he came aboard, deposited $12,000 in money with the purser for safe-keeping. If this man was an immigrant, he might easily have come in the first cabin. Moreover, it is not our policy as yet to exclude one who brings $12,000 into the country.

The steps taken to keep the cholera out of New York have thus far been very effective, but they ought not to be exclusive. The policy adopted in the first instance was that of keeping all the passengers continuously on board the infected

ships, so that they were liable to become infected and die consecutively, their liability to contract the disease becoming greater with every day's detention, as they became more alarmed, and therefore weaker, by the contemplation of the scenes around them. This notable policy was in full course of execution until two private citizens came forward and offered the means to remove the passengers to a place of safety—Mr. Morgan buying a steamer outright for the purpose, and Mr. Corbin offering to make the old Sandy Hook railway station habitable at his own expense. Public opinion meanwhile had begun to weigh with some severity on the public authorities, and they made haste to accept these offers. Nothing more humbling to our civic pride can be imagined. If 1,500 men were imprisoned in a mine by an explosion of fire-damp, but were known to be alive, what efforts would be spared for their rescue? Even though they were all foreigners—Hungarians, Russian Jews, Armenians, or Chinese—every resource that wealth and skill could supply would be actively and incessantly employed for their release. Yet these 1,500, mostly our own neighbors and friends, have been fastened in close proximity to a plague and deliberately imprisoned there. And this has been done by authorities specially appointed and commissioned to look after the public health. Granted that the facilities were not at hand to dispose of these passengers in a place of safety, whose fault is it? We had had warning enough. We knew what was coming, or what we might expect at any moment. Yet no preparation whatever had been made to dispose of healthy passengers arriving on ships where there might be one person sick, or where there might have been one or more deaths on the passage.

The people of New York have in fact during the week had before their eyes a leaf out of the history of the middle ages. They read, among much other material of the same sort, that about 500 perfectly healthy persons, their own neighbors and blood relatives, who had been kept pent up for a week or more in close proximity to the cholera for the purpose of experiment—to see whether they would catch it or not—had at last been transferred to a non-cholera steamer for conveyance to an island nine miles distant from the towns of Babylon, Bay Shore, and Islip, and separated from them by a sheet of salt water which cannot be crossed by the customary means of conveyance in less time than an hour; that when the news of this intended transfer reached the inhabitants of these towns, they rose in fury and declared that no such transfer should be made, and that they would prevent it by force if necessary; that this determination was not confined to ignorant people, but was in fact started by the leading citizens and by the local Board of Health; that while no difficulty was experienced in finding cooks, waiters, stewards, chambermaids, sailors, carpenters, etc., who were willing to be brought into personal contact with the passengers, yet the Babylonians—we use this generic name for all of them—did everything in their power to drive them back to the place from which they had been with the greatest difficulty removed, and finally got an injunction issued by a judge against their landing; while on Monday night an angry mob of baymen forcibly resisted the landing, denying it even to the women and children, in spite of the most moving appeals.

Bear in mind that none of these people had been sick. They had been kept alongside the cholera for eight days, or for fourteen if we count the ocean voyage, yet none of them had contracted the disease. Therefore, according to the five-day-quarantine rule adopted in the beginning, these passengers were entitled to be landed. But the Quarantine Officer had meanwhile been upset by the twenty-day circular from Washington. This circular, prescribing twenty days "or more," has been adopted as a minimum, and now the question became not whether the passengers would catch the cholera in the course of time, but how long they could survive the other horrors of their detention. Another word is due to the Babylonians. The Surf Hotel at Fire Island is, as we have said, nine miles from the mainland. The *Normannia* and all the other so-called "pest-ships" have been nearer to the city of New York, all the time, than these *uninfected* passengers would be to Babylon and Islip if they were at the Surf Hotel. It is needless to say that the teeming population of Staten Island have been within a much shorter distance of these ships, and are at a much less distance all the time from the real pest-house on Hoffman Island; and yet they go about their business in a decent and orderly way. The Babylonians are not different from other people at heart, but they appear to have lost their heads altogether.

The public mind was so much engrossed last week with the cholera excitement that a most significant and encouraging development regarding the question of opening the World's Fair on Sunday failed to receive due attention. This was the action of the New York State Board of Woman Managers, which adopted, with but a single dissenting vote among the fifteen present, the following resolution, presented by Mrs. Frederick P. Bellamy:

> "Resolved, That the New York State Board of Woman Managers request that the Columbian Exposition be opened on Sunday for the benefit of all classes."

Inasmuch as the efforts of bigoted Sabbatarians to keep the Exposition closed on Sunday have received so much support from women who never stopped to inform themselves as to the merits of the case, it is most gratifying to find a body of representative women like this Board speaking so emphatically and unitedly on the common-sense side of the question.

An interesting comparison is drawn by the *Financial Chronicle* between the iron industry in Great Britain and that in the United States. For several years this country has produced more iron than any other, but in the first six months of 1892 it is computed that our consumption amounted to 5,200,000 tons, while the amount both consumed and exported by Great Britain was 1,400,000 less than this. The comparison requires to be modified in view of the great strike of the Durham miners, which probably accounts for the decrease from last year of a million tons in the British production. Still, if we examine the production for the last four years, it appears that the United States show a larger gain than Great Britain, and it is scarcely probable that our country will hereafter be second in this race. It is to be remembered, however, that for some years Great Britain has ceased lending to South America and Australia, and that these loans to a large extent took the form of iron.

It is too soon to know what additions to our knowledge are to be made through the success of Lieut. Peary's Greenland expedition, but it is gratifying to learn that expeditions of this character can be carried through as they are planned. With very moderate financial support, the exploring party seems to have accomplished practically all that it had laid out for itself, with no loss of life except through an accident of the character to which all Alpine climbers are exposed. The sledge journey of 1,300 miles made by two men and occupying three months is certainly one of the most remarkable feats of this description that have ever been accomplished, and suggests the possibility of extending Arctic discovery much further than had come to be considered practicable.

The working of republican institutions in Brazil had a characteristic manifestation in the recent election of a Congressman from the Federal District including the city of Rio de Janeiro. The official lists showed qualified voters to the number of 29,971, but the total vote cast was considerably under 2,000. Nor was this the result of an uncontested election in which there was no interest. The contest between the two leading candidates was spirited, and they came out within a hundred votes of each other. The capital city, moreover, is probably the place in the whole country where there is most intelligence among the voters and the greatest interest in politics. It may be imagined what the farcical character of popular elections is in the remoter and more ignorant regions.

THE VERMONT ELECTION.

VERMONT is a small State, and her inhabitants have the reputation of being very set in their opinions. Most people would probably say, at first thought, that there is hardly a commonwealth in the whole Union which was less likeiy to feel the first slow movements in the rising tide of public sentiment, and thus to give early indications of the way that an irresistible current was sweeping the country. Yet it is a fact, which a little study of the '*Tribune* Almanac' will establish, that for a quarter of a century the gubernatorial election of Vermont in the September of a Presidential year has foreshadowed the result of the national contest in the ensuing November; a large Republican majority for Governor being followed by a Republican victory, and a small Republican majority by a Democratic success. In September, 1872, the Vermont State election gave the Republican candidate 41,946 votes, and the Democratic 16,613—a Republican plurality of 25,333; and two months later Grant beat Greeley "out of sight." On the other hand, in 1876 the totals of the two parties were 44,723 and 20,988—a Republican plurality of only 23,735; and Tilden carried all of the doubtful States. In 1880 the Republican majority in Vermont's September election leaped up again, the two parties polling respectively 47,848 and 21,245 votes—a Republican plurality of 26,603; and Garfield carried the country. In 1884 the Republicans of Vermont showed the first effect of Blaine's nomination by giving their candidate for Governor only 42,524 votes, against 19,820 for the Democratic—a Republican plurality of but 22,704; and Cleveland was elected. In 1888, however, the pendulum swung far over to the other side, the Republicans casting the largest vote on record, 48,522, against 19,527 for the Democrats, which gave the Republicans the unprecedented plurality of 28,995; and Harrison was elected.

The State election of 1892 in Vermont was held on September 6. There was a special reason why the commonwealth should this year give a great Republican majority, for President Harrison has paid it the great compliment of giving it a place in the Cabinet in the person of ex-Gov. Proctor, whom he made Secretary of War. Mr. Proctor, who was elected Senator last year to succeed Mr. Edmunds, fully appreciated the importance and significance of the contest. In a speech delivered to his old neighbors in Rutland last month, he thus "laid down the law," and every good Republican organ has printed his words in large type ever since:

> "I wish to impress upon you the importance of the coming September election. It is not a State matter, but a national one. The vote cast for the State ticket next month is really your vote for President and the expression of your choice between the principles of the two great parties. The main question cannot be covered up by any State issues. If the Republican party maintains its average majority, it will be hailed as a Republican victory. If the Democrats reduce that majority, it will be heralded far and wide as an omen of Democratic success in the nation. You are individually responsible for a full vote for Fuller and Stranahan, and I believe you will do your duty and see to it that Vermont rolls up a handsome majority in September that will presage the election of Harrison and Reid in November."

The returns from the election are already sufficiently complete to show the result with perfect clearness. So far from there being "a handsome majority," or even the "average majority," for the Republican party, the majority is by far the smallest recorded in the September of a Presidential year during the past quarter of a century. The comparison with corresponding elections in the Septembers of previous Presidential years is as follows:

	Republican vote.	Democratic vote.	Rep. plurality.
1872	41,946	16,613	25,333
1876	44,723	20,988	23,735
1880	47,848	21,245	26,603
1884	42,524	19,820	22,704
1888	48,522	19,527	28,995
1892	39,000	19,000	20,000

These being the undisputed facts regarding the election, how do the Republican organs treat this unprecedented falling-off in their party's majority? The Philadelphia *Press* explains that there was "much indifference" among Republicans. But why indifference? If there is one State in the Union where Republicans should not be indifferent when asked to express their opinion on McKinleyism, it is Vermont, for the Boston *Journal*, the leading Republican organ of New England, declared a few days ago that "no State has profited more by the McKinley Tariff Law than Vermont. Its granite, its marble, its maple forests, and its farms alike have felt the stimulating influences." The New York *Tribune* says that "in 1888 the national campaign began early, and the wool issue was regarded as of momentous importance by the voters of Vermont." But is not the wool issue of even more importance in 1892, when a Democratic House has recently passed a free-wool bill? The Philadelphia *Press* says that there was a "failure to make an energetic campaign" on the part of the Republicans. But the Boston *Journal*, which is much better informed as to New England affairs, said in its editorial columns on September 1:

> "The immense crowd which turned out at Burlington Tuesday to listen to Gov. McKinley speaks well for the interest of Vermont Republicans in the present campaign. It is especially encouraging, as it does not appear that it is any isolated manifestation of enthusiasm. Other meetings, if not as large, certainly as earnest, have been held in various parts of the State. Nearly one hundred clubs have been organized by the Republican League in as many towns, and everything points to a vigorous attention to the election."

So the *Vermont Journal* said of McKinley's stumping tour: "Everywhere in the State he has been received with the greatest enthusiasm, listened to with the deepest interest, and left an impress that will weigh heavily against free-trade apostles in the coming elections." His "rally" at Burlington was "one of the largest political gatherings ever recorded in the history of the State." How heavily he weighed in that town may be seen from the election returns: in 1888 the Republicans cast 1,401 votes, but on September 6, 1892, they could muster only 1,016, while the Democrats increased their total from 1,014 to 1,106. McKinley had another tremendous meeting at Brattleboro, and weighed heavily on the wrong side again, depressing the Republican vote from 1,002 to 862. All this reveals not merely Republican apathy, but positive ingratitude, for McKinley told the Vermonters plainly: "There is not one of you who has not been blessed by this law [the tariff], and you know it."

The hollowness of much of the Republican talk about "a free ballot" is shown by the movement already reported under way in Vermont to repeal the law introducing the Australian system of voting. This system provides the best possible facilities for "a free ballot," enabling every man to vote as he chooses, without interference and even without the knowledge of any one else as to how he votes. The late election was the first ever known in Vermont in which every voter enjoyed perfect freedom of action in casting his ballot. The Democrats have always claimed that such a system would help their party, and the result justifies their confidence. No sooner is the result known than the Republicans attribute the falling-off in their majority to the Australian system, and call for its abolition. In considering this explanation it must be kept in mind that the Republicans always claim to be "the party of intelligence," and deride the Democrats as an ignorant set, so that, if a new system of voting makes it hard for ignorant men to vote, it should be the Democratic party which would suffer. If it is really true that 9,000 Republicans in Vermont out of 48,522 voting in 1888 are so ignorant that they remained away from the polls rather than display their ignorance, the prospect for the party is certainly a dreary one in States like Indiana, which have hundreds of thousands of Republicans, and which will vote under the Australian system this year for the first time in a Presidential election.

THE FUTURE OF SILVER.

PARADOXES never cease. At the moment when the price of silver is the lowest ever recorded, when our Government purchases threaten to swamp the national finances, when the International Conference is confronted with the question whether there is any way whatever of preventing silver from slipping into the same place as copper and nickel in the money of civilized nations, Dr. Suess comes bravely forward and writes a book that should cheer the

hearts of our despondent silver friends. Silver, not gold, says he, is the money of the future.

'Die Zukunft des Silbers,' just published by this scholarly writer, tells the world that the supply of gold is limited, and that its production must tend to decline; the consumption in the arts and for industrial uses must steadily rise; sooner or later, therefore, the amount of gold available for monetary uses will prove insufficient to supply the growing demand of civilized countries, and gold must cease to be the basis of their money systems. On the other hand, silver is not in so perilous a condition as the faint-hearted may think. True, its production has increased enormously of late; but the sources from which the great quantities have come in the United States and recently in Australia are not of a permanent sort. The geological and metallurgical conditions are such that these great finds give out after a few years of working, and there must before long be an end to the discovery of new ones. On the other hand, the old mines of South America promise a moderate but steady and permanent flow of silver, such as will supply the monetary systems of the world without gorging them. Eventually, therefore, we shall be forced to discard gold and adopt silver as the monetary metal. The events of the last fifteen or twenty years represent only an eddy in the great current that must in the end bring the world to a silver basis. Even international bimetallism could ward off the result only for a while. Our author agrees with those who regard international bimetallism, supposing it to be practicable, as only a temporary device. But he says it is a device not for saving silver for a couple of decades from the inevitable collapse, but for saving gold for a time from its inevitable expulsion from monetary use. Meanwhile, so long as the present anomalous state of things lasts, the gold-using countries suffer and writhe, and the silver countries prosper and rejoice.

All this has a familiar ring, and, summarized thus baldly, might come from some of our blatant silver organs. We must do Dr. Suess the justice of saying that he is a scholar of standing, writes simply and calmly, and spares us all claptrap. More than this, as a geologist he writes with some authority. His book is mainly on the geological and mineralogical conditions of the precious metals; and if conditions of this sort were decisive in determining the monetary future of silver and gold, he might be right. Doubtless it is true that for the future the supply of gold from the mines, available for monetary uses, will not grow rapidly, and may actually decline; and that the increase in the production and supply of silver is not likely to be long maintained at its present high rate. Doubtless, also, if metallic coin alone served the purposes of money in civilized countries, the needs of growing numbers and wealth could not be conveniently supplied from gold alone, and silver must be resorted to in order to prevent a heavy and probably distressing fall in prices.

The simple and obvious fact, however, is that metallic money plays a less and less important part in the machinery of exchange in advanced countries, and that therefore the conditions which determine the supply of the precious metals are becoming factors of less and less economic importance. All the various forms of credit —Government notes, bank notes, checks, and bank deposits — supplant metallic money for all large transactions in growing proportions, and cause gold to be used mainly as a basis on which credit rests, and as a medium for effecting that small remnant of transactions which must be settled by the transfer of actual coin. It may be argued that even for purposes of this sort the supply of gold ought to increase as the transactions that rest on it grow. True, perhaps, if the machinery of credit remained always the same. But that machinery develops and becomes more efficient, and tends steadily to diminish the proportion of coin that is called for. There is no indication that in the recent past the quantity of gold has been inadequate to supply all needs without embarrassment, or that in the visible future it will be so. On the other hand, silver is being relegated to a use substantially as a subsidiary coin, performing the services for moderate transactions which copper and nickel perform for small transactions. Possibly, silver is not the best ideal medium for such purposes; but it is here, and the financial difficulties of making any great change will keep it here for a long time to come. At all events, for limited use as subsidiary money, it is not very material whether the price of silver be high or low. The important thing is simply that too much of it be not coined or issued. If production increases as it has done in recent years, the main consequence must be that the price will fall until the mines begin to close or some other use for the metal is found—a process which is now going on under our eyes.

So far as the distant and ultimate future is concerned—and this is what Dr. Suess really has in view in his speculations—it is idle to worry or to make predictions. The time, perhaps, will come when the industrial use of gold and the wear and tear on the monetary supply will exceed the annual production, and we shall have to deal with an actually diminishing volume of gold money. Perhaps, too, after a couple of centuries, the production of silver will have greatly diminished, and the conditions for enlarging its use as money will be favorable. But then the civilized nations by that time may have done away with war, or developed into full-fledged socialism, or adopted a tabular standard of value and dispensed with coin money altogether, or done various things which we may now regard as probable or improbable. For the present we need not borrow trouble on these topics, or on the distant future of gold and silver. We may be content with that solution of the bimetallic question to which the civilized world has been slowly but steadily moving ever since the great fall in the value of silver began twenty years ago: gold as the standard, silver to supplement it for subsidiary uses. Just now, we in the United States, under the act of 1890, are going too fast and too far in the effort to find a large use for silver. But all the signs of the times point to an early repeal or modification of our present silver legislation, and to the acceptance of the situation as France and Germany and Austria have accepted it. The world will move along well enough under such a régime for as long a time in the future as it is humanly possible to make provision for.

A NEW DEPARTURE IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

THE year which marks the fourth of our Columbian anniversaries has lately been celebrated by the town of Quincy, Mass., as closing the first century of its corporate existence. In that period its interest in the shore along which it lies, in ships and the seafaring life, had been severed by the railroad as effectively as by nature in past ages, when the elevation of the New England coast made Quincy an inland site. Its population, meanwhile, steadily increased until the simple form of government by town meeting and selectmen became unworkable, and was perforce abandoned in favor of the city form. In January, 1889, the new order went into operation.

This is not so commonplace a circumstance as would appear upon the surface. It forms the burden of an address to his fellow-citizens by Mr. Charles Francis Adams on July 4, if "burden" can be associated with this writer's nervous and entertaining style—"The Centennial Milestone." The new charter he shows to have been framed mainly by two Harvard graduates, Josiah Quincy and Sigourney Butler, young men and lawyers both, after a serious study of the defects of existing municipal governments, and consultation with the deepest thinkers on the subject. A third Harvard man, Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, whose ideas are not unknown to our readers, was a weighty adviser, and his hand will be recognized in the project which the town finally adopted. We will briefly state that the guiding principle of the Committee was to make a non-political business government, with "a responsible single executive, and a council much in the nature of a board of corporation directors." To the Mayor was given "a larger and more arbitrary power within his department than had ever in the United States been confided to the executive head of any organization classed as political." He and his cabinet of

administrative officers appointed by himself

"are required to be present at all regular meetings of the Council, and to give such information as may be asked for as to the business of their respective offices; they are given the right to speak upon all matters relating to their offices, but without the right to vote. They are also required to place upon public record the reasons for every removal from office made by them. The Mayor may, further, be removed at any time by a vote of two-thirds of all the members of the Council."

This body consists of twenty-three members, chosen partly at large, but chiefly by districts, the original scheme having equalized the two classes. The popular amendment Mr. Adams regards as clearly unfortunate, and as perhaps the leading cause of the small satisfaction given by this branch of the Government in the three years of actual experiment. He advocates the abolition of all ward lines, and regrets that the Committee did not venture to incorporate a method of proportional representation.

Even so, however, he does not feel sure that the adoption of Quincy's new charter marks an era in American political development. The problem still remains, how to enlist the "best men" in the conduct of affairs; and he boldly comes out for compulsory municipal service, after the fashion of compulsory jury duty. He finds needful support, dear to the antiquary as well as to the political innovator, in the early annals of the town, when his own ancestor, John Adams, had either to pay a fine or accept the nomination of him made at town-meeting for surveyor of highways. Other examples in plenty are cited; some of the recalcitrant, like the future President, resigning themselves to the duty imposed upon them, while others paid the penalty prescribed. We understand that Mr. Adams has in mind popular election only, as (in Quincy) to the mayoralty, the school committee, and the council; not appointments by the Mayor or the heads of departments. Of compulsory voting, now advocated in some quarters, he takes no notice; and certainly if the choice of public officers could by habit or prescription be made to lie among the élite, the universality of the voting would be of secondary importance. But, as to the suffrage, Mr. Adams contemplates no limitation of it, and there appears to be no provision in the Quincy charter for a control of public expenditures by the taxpayers, as proposed by the Tilden Commission.

More will have been learned in ten years than in three of the success achieved by the Quincy reformers. In the meantime it is to be hoped that the outside course of political evolution will come to their aid. The breaking down of district lines in choosing State and national Representatives would make for them, and that this is possible in Massachusetts is shown by the non-resident candidacy of Dr. William Everett two years ago. Nothing, again, would do more to familiarize the voter with the business view of municipal administration than the growth of the same view with reference to the State administration. Mr. Adams insists that "the State is a political entity; the municipality, a mere business organization." This is true of the municipality, but it is not the whole truth about the State, which is also a business organization in every particular in which the town or city is. Ordinances and statutes which look to assessments, the levying and collection of taxes, the laying out of streets and railroads, to parks and reservations, the public health, the police, differ only in extent, not in kind. The initiative and supreme authority belong to the State in the passage of general laws, but it too has to "keep house." The *trust* reposed in a member of the State Legislature is precisely the same as that reposed in a selectman or an alderman, even if a higher type of intellect and training be required for a legislator's work; and it is a business trust—namely, to guard the interests of his employers, who bear the cost of government.

Now, one of the greatest evils in our Federal life is that men will persist in voting for Governors and members of the Legislature on grounds which nominally relate solely to Federal politics, whereas, in ordinary times, at least, a "Republican" or "Democratic" Governor is a pure misnomer. We cannot say the same of State Representatives or State Senators, and here the mischief lies. The Federal Constitution has committed to these men the charge of electing Senators of the United States. Hence the first consideration in their case is, not, What is their opinion about State policy? but, How will they affect the balance of power in Congress? This is an absurdity, and worse, but we must put up with it until we can amend the Constitution, unless a way can be devised to take the choice of Senators out of the hands of the Machine and give it to the people indirectly, without violating the present provision. Such a reform, relieving the would-be independent voter of any thought of national politics when voting for State officers—of "off-years" and Presidential years—would be a powerful solvent of party cohesiveness, and would permit townsmen and citizens to associate freely for State and local objects, while agreeing to differ when the national policy was at stake. For ourselves, we believe this a nearer and more practical end to strive for than compulsory municipal service. The "best men" will be found at the front just in proportion as the mass of the electors take a sound and enlightened view of the nature of all government. Raise the tone of the constituencies sufficiently high, and you will soon have the cultivated class who have turned their backs on politics, offering their services to the public. The names, even now, of Adams, and Bradford, and Everett, and Quincy, and Russell are of good omen for such a consummation; and this suggestive pamphlet, "The Centennial Milestone," just from the press, will be no mean instrument to that end wherever it is read.

THE EIGHT-HOUR MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.

THE influences which determine the course of English elections are to the American eye mysterious and past finding out. Newcastle, which returns two members, gave Mr. John Morley about 11,000 votes at the general election, and when he stood again raised the number to 13,000. The Conservative candidate at the general election had headed the poll with nearly 14,000 votes, while Mr. Ralli, who opposed Mr. Morley at the second election, got little more than 11,000. At the same time the total number of votes registered at the two elections was very nearly the same. It is absurd to say that the issues between the parties had changed within a month, and the causes of this extraordinary change in the sentiment of the constituency are inscrutable. If the issue that interested the voters were home rule for Ireland, Mr. Morley's vote should have been as great in the first as in the second election, perhaps greater, for the issue of the conflict was doubtful in the first place, while victory was assured in the second. Mr. Hamond, the successful Conservative candidate, is said to have been very popular, but Mr. Ralli was not at all an unpopular candidate. Upon the eight-hour question, however, there was a marked difference in the attitude of the candidates, and we should be glad to believe that Mr. Morley's bold attitude had something to do with his success.

It is to be borne in mind by American readers that the constitutions of all our States contain guarantees for personal liberty that the much-praised British Constitution does not. No American Legislature can forbid an adult citizen from working as long as he chooses. It is competent for a legislature to forbid a corporation which it has created from employing men more than a certain number of hours in a day, although it may be doubted if this prohibition would be sustained against an attack on the part of a workman who was hindered by it in his efforts to earn a living. At all events the power of our legislatures stops short when they are confronted with the inalienable right of the individual man to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." This is not true in Great Britain. The Parliament of that country has complete and unquestioned power to ordain that no British subject shall perform labor for more than eight hours out of the twenty-four; and what is known as the "eight-hours movement" is the endeavor to bring about the enactment of such a law.

It was demanded of Mr. Morley that he should promise to support a law of this kind, which promise he declined to make. He admitted the power of Parliament, and expressed his sympathy with all endeavors directed to the lightening of human toil; but

he maintained that it was uncertain that a majority of the workmen at certain trades were in favor of such a law, and that it was certain that in some trades a majority of workmen were opposed to it, and he asserted that under those circumstances the law ought not to be adopted. The argument which to an American audience would have been most effective of all—that, no matter what a majority of workmen at any trade wanted, they had no right to force those who differed with them to surrender their freedom, and that any law aiming at this result was oppressive and wicked—was not thought of either by Mr. Morley or by his "hecklers." The absence of a written bill of rights proclaiming certain immutable principles of liberty has allowed the minds of Englishmen to fall into much confusion upon these subjects, and the socialistic haze has so beclouded the vision of many of her economists that they have little idea of the perils upon which they are drifting.

On the other hand, Mr. Morley's opponent made satisfactory concessions to the eight-hour advocates. He did not see his way clear to an immediate adoption of the principle in all occupations, but he was ready to begin with some as an experiment—to give the miners an eight-hour bill if they wished it, and to extend it to trades which were harmful to health and dangerous to life. These expressions were upon the whole satisfactory to the eight-hour party, and their votes were therefore, it is to be supposed, cast against Mr. Morley. Newcastle being proverbially a mining community, it might have been expected that Mr. Morley's vote would have been smaller at the supplementary election than at the previous one. But, as we have seen, he came out nearly 2,000 votes ahead instead of over 3,000 behind. It is certainly a plausible view that the dangers of the eight-hour movement had come to be so generally understood as to lead many voters, who would have preferred to support a conservative candidate, to give their suffrages to a man who had the courage to withstand a clique of ignorant laborers.

But whatever encouragement may be derived from the result at Newcastle is dashed by the unexpected performance of the textile operatives of Lancashire. These working people have been hitherto distinguished by their opposition to the Eight-Hour Bill. They have maintained that it would be impossible for the mills of Lancashire to continue running if working hours there were limited to eight while on the Continent and elsewhere they were ten or twelve. All of a sudden they change their attitude, and now declare that it is necessary to limit production in order to get better prices for their product, and that the way to limit production is to limit working time to eight hours. The logical corollary to this would be that the supply of mills ought to be limited too, and this corollary has been added. No new mill is to be built in any place except "after a Board of Trade or a Parliamentary inquiry into the wants of the locality." It is an ominous change that has come over this important class of English workmen. They have been the mainstay of substantial industrial freedom, and if their support is to be taken away, the future of the English laborer becomes much less hopeful.

WHITTIER.

THE popular poet-laureate of this country passed away in peace on September 7, in the eighty-fifth year of his age. This longevity, and numerous and very recent biographies, have made the principal facts of his uneventful life well known to the public. Neither of the careers which he would fain have determined for himself was destined to be his. From journalism as from politics the farmer's son was turned back to that simple inspiration of poet which was confirmed in him, on discovery, by his neighbor, the editor of the Newburyport *Free Press*, afterwards the editor of the Boston *Liberator*. The friendship of these two men might have led the younger, as disciple, to become entirely absorbed in the agitation against slavery, in which he did in fact for a time do editorial service. But partly his political and partly his sectarian bias drew him away from Garrison at the time of the schism in the abolition ranks growing out of political and sectarian differences, though in after years they came together without bitterness and with their old affection. Moreover, the poet was physically unfitted

"to ride
The winged Hippogriff Reform."

He was all his life a victim of ill-health, having brought on neuralgia and headache by overwork in the early days of his journalism. For many years he could not write fifteen minutes at a time without a headache. A worthy grocer of Amesbury, whenever he heard this fact spoken of with compassion, used to dispute the sentiment with some vehemence; Mr. Whittier's ill-health having, as he thought, been beneficial to his fame by "preventing his engaging in any business," and thus turning him to poetry. The inference seemed to be that, with good health, Mr. Whittier too might have been a flourishing grocer, just as some of Sir Walter Scott's neighbors thought that he would have been "sae weel respeckit" had he stuck to the law and not wasted his time on poetry and novels. Be this as it may, it is certain that Mr. Whittier's delicate health was for almost all his life a drawback to continuous mental exertion, although care and watchfulness greatly benefited his general condition during his later years. This improved health, together with other causes, produced in him an increase, not a diminution, of sociability and freedom of intercourse as years went on. He became more frequently a guest at private houses, where nothing but an increase of deafness prevented him from being a most delightful companion. His shyness visibly diminished—a quality so marked in early life that it sometimes seemed a positive distress to him to be face to face with half-a-dozen people in a room.

This habit showed itself chiefly in what is called society; with men met for political or even business purposes he was more at home. He was for many years an active politician (in 1835 and 1836 he was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature), and was esteemed—though a poet—a man of excellent judgment in all public matters. He was a keen judge of character, was perfectly unselfish, and always appeared to look at affairs more with the eyes of a man of the people than with those of a student. Without making any words about it, he seemed held by early associations as well as principle to the point of view of the working class. His whole position in this respect was very characteristic of American life; had he lived in England and among the social restrictions of that more stereotyped society, he would perhaps have been simply some Corn-Law Rhymer, some Poet of the People. As it was, there was nothing to keep him from full identification with the most cultivated class, and yet he was always able to remain in full sympathy with the least cultivated. In this respect he was more typically national than our other bards. His liberal attitude was aided also by his training in the Society of Friends. Of this body Mr. Whittier was always a faithful member, though never narrow or technical in his spirit. In his youth his anti-slavery associations sometimes brought him into danger of discipline; and he used to say jokingly in his later years that the Society would gladly have then put upon him, would he but consent, all the committee work and the little dignities from which his position as a reformer had excluded him in his youth. He always held to the prescribed garb so far as the cut of his coat was concerned, but conformed to the ways of the world in his other attire. He did not use the "thee" to members of his own society alone, as is the case with some, but presented it in his intercourse with the world at large.

It is difficult to say whether in his life, as in Irving's, an early romance led the way to a career of celibacy. A few passages in his writings, but only a few, might bear this interpretation, while the view was discouraged by his nearest kindred. It is certain that in later life he sometimes permitted himself to express regret that he had never married, since all his tastes and habits were eminently domestic. He always appeared to advantage in the society of women. His manners had all the essentials of courtliness in their dignity and consideration for others, and while he had little small-talk, he had plenty to say about men and books; this being always said with sympathy and with quaint humor. Utterly free from self-esteem, he was always glad to keep the topic of conversation away from himself, and was quite disposed to rejoice in any evidences of obscurity.

He was a wide reader and had a tenacious memory; but he spoke no language except his own, nor did he—although he translated one or two simple French poems—read much in any foreign tongue. He never visited Europe. He used to say that in early life he had a great yearning for travel, but that after reading a book about any foreign place, he retained in his mind a picture so vivid that his longing for that particular place was satisfied. Yet, as Thoreau said that he had travelled a great deal—in Concord, so Whittier was familiar with New England and Pennsylvania, and has done far more than any poet (perhaps as much as all other poets together) to preserve the legends and immortalize the localities of these portions of our country. It is only necessary to look through the New England volumes of Longfellow's 'Poems of Places' to be satisfied of this. In his treatment of legends, his Quaker truthfulness comes in, and he generally produces his poetic effects while keeping close to history. But his great skill lay in discovery; everything he found was turned to account,

and he shared with Hawthorne the honor of demonstrating that the early New England life was as rich in poetic material as the Scottish.

Of his poetry it may safely be said that it has two permanent grounds of fame: he was the Tyrtæus of the greatest moral agitation of the age, and he was the creator of the New England legend. He was also the exponent of a pure and comprehensive religious feeling; but this he shares with others, while the first two branches of laurel are unmistakably his own. His drawbacks are about as plain and unequivocal as his merits. Brought up at a period when Friends disapproved of music, he had no early training in this direction and perhaps no natural endowment. He wrote in a letter of 1882, "I don't know anything of music, not one tune from another." This at once defined the limits of his verse and restricted him to the very simplest strains. He wrote mostly in the four-line ballad metre, which he often made not only effective, but actually melodious. That he had a certain amount of natural ear is shown by his use of proper names, in which, after his early period of Indian experiments had passed, he rarely erred. In one of his very best poems, "My Playmate," a large part of the effectiveness comes from the name of the locality:

> "The dark pines sing on Ramoth hill
> The slow song of the sea."

In "Amy Wentworth," another of his best, he gives to one of his verses the unconscious flavor of a Scotch ballad by using, as simply as a nameless Scottish minstrel would have used, the names at his own door:

> "The sweetbriar blooms on Kittery-side
> And green are Elliot's bowers."

These are the very names of the villages where the scene was laid, and even the Kittery-*side* is vernacular. Whittier sometimes prolonged his narrative too much, and often obtruded his moral a little, but, so far as flavor of the soil went, he was far beyond Longfellow or Holmes or Lowell. If he lost by want of ear for music, the result was chiefly injurious in that it impaired his self-confidence; and where he had trusted his ear to admit a bolder strain, he was easily overawed by some prosaic friend with a foot-rule, who convinced him that he was taking a dangerous liberty. Thus, in "The New Wife and the Old," in describing the night-sounds, he finally closes with—

> "And the great sea waves below,
> Pulse o' the midnight, beating slow."

This "Pulse o' the midnight" was an unusual rhythmic felicity for him, but, on somebody's counting the syllables, he tamely submitted, substituting

> "Like the night's pulse, beating slow,"

which is spondaic and heavy; but he afterwards restored the better line. In the same way, when he sang of the shoemakers in the best of his "Songs of Labor," he originally wrote:

> "Thy songs, Hans Sachs are living yet
> In strong and hearty German,
> And Canning's craft, and Gifford's wit,
> And the rare good sense of Sherman."

Under similar pressure of criticism he was induced to substitute

> "And patriot fame of Sherman";

and this time he did not repent. It is painful to think what would have become of the liquid measure of Coleridge's "Christabel" had some tiresome acquaintance, possibly "a person on business from Porlock," insisted on putting that poem also in the stocks.

Whittier's muse probably gained in all ways from the strong tonic of the anti-slavery agitation. That gave a training in directness, simplicity, genuineness; it taught him to shorten his sword and to produce strong effects by common means. It made him permanently high-minded also, and placed him, as he himself always said, above the perils and temptations of a merely literary career. Though always careful in his work, and a good critic of the work of others, he always talked by preference upon subjects not literary—politics, social science, the rights of labor. He would talk at times, if skilfully led up to it, about his poems, and was sometimes, though rarely, known to repeat them aloud; but his own personality was never a favorite theme with him, and one could easily fancy him as going to sleep, like La Fontaine, at the performance of his own opera.

Yet certainly few men of limited early training have brought from that experience so few literary defects as Whittier. He soon outgrew all flavor of provincialism, and entered into the thorough atmosphere of literature. The result is that when he uses a mispronunciation or makes a slip in grammar, it has the effect of an oversight or a whim, not of ignorance. Thus he always accents the word "romance" on the first syllable, as in

> "Young Romance raised his dreamy eyes;"

and in the poem "The Knight of St. John" has this bit of hopeless bad grammar:

> "For since the time when Warkworth wood
> Closed o'er my steed and I."

Yet these things suggest no flavor of illiteracy. A worse fault is that of occasional dilution and the reiteration of some very simple moral. D'Alembert said of Richardson's novels, once so famous, "Nature is a good thing, but do not bore us with her (*non pas jusqu'à l'ennui*)." Whittier never reaches the point of ennui, but he sometimes makes us fear that another verse will bring us to it; and yet, when he will, he can be thoroughly terse and vigorous. He is always simple—always free from that turgidness and mixture of metaphors which often mar the verse of Lowell. On the other hand, he does not so often as Lowell broaden into the strong assertion of great general principles. Lowell's "Verses Suggested by the Present Crisis" followed not long after Whittier's "Massachusetts to Virginia," and, being printed anonymously, were at first attributed to the same author. Whittier's poem had even more lyric fire and produced an immediate impression even greater, but it touched universal principles less broadly and is therefore rarely quoted, while Lowell's

> "Truth forever on the scaffold, wrong forever on the throne"

is immortal on the lips of successive orators.

But while this is true, it is also certain that there is room, even in the United States, for such a function as that of poet of the people; and here Whittier filled a mission apart from that of the other members of his particular group of New England bards. The difference was indeed ante-natal, and affords a most interesting study. Emerson, Longfellow, Holmes, and Lowell belonged more or less completely to what one of them described well enough as "Brahmin blood," representing traditions of hereditary cultivation, if not always of station or wealth. Their ancestors were to a great extent lawyers or clergymen, *gens de robe*. With the questionable exception of Father Batchelder, Whittier held a widely different ancestry. But here came in a new element of interest: he came of a race which had a culture of its own, namely, that implied in "birthright membership" of the Society of Friends. He could say for himself in good faith what Lowell said only from a dramatic attitude:

> "We draw our lineage from the oppressed."

Nor was it from the oppressed alone, but from those who had suffered in a spirit so lofty and with such elevation of purpose as to yield through transmitted spiritual influence many of the results of the finest training. No one appreciated better than he the essential dignity of the early New England aristocracy—he whose imagination could trace back his heroine's lineage through the streets of Portsmouth, N. H.:

> "Her home is brave in Jaffray Street,
> With stately stairways worn
> By feet of old Colonial knights
> And ladies gentle-born.
> . . . . . .
> "And on her, from the wainscot old,
> Ancestral faces frown—
> And this had worn the soldier's sword,
> And that the judge's gown."

But what was all this to him who had learned at his mother's knee to go in fancy with William Penn into the wilderness, or to walk with Barclay of Ury through howling mobs? There is no better Brahmin blood than the Quaker blood, after all. It was, then, as from kinsman to kinsman that Whittier's last verses were addressed to Oliver Wendell Holmes.

IN THOMAS HARDY'S COUNTRY.—II.

West Lulworth, August, 1892.

As to the possible excursions from this point as a centre, a complete list would necessitate a history of Dorsetshire; but, taking only those which may be done easily in a day, on foot, by means of a pony or donkey cart, or perhaps by going a few miles in either direction from Wool on the London and South-western Railway, it will be evident that the sight-seer who is not content with nature will find much of interest.

A road going to the east passes through the village of Knowle, with a little church still preserving the "leper slits" which, in ancient days, permitted those afflicted with leprosy to stand without the walls and yet command a view of the high altar and the officiating clergyman. The road leads into the town of Corfe, whose narrow streets, thatched and gabled cottages, and ancient architecture have remained untouched and unaltered for so many years that it seems to be practically the same borough which, "with all its liberties, privileges, regalities, etc.," was granted by Queen Elizabeth to Sir Christopher Hatton. It is a veritable bit of the middle ages, but it was even then gray and hoary with years, as it was coeval with the castle whose magnificent ruins overhang it and are associated with the usual ghastly but fascinating memories of blood, battle, and crime. Edward the Martyr was murdered here in 978 by Elfrida, as he drank his stirrup cup. Peter the Hermit was first immured here and then hanged outside the walls. Twenty-two nobles of Poitou and Anjou were starved to death here by John. Edward II. of England was imprisoned here until it was convenient to murder him elsewhere; and so on down through the centuries, until the castle passed in 1634 into the possession of Sir John Bankes, then Attorney-General for Charles I., was bravely and successfully defended by his wife against the attacks of the Parliamentary forces, but finally through treachery fell into their hands and was de-

molished, by order of the Commons, in 1646. It and the village of Corfe are still in possession of the Bankes family, who own much land in the surrounding district. The feeling of intimate and close relationship with their acres, the love of their own particular portion of English soil, which the landed gentry here have had so strongly for so many hundreds of years, must be greatly fortified by such a history; and although the passage of these great estates into the hands of the successful merchants and manufacturers of the present day is doubtless an evidence of political progress, it is at a sacrifice of some of the romance and poetry which have always made England most attractive to Americans.

Mention, at least, should be made of Dorchester (the Durnovaria of the Romans, and the "Casterbridge" of Hardy), with the best preserved Roman amphitheatre in England; Abbotsbury, with the picturesque "swannery" of Lord Ilchester, the only place of the sort remaining, where, among winding canals edged with pampas-grass, bordered by brilliant beds of peonies and poppies, and opening into a lagoon of salt water behind Chesil Beach, one thousand swans are reared, fed, and cared for; the beach itself, seventeen miles long, one to two hundred yards wide, and forty to sixty feet high, an enormous mass of pebbles of white spar only paralleled at one other place in the world; Lyme Regis, another ancient town of quaint houses and narrow, winding streets, running up and down hill by the sea edge; Weymouth, the favorite watering-place of George III., with a bay flatteringly said to resemble that of Naples, and really rivalling it sometimes in blueness of sea and sky; Portland, a gloomy peninsula looming up at sea to the south and west, capped by the great convict prison of England, and containing side by side on its eastern cliffs the ruins of a castle so old that its origin is lost in the mists of antiquity—old when it was captured from King Stephen, for the Empress Maud, in 1142; and a modern castle built by Wyatt at the end of the last century for John Penn, Esq., a grandson of William Penn. Seen from the windows of "Pennsylvania Castle," the ruined walls of the keep of "Rufus Castle," pierced by slits for the arrows of the garrison and covered with ivy, figured and described as old three hundred years ago, add much to the foreground; while at the foot of the cliff a ruined church and the gray, irregular, decaying tombstones of a deserted graveyard dating back to Norman times complete a picture which, framed in the blue of the sea and sky, is simply exquisite.

On the way to and from these and other places in this region there are endless bits of landscape and spots of historical association or of quaint local interest, which I have neither space to enumerate nor ability to describe. The equestrian statue of George III., 174 feet high, made a hundred years ago on the side of a hill by cutting away the turf until the underlying chalk was laid bare, and kept in good condition until the present day, is a curious example of both the loyalty and affection of the yokels of that time for a personage who was on the whole about as dull, unattractive, and uninteresting as any who have figured in English history; and of the faithfulness to tradition of their descendants of this day, who still keep the turf cleaned and the grass cut around this extraordinary figure, which can be seen for miles away in every direction, and even from far out at sea. Impressed upon our memories are also the Hardy Monument, said to be the scene of 'Two on a Tower'; a "garden gate" at Poxwell, of the time of Charles I., with overhead chamber, outside stair, and ivy-covered walls, which even the least romantic can imagine to hold the echoes of trysts and meetings and farewells of two and a half centuries; an oak-shaded, flower-bordered lane at Osmington, a perfect gem of English rural landscape; an old church at Chidcock, with gargoyles, buttresses, and squat tower; an inn at Charmouth, which concealed Charles II. after the battle of Worcester; a yew at Winfrith, of such extravagantly aged aspect that it must surely have profited in its youth by the rain that followed Hastings, as it might in its gnarled and twisted and contorted but sturdy old age by that which preceded Waterloo.

One day we follow in the footsteps of Mr. Gay, in his journey from London to Exeter many years ago:

"Thro' Bridport's stony lanes our route we take,
And the proud steep descend to Morcombe's Lake;
On unadulterate wine we here regale,
And strip the lobster of his scarlet mail."

Another day we pass on

"The swellen downs, wi' chalky tracks
A-climmen up their zunny backs,
That hide green meads and zedgy brooks
An' clumps o' trees with glossy rooks,
An' hearty vo'k to laugh an' zing,
An' parish churches in a string,
Wi' tow'rs o' merry bells to ring,
An' white roads up athirt the h'lls."

Another, we sail out ten miles to leave some London papers for the crew of the Shambles Light-ship, anchored off a dangerous portion of the coast of Portland; or, skirting the coast, we stop at the hamlet of Ringstead, where we hold converse with an ancient, sunning himself on the bench before his house, which constitutes just one-third of the village, and from which he has never been far away. He has seen a railway train once or twice during his perilous journeys six or eight miles inland; he has never been to London nor wanted to go. He was only five years old in 1815, when Waterloo was fought, and therefore remembers but dimly having heard of it; but, fortunately, he was fourteen at the time of the great high tide of 1824, and was thus provided with ample food for thought and conversation for the remainder of his eighty-two years. It may be added that he was as contented, as we say at home, "as a clam at high water," and in the matter of intellectual activity the comparison would do the latter no marked injustice.

For those who, like ourselves, are fortunate enough to have good friends familiar with the region, and keenly alive to its natural beauties and historic associations, weeks may be spent in making such daily excursions of a few hours each; nor should it be forgotten that, if seized by the spirit of unrest which characterizes most American travellers, the temporary resident of Lulworth desires a larger field of activity, he has within easy reach—a few hours by steamer, coach, or rail—the wooded recesses of the New Forest, the barren heaths and rugged "Tors" of Dartmoor, the flowers and fertile fields of Devon (which disputes with Dorset the title of the "fairest county of England"), the bleak but picturesque coast of Cornwall, and, but little further removed, the varied scenery of the Isle of Wight, the Channel Islands, and the Scilly Islands, any of which can be reached in less than a day.

I have already spoken of the ease with which we settled ourselves here. I desire to add, in conclusion, that it is not only comfortable and interesting to keep house here, but it is cheap. There are few householders or housekeepers of moderate means who do not, when summer approaches, have to consider not only where they would like to go, but also where they can afford to go. It may interest them to know that such houses as those occupied by our friends and ourselves may be rented for from $15 to $20 per week; that a good London cook may be had for $4 to $5 a week—not a *cordon bleu*, but nevertheless an excellent cook; a "house and parlor maid" (waitress and housemaid) costs $2.50 a week; meat and milk are about the same price as in Philadelphia or New York; vegetables are cheaper; mushrooms, lobsters, fish may be had almost for the asking; wines and malt liquors are, of course, much cheaper; cigars are to the cultivated taste unsmokable. The cost of hiring horses and labor is usually much less than at home. Four trunks and much small baggage are brought six miles over a hilly road for four shillings (one dollar); a pony and cart for the day is supplied at the same price; a pair of horses, a break or wagonette, and a driver cost about a shilling a mile; a fisherman goes out for a half day, sails a boat, keeps the lines in order, baits and unhooks fish for the ladies, etc., and, when asked his fee, wants to know if "a 'alf-crown" (62 cents) is too much! An upright piano is hired for two months and is sent fourteen miles across country and the same distance back again—charge, including cartage, £2 ($10.00). The entire expense of a small family for an average week, including the rent of the cottage, the wages of servants, the food and wines, the hiring of boats, horses, and wagons, the entertainment of one or two guests, may be put down at about £10 ($50). It could doubtless be made much less; but these figures will serve to indicate in a general way the economy of such a method as this of spending the summer. I have tried to show that in addition it is an attractive place, even to those who do not have to consider the details of their expenditure.

The people themselves are hearty, plain, simple-minded, hospitable folk, well deserving the adjective "homely" in its English sense, which is altogether complimentary. They speak a dialect which at its broadest is at first almost unintelligible, but gradually becomes more and more easily understood. Both their personal characteristics and their speech are well and fairly represented by the Dorsetshire poet Barnes (from whom I have already quoted) in the following verse:

"If you in Do'set be a-roamen,
An' ha' business at a farm,
Then woon't ye zee your ehle a-foamen,
Or your cider down to warm?
Woon't ye have brown bread a-put ye,
An' some vinny cheese a cut ye?
Butter?—rolls o't!
Cream?—why, bowls o't!
Woon't ye have, in short, your vill,
A-gliëd wi' a right good will?"

As to weather, the maximum temperature in our drawing-room has been 66 degrees F., the minimum, 62 degrees F. We are now having our first wet and stormy day. A strong southeast wind is blowing, and whistles around the cottage, beating the rain in sheets against the diamond panes of the windows and bringing with it the noise of the surf against the foot of the cliffs; but with a cheerful English coal-fire in the grate, a French novel, and an American cigar, a condition of what might be called cosmopolitan comfort is easily attainable. A carved and winged leather chair, big enough for Henry VIII., and possibly contemporaneous with him, procured from a corner of Woolbridge Manor House itself, by the expenditure of a trifling amount of American money (and transported six miles across the hills at an expense of one English shilling) keeps off draughts and conduces to physical inaction. The combination of outside weather and inside comfort must be held responsible for the length of this communication, which

you may regard as personal or may inflict upon your readers, as you deem best.

J. WILLIAM WHITE.

Correspondence.

A TARIFF ACCOUNTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments on the Homestead affair you have suggested that something akin to a partnership relation exists in the protected industries between employer and employee as regards those benefits conferred upon them jointly by the tariff. Does not the incident, or tragedy, together with Mr. Frick's refusal to disclose to the Congressional Committee what profits the company was making, awaken also the inquiry, What right had Mr. Frick to withhold the information sought?

The protectionist theory now is that tariffs should be levied chiefly, not for revenue, but in the interest of certain favored industries. If we concede that it is sound public policy to turn money by legislation into the pockets of individuals or private corporations, whether the money be withdrawn from the public Treasury or from any lawful custody where it would remain except for such legislation, the question of quantity, of more or less, still remains for adjustment. So with the question of application or distribution of the fund. If a tariff may be too low, it may also be too high. The Government is charged with the duty, which it owes to the whole people, of determining the true rate, neither too low nor too high, at which tariffs shall be imposed. How can it discharge this duty unless it can investigate minutely the conditions and the interests to be affected?

If pensions are to be granted, a method of ascertaining the just claims of each applicant is prescribed along with the grant, and the amount to be awarded is carefully limited. If a Soldiers' Home is to be maintained, the appropriation is made commensurate with an ascertained want, and the Government sees to it that the money reaches the parties intended to be benefited. If the "poor Indian" is to be aided so that his unprotected industry shall not lead him into embarrassment or bankruptcy in competition with his white neighbor, a disbursing officer is provided, and only so much is given as the occasion calls for. The famous Blair Bill to promote the education of our Southern colored population provided for a disbursement that was considered by the friends of that measure adequate to insure the use of the money to be granted for the purposes intended. When valuable franchises were granted to the national banks, their business was subjected to the inspection of an official bank examiner. The expenditures for rivers and harbors, in theory at least, are measured by public necessity and disbursed with great exactness. All Governments, I believe, retain the power of visitation in the case of eleemosynary institutions founded or supported, in whole or in part, by public benefactions.

In nearly all these cases accounts are kept and the records are at all times accessible to the officers of the Government. The protected industries are the wards of the Government (shall I say infant or incompetent wards?) as much as any of the public or charitable interests just enumerated. Why should not the Government possess the power to call for books and papers, place its wards under oath and examine their ledgers? If these wards obstruct the Government in this investigation, they forfeit in the forum of morals all claim to its paternal care. Law ought not to give what morals withholds.

A system may be founded in error and yet be tolerated a long time because the public are used to it or are prejudiced in its favor, or because it may seem inconvenient to change or abolish it. A really beneficent system may be so defenceless against abuses as to speedily render it intolerable. Whether protection be the one or the other of such systems, two conclusions seem to be fairly deducible from the action of the Government in other matters:

First, it ought to be made a misdemeanor for any person to contribute to any political campaign fund any portion of the revenues derived from an industry aided by the Government. This provision should apply to those who receive bounties directly from the Treasury as well as those who are permitted to levy taxes on their fellow-citizens by means of tariffs.

Second, the Government ought to collect the information it needs in order to frame its tariff bills, in its own way and at its own expense. The secret work of the lobby is abhorrent. The work done by our consular service will not be accepted because it is partisan, desultory, and fragmentary; because it is largely done by incompetent and untrained hands and minds. The collection of information should be continuous and thorough. A commissioner should be kept constantly in Europe studying wages, the rate of interest, and the cost of materials and of living. Another expert should be constantly studying the question of ocean and inland transportation and insurance. Another at home should examine into wages, profits, and all the other cognate questions, and he should be clothed with power to compel the production of the necessary evidence. The appointment of these commissioners should be regulated by civil-service rules. Their tenure of office should be either during good behavior or for a long term, and their reports should, from time to time, be published and distributed at the expense of the Government.

L. J. NASH.

MANITOWOC, WIS., September 5, 1892.

[Our correspondent will find in the *Bulletin* of the American Steel and Iron Association for September 7 a defence of thirteen Pittsburg companies or corporations, and these the largest, which withhold, as was alleged in a Washington despatch, information "of vital importance" to Superintendent Porter for the issuance of the statistics of manufactures in Pittsburg. The *Bulletin* says the manufacturers in question take the ground that some of the interrogatories are "unnecessary and inquisitorial."—ED. NATION.]

THE MISLEADING MAINE BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your criticism of the Maine Ballot Act in the *Nation* of September 1 (No. 1418, p. 157), you make some assertions and draw some conclusions that seem entirely incorrect in fact and partisan in feeling, and go far towards confirming the theory of the many people who assert that the *Nation* is a party organ rather than an independent journal.

You say: "In all laws of the kind, except that of Maine, the blank spaces for the marks are placed before the names of the candidates—that is to say, to the left of them." Now I know not what the true theory may be, but to us here in the semi-cultured Northwest it has seemed that the proper place to indicate the voter's choice is at the right of the candidate's name rather than at the left of the office for which he is running. The only ballot acts which I have at hand are those of Wisconsin and Minnesota. That of Wisconsin (Ch. 379 Laws of 1891) was passed by the Republican Legislature of 1889, and amended by the Democratic Legislature of 1891, in such a way as to introduce the party-group modification; and, so far as one can judge by your description and diagram of the Maine ballot, ours is precisely like it. The Minnesota Act (Ch. 4 Laws of 1891) does not have the party-group feature, but provides for the mark at the right, and is substantially like the laws of Maine and Wisconsin, so far as the form of the ballot is concerned.

I am not a Democrat, and have not that abiding faith in the intelligence and virtue of the Democracy which characterizes many persons—and some otherwise independent newspapers—but I have sufficient confidence in the intelligence of the Democrats of Maine to feel certain that they will not be misled by the ballot described in the *Nation*. It would rather appear that the *Nation* has been deceived into the discovery and exploitation of a political mare's nest.

Very truly yours,

J. E. MCCONNELL.

LA CROSSE, WIS., September 3, 1892.

[Our comments upon the Maine ballot were based upon the diagram of it which we published and which was copied from a Maine newspaper. If our correspondent will read those comments again, he will find that we said that "some of the laws have the marks placed after the names, but the blank spaces are so arranged that a mistake is impossible." The blank spaces on the sample Maine ballot were so arranged that a mistake was easy and natural, and it was towards this aspect of it that our criticism was directed. The Minnesota law, like the Massachusetts law, provides for alphabetical arrangement of the names on the ballot, and puts after each name a blank square in which the mark is to be made, thus rendering any mistake impossible. The Wisconsin ballot has the space for marking placed after the ballot, but, unless we are very much mistaken, the groups of candidates are much more completely separated than was the case in the sample Maine ballot. If they are not, the law is in need of amendment. —ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Maryland the blank spaces for the marks on the official ballots are required by law to be on the right, that is, after the name, as is the case in Maine. The Democratic tickets are here always placed on the extreme left of the official ballot, and get whatever advantage there is from such an arrangement. I do not think that it amounts to much, however, although at first the Maryland Republicans, like the Maine Democrats, feared that it would. There are serious grounds of complaint against the workings of the ballot law in this State, but the requirement that the mark shall be placed after instead of before the name of the

person voted for has not proved in practice to be one of them. Very respectfully,

JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., September 6, 1892.

TWO OF NATURE'S NOBLEMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: George William Curtis was of such noble and distinguished character that mistaken statements as to facts connected with his career are deplorable and call for correction. One of our great morning dailies states that Mr. Curtis was a member of the firm of Dix, Edwards & Company, and paid the debts of that insolvent firm; another states that *Putnam's Magazine* failed, and that Mr. Curtis paid the debts of that enterprise. Neither of these statements as to Mr. Curtis is true.

After Dix, Edwards & Company and the Putnams failed, Mr. Curtis and a Mr. Miller established a publishing house under the firm style of Miller & Curtis. Mr. Francis G. Shaw, Curtis's father-in-law, became a special partner therein. Owing to some oversight on the part of the lawyers who drafted the papers, as to a proper publication of the limited copartnership, the creditors of Miller & Curtis informed Mr. Shaw, subsequent to the failure of Miller & Curtis, that they intended to collect all deficits from him, as a general partner. Mr. Shaw made good all such deficits, and Mr. Curtis thereafter reimbursed Mr. Shaw, taking the whole load upon his own shoulders. He accomplished the task after years of arduous labor.

With both parties, Mr. Shaw and Mr. Curtis, it was a case of *noblesse oblige*. Mr. Shaw attempted no legal defence; Mr. Curtis did not entertain the idea of taxing the generosity of his wife's father. Both men were the possessors of minds wholly imbued with absolute honor. That such minds have existed and do exist is the glory of our past and the hope of our future. CHAMPION BISSELL.

NEW YORK, September 1, 1892.

SHELLEY MEMORIAL SUBSCRIPTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Publicity has been given to details of the celebration, at Horsham, Sussex, England, of the centenary of Percy Bysshe Shelley, August 4, upon which day addresses were made, and a memorial tablet, bearing the poet's name, etc., was placed in the parish church.

The Shelley Committee, headed by Lord Tennyson, includes upon its list the names of George Meredith, W. Morris, Prof. Max Müller, Prof. Dowden, Prof. Jebb, Leslie Stephen, Stopford A. Brooke, Edmund Gosse, William Sharp, Theodore Watts, W. Besant, T. Hardy, Sir F. Leighton, Henry Irving, and other well-known representatives of letters and the arts in Great Britain. It has been decided that the most fitting memorial to the poet will be a "Shelley Library and Museum," to be established at Horsham, near the place of his nativity.

The library will include, in addition to general literature, all such works as may be specially connected with Shelley. In the museum a home will be found for personal relics of the poet.

To provide the needed funds, a call is made for subscriptions, and the readers and lovers of Shelley throughout the English-speaking world are invited to contribute. Any sums which may be sent to us, by check or postal-order, will be duly remitted to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. James Stanley Little of Horsham. Receipts will be promptly given to subscribers, and a public acknowledgment will be made from time to time in the literary and daily journals.

Contributions may be forwarded to either of the undersigned American members of the Committee.—Respectfully yours,

EDMUND C. STEDMAN,
64 Broadway, New York city.
RICHARD WATSON GILDER,
33 East 17th Street, New York city.

Notes.

THE announcement that Dr. Elliott Coues is preparing a new edition of Lewis and Clarke's narrative of their expedition to and beyond the Rocky Mountains, to be published in this city by Francis P. Harper, gives the perfect satisfaction which absolute fitness in the performer for his task always inspires. Dr. Coues has already published an exhaustive bibliography of this famous work. And since we are mentioning his name, we will call attention to an illustrated article of his, "Can Ghosts be Photographed?" in the September number of the *California Illustrated Magazine*. Dr. Coues does not answer this question, but he exposes effectively the humbug of the so-called spirit photographs, and declares: "I have yet to see one which, when I had ascertained all the facts in the case, did not prove to be bogus —a mere sham!" In this matter he explicitly differs from the too credulous Prof. Alfred Russel Wallace.

That a fourth edition of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Superstition and Force' should be called for is a gratifying evidence of appreciation by the most thoughtful part of the reading community. It has been laboriously revised by the author, and is now passing through the press. It will be published next month by Lea Brothers & Co. Mr. Lea's 'Formula of the Papal Penitentiary,' which has been unavoidably delayed, will appear soon afterward. In the background of preparation is a 'History of Auricular Confession and Indulgences,' for which a wide vogue may be anticipated.

'Memories of the Professional and Social Life of John E. Owens,' the actor, by his wife, with twenty illustrations, is in the press of John Murphy & Co., Baltimore.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish 'Christianity between Sundays,' by the Rev. Geo. Hodges of Pittsburg.

Macmillan & Co. promise a new edition of Andrew Lang's 'The Library,' a book all the more in request because out of print; a few copies will be printed on large paper. In the style of 'Cranford' and the 'Vicar of Wakefield' will be a new edition of 'Sir Roger de Coverley,' illustrated likewise by Hugh Thomson. In November will appear the first of the "Dryburgh Edition" of the Waverley Novels, from the interleaved copy on which Scott made his last corrections, and with notable illustrations.

"The Bookman's Library" is the alluring title of a series of volumes about to emanate from the office of the London *Bookman*. The first will be 'The Poetry of the *Dial*,' arranged under the names of the authors, from a copy marked by Emerson in the possession of Mr. Alexander Ireland. The second will be the Complete Works of Emily Brontë, in which 'Wuthering Heights' will be reprinted from the original edition, as will her poems. The *Bookman* completes its second volume this month, and has all the marks of a sound vitality.

Two more of the ten volumes of which Mr. Reginald Brimley Johnson's dainty edition of 'Jane Austen's Novels' will consist, have been issued, viz., Nos. iii. and iv., 'Pride and Prejudice' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). Each has its three vignettes and the prepossessing binding of its predecessors.

Though the yachting season is drawing to a close, we will not omit to record the first issue of 'The Official Register of American Yachting,' compiled by William B. McClellan (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). It assembles in one book the fleet lists of the yacht clubs of America. The yachts are arranged in club-groups, and the usual particulars of dimensions, age, etc., follow the name of each yacht. The book is a convenient shipmate for yachtsmen, is handsomely printed, and but little encumbered with advertisements. The list of private signals is very incomplete, and adds scarcely anything to the usefulness of the book, which has to compete with the older 'American Yacht List,' now in its eighteenth year (New York: Thomas Manning).

Ever larger becomes the bulk of the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' and that just issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* fulfils the twentieth year of this indispensable bound volume of catalogues of books now in print.

The twenty-first volume of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" is M. Réne Millet's 'Rabelais,' with a photogravure from the portrait at Geneva. M. Millet's book is less a biography than a study, less an account of the author's works than an admiring criticism of them; and for English readers, therefore, it is perhaps less likely to be serviceable than was Mr. Walter Besant's book, which was almost the only acceptable volume in Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers." It is announced that the volume on Froissart will be written by Mme. James Darmesteter, formerly Miss A. Mary F. Robinson.

'Le Crime et la Peine,' by Louis Proal (Paris: Félix Alcan), is written as a review and refutation of the theories advanced by the anthropological school of criminalists. The author is a counsellor-of-law in the Court of Appeals at Aix, and his work has been crowned by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences. His point of view is that of the practical lawyer, and his object is to show the falsity and danger of regarding crime as a physiological or social fatality, and of substituting physic and reform for swift and sharp penalties. His experience as a practitioner of law and a judge has convinced him that crime is not an organic infirmity, or, in any proper sense of the term, a pathological phenomenon which physiology and anatomy can explain, but results from "a depravity of the will." The so-called criminal type, which Lombroso has taken so great pains to construct, Proal regards as a fiction, and dismisses all the physical anomalies and abnormities ascribed to it as chimerical. Prof. Lombroso, by the way, is about to publish a work entitled 'Donna Delinquente,' or, Woman as a Criminal, a companion to his 'L'Huomo Delinquente'; and a volume on saints, in which the whole subject of hagiology will be investigated from a psychopathological point of view.

'Bestie Delinquenti' is the subject of a recent work by another Italian, Carlo D'Addosio, published at Naples by Luigi Pierro, with a preface by Ruggero Bonghi. It deals, of course, with the old and hardly extinct superstition of holding brute beasts morally responsible for their injuries to the human species, of formally trying them, and of executing judgment upon them. This is a curious chapter in the history of the human mind, of cleri-

calism and of jurisprudence, and has been often explored. D'Addosio's work is said to be both learned and light of style.

We have received from Signor Chilovi, the efficient Director of the National Central Library of Florence, a description of the new building for that important institution, whose collections embrace upward of 400,000 printed volumes and 380,000 pamphlets, 17,000 MS. volumes, 950 parchments, and 190,000 pieces of autograph letters, documents, etc., etc. This library receives the copyright deposits of all works issued in Italy. It lends books in the city and out of town. It is open day and evening, but books used in the evening must be ordered in the daytime. The new structure will be lighted by electricity, and will employ the telephone, elevators, and all modern aids to quick communication and delivery, for some of which Signor Chilovi acknowledges his indebtedness to our new National Library at Washington. It will have nearly four miles of shelves in a separate stack-room, in eight stories, averaging about 12 feet high on account of the climate, but dispensing with ladders; an ultimate capacity of 2,000,000 volumes is estimated. The reading-room is about 40 x 70 feet, with the desks and seats in amphitheatrical arrangement—an innovation. The reference library will number 2,000 volumes. A Galileo and a Dante chamber are among the special collections. The exterior will bear the statues of these two great Florentines, together with Machiavelli and Michael Angelo, who represent "tutto lo scibile umano," to quote the descriptive circular. The grand staircase will be adorned with a portrait fresco, "The School of Florence," after the manner of Raphael's "School of Athens."

In the September number of the *Educational Review* there is what may perhaps be accepted as an authoritative statement of the aims of the special Committee of Ten appointed at the Saratoga meeting of the National Educational Association. The Chairman of this Committee is President Eliot, and among the other members are the Presidents of Vassar College and of the Universities of Michigan, Colorado, and Missouri, Dr. William T. Harris, and the principals of several important high schools. The Committee is to consider the means of improving and systematizing the work of the secondary schools, not with a view to any uniformity in the curriculum, but to ascertain the weak points of the present disorganized condition. The attention of the Committee is to be directed to these inquiries: (1) what topics of each subject should be taught in secondary schools, and in what order; (2) what method of presentation is most efficient; (3) how many week-hours per year should be devoted to each subject taken up; (4) what tests of proficiency in every subject can be devised. Twenty-five hundred dollars were appropriated to meet the expenses of the investigation, the importance of which is obvious. In the same number of the *Review* there is a valuable paper by Prof. Hinsdale on the British device known as "Payment by Results"—one of the most unfortunate legacies of the late Robert Lowe.

The Chicago *Dial* makes the interesting announcement in its issue for September 1 that hereafter it will be published semi-monthly instead of monthly, and will take on several new features, without ceasing to be a purely literary journal—a "journal of literary criticism, discussion, and information." Thus, it already offers several articles, a poem, communications, "Chronicle and Comment," etc. One of the articles is upon the Chicago University, and there can be no doubt that the editor of the *Dial* will find himself greatly strengthened by the accession to the city of the scholars whom President Harper is calling about him. The reviews will continue to be both signed and unsigned.

We have received the first number of *L'Amérique Française*, a weekly illustrated paper published in this city under the editorship of Napoléon Thompson, who aims to create for the French of the United States a metropolitan organ, "Français de cœur et Américain de bonne foi." It is so American as to be strongly anti-English, and to accuse President Cleveland's Administration of having been always inspired by the "English idea" "in its most exaggerated Tory acceptation"! Needless to add that Mr. Thompson is an admirer of the grand old Republican party, and will work for it in the familiar mode indicated by his quotation from the Liverpool *Courier* "after it learned that the Cobden Club had succeeded in securing Mr. Cleveland's candidacy." This seems, perhaps, a shade droller in the language of Voltaire than in English.

The seventh number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains an account of very recent explorations in Costa Rica, by Prof. H. Pittier. One of these was made in an Indian pirogue along the southwest coast for the purpose of finding harbors suitable for the development of a coasting trade. In the course of it the writer claims to have discovered many errors in the maps published in Washington in 1887-1889 from the surveys of the United States steamer *Ranger* four years before. He says that they deserve confidence only in their details, as of single harbors and bays, "but that beyond these the maps are often faithful copies of old maps with all their errors." In confirmation of this statement several instances of important errors are given, such as the omission of rivers as well as the insertion of one river at least which does not exist. Among the minor notices is one upon the province of Ferghana in Turkestan. Since the Russian conquest in 1876, it has increased largely in population as well as in the production of cotton, silk, and dried fruits. The editor, referring to the attempts of "The United States Board on Geographic Names" to establish a uniform spelling of these names, objects strongly to the arbitrary changes of foreign names which are officially established, as, for instance, Baireuth instead of Bayreuth. He adds that Germany, England, and France will hardly adopt these new spellings, and hence the prevailing confusion will only be increased by the action of the Board, which should, he hints, confine its efforts to securing the proper spelling of names in the United States.

A description of a journey into the interior of Iceland, by Th. Thoroddsen, is given in the August number. In it reference is made to the oases in the desert of volcanic sand at the foot of Mt. Hecla. These are constantly changing or moving on account of the violent sandstorms which rage there. On the windward side they are encroached upon by the sand, and all vegetation is gradually destroyed, while on the other sides the grasses take root and "in a surprisingly short time barren and unfruitful spots are changed into good pasture." Dr. O. Baumann sends a short account of his recent journey to the Victoria Nyanza, remarkable for the speed with which it was accomplished; he appears to have made some important discoveries, among them of a snow-clad mountain and a large salt lake. Of the latter Dr. Emin Pasha, in a report dated August 9, 1890, had already surmised the existence, from the number of aquatic birds, especially pelicans, in the almost waterless district of Ugogo to the south of the new lake. The object of Dr. Emin's last expedition is at length revealed by his companion, Dr. Stuhlmann. It was first to communicate with the Egyptians who had remained in the Equatorial Province and render them any needed assistance, and then to push through the continent by the Welle River to the Cameroons on the west coast. This was prevented by the want of a proper equipment of men and supplies for crossing the great forest. He denies the truth of the story that Emin left a great store of ivory when he evacuated his province.

According to a recent publication of the Danish Statistical Bureau, the census of Greenland made in 1890 showed a total population in that country of 10,516, of which 309 were Europeans, the remaining 10,207 being natives. During the past decade the increase has been 5 per cent., the greatest growth being in North Greenland. In one of the "colonies," that of Godhavn, the increase has reached 35 per cent. Of the European settlers, by far the largest number are found in the south. As has always been the case, the women greatly outnumber the men. This is especially true of Southern Greenland, owing to the fact that the milder climate allows hunting and fishing from the kayak to be carried on both winter and summer. During each of the last decades the number of accidental deaths in this occupation has averaged 200 in the south to 50 or 60 in the north. With regard to occupations, 1,668 persons are engaged in the whale and seal fisheries, 365 are ordinary fishermen, 33 are netters, 47 are hunters, and 3 cattle-owners, this last industry having been introduced in Southern Greenland during the past year.

The same work contains a number of interesting figures taken from the Icelandic census of November, 1890. In that year the population of the island amounted to 70,927. According to the censuses of 1880, 1860, 1840, and 1801, the population was respectively 72,445, 66,987, 57,094, and 47,240. This first falling off in the population is due, not to increased mortality, for during the last decade the births exceeded the deaths by 4,784, but to emigration, especially from the west coast. Curiously enough, a majority of the emigrants were women. This is also the case with the whole population. Only 25 per cent. of the female Icelanders are married, and only one-third of the whole population—a remarkably small proportion. Another unusual proportion is that of servants, who compose a quarter of the inhabitants—about twice the ordinary number. About two-thirds of the Icelandic people are engaged in agriculture, the next most popular occupation being fishing, and frequently the two are combined. Although there are only 269 foreigners living on the island, their number has trebled since 1880.

The women students at Oxford have thus far not scored such signal triumphs in the examinations as their sister students at the Cambridge colleges. Although the honor examinations have, with two exceptions, theology and medicine, been open to them since 1884, and several have obtained first-class honors in modern history and in science, only two students had until this year attempted the final classical examination. Both were from Somerville Hall, and both were placed in the second class, one in 1890 and one in 1891. It has been reserved for another Somerville student, Miss Penrose, as we lately recorded, to achieve the great distinction of a "first" in the final Classical School. At the same time a Parsee student, Miss Sorabji, has accomplished the still more remarkable task of taking a third-class in the examination for B. C. L., the

most difficult law examination of the University. Of the twenty-five men with whom this foreigner had to compete, ten failed altogether, two obtained seconds, and not one a first.

The two articles from the *Nation* on "The Cost of a Small Museum" and "The Slater Memorial Museum" at Norwich, Conn., have been reprinted as brief circulars, and will be sent on application to H. W. Kent, Curator of the Museum. They furnish, in compact form, just the information needed by heads of colleges or private individuals who are contemplating the establishment of large or small collections of plaster casts. The statistics of attendance of visitors to the Museum, by the way, continue to exhibit a gratifying degree of public interest in the collections. The Museum is open three days each week, and the average attendance is about 150 persons per week. On Decoration Day there were 428 visitors, on New Year's Day 150, on Labor Day 143.

—A writer in the September *Bookman* makes a shrewd guess at the authorship of the famous *Quarterly* criticism of 'Jane Eyre'—"If we ascribe the book to a woman at all, we have no alternative but to ascribe it to one who has, for sufficient reason, long forfeited the society of her sex." The fact has lately been made public that this comment was an affront to the Brontë family which, in their opinion, could be wiped out by blood alone, and that an uncle of Charlotte's set out for London with the express purpose of killing the reviewer. He was unable, however, to discover a victim for his fury, and, if the *Bookman's* guess is correct, would have been not a little embarrassed had he got access with his deadly weapons to the offender—a woman. Her personality is arrived at in the following way: The *Quarterly* article (December, 1848) did 'Vanity Fair' as well as 'Jane Eyre,' and—as both Becky and Jane were governesses—dealt also with the Report of the Governesses' Benevolent Institution for 1847. To conclude the paper, it was said, after enumerating the many hardships of the governess's lot, "There is something that would compensate for all this, and that is *better pay*." Now, a letter of Sara Coleridge's is printed in her Memoirs, dated March 31, 1849, which says: "Miss Rigby's article on 'Vanity Fair' was brilliant, as all her productions are. But I could not agree to the concluding remark about governesses. How could it benefit that uneasy class to reduce the number of their employers, which, if high salaries were considered in all cases indispensable, must necessarily be the result?" The reference seems beyond question. Miss Rigby (afterwards Lady Eastlake) was an intimate friend of Sara Coleridge's, and if the latter was mistaken in her ascription of the article in question, it is remarkable, as the *Bookman* says, that "the mistake should have been allowed to stand in every edition of her Memoirs."

—New light is thrown, alike on Bengali philology and on Bengali ethnography, by a paper in the July issue of the *Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*. The writer of the paper is Mr. Charles Johnston, of the Bengal Civil Service. It is especially the District of Murshidabad to which he confines his remarks; and his conclusions regarding the origin of its inhabitants and the peculiarities of their language are, for the most part, very unexpected. Side by side, in Murshidabad, are found, we are told, three most distinct species of Bengali—that of the Brahmans and the classes directly under their influence, that of educated Muhammadans, and that of the great mass of the people, "the true Bengali language, the speech of the illiterate millions." In the first, fifty per cent. of the words are, in form, pure Sanskrit; of the second, the same proportion of the words is pure Arabic or Persian; and the third "is an agglutinative language, like the Dravidian tongues." It is on the last, of which philologists as yet know very little, that the writer particularly dwells, entering, as he does, into critical details which can here only be referred to. Passing from the linguistic aspect of Murshidabad, the essayist discourses of its population. And in this he distinguishes ethnic types of three marked varieties, the Indo-Aryan, the Indo-Chinese, and the Dravidian. Of these the most meagrely represented is the Indo-Aryan, the characteristics of which include fine features, an aquiline nose, small and well-formed hands and feet, and "a fair, almost European, complexion." The Indo-Chinese type is exemplified in from five to six hundred thousand persons, and the Dravidian in some two hundred thousand more than that aggregate. Curious facts are adduced for the purpose of showing that the Santalis, inhabiting Central India, who have hitherto been supposed to be Dravidian, are Indo-Chinese; a position, we believe, entirely novel. Brief as is Mr. Johnston's paper, it forcibly illustrates his contention, that, towards arriving at scientific truth, ethnographic research must be combined with philological.

—That generous cultivation of astronomical science in which the French surpass all other governments is largely due to the initiative of the late Admiral Mouchez, who was appointed Director of the Paris Observatory to succeed Leverrier on his death in 1877. While there are many great astronomers among the French, it will be difficult to find among them one capable of filling the place made vacant by the death of Mouchez, at whose initiative and under whose superintendency have been developed many works of the highest scientific significance. Chief among these, of course, is the comprehensive series of photographic maps of the stellar heavens, now in progress at a score of observatories in both hemispheres, and which originated at Paris in a movement started by Mouchez; for it was at his proposal the prominent astronomers of the world assembled in 1887 to discuss the best methods of executing so vast a plan. The end of the present century will barely see the conclusion of this international astronomical campaign. But the debt which French astronomy owes to Mouchez for the establishment of national schools for the practical cultivation of that science is hardly less. It is now seven or eight years since the inception of this project, and the French Governmental observatories, already about a dozen in number, receive their trained observers directly from the graduates. The creation and erection of new observatories, both at home and in the French colonial possessions, received his active support; and new observatories at Tahiti, Tananarivo, and Zaghouan were among the favorite hopes of his later days. The interest taken by Mouchez in the development of that novel and useful instrument known as the equatorial coudé, which vastly facilitates the nightly labors of the astronomer, will long be remembered. It is to be hoped that some progressive patron of astronomy may at an early day provide for the erection of a telescope of this type at an American observatory.

—The session of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres on August 6 was of especial interest. The principal address was made by M. d'Arbois de Jubainville, who compared at considerable length the Celtic oath by the sky, the earth, the sea, with the Greek oath in the 'Iliad.' The Celtic oath, which invokes natural objects and not the gods, M. d'Arbois holds to correspond logically to the primitive historic period, when there was no public punishment of private crime and no public enforcement of private contracts. Private vengeance was the law at that epoch, and the life to come was conceived of as being like this. There was no idea of a divine justice that should hereafter repair the wrongs of this world, such as is found in ancient Egypt, or in Rome under the Christian emperors. The Greek oath was identical with the Celtic, and a trace of the same adjuration is found in the Gospels, where swearing by the sky and the earth is forbidden because the sky is God's throne and the earth his footstool. The oath by the gods, according to M. d'Arbois, gives evidence of an intermediate period, when men had not yet come to the notion of a retribution in the life to come, but did believe that the gods would punish those who insulted them. The violation of an oath would be a distinct insult to the gods. M. d'Arbois de Jubainville, it is perhaps needless to say, is one of the very first modern Celtists. He is a professor of the Collège de France, and is the author in chief of the great "Cours de Littérature Celtique," five volumes of which have appeared during the last nine years.

— At the same sitting of the Academy, M. Halévy reported the result of his researches in the Museum of Berlin, where he has been of late engaged in the special study of two Semitic inscriptions of the eighth and ninth centuries before our era. They were discovered in the course of some diggings made by the German Oriental Committee at Zinjirli, at the extreme border of Northern Syria. The writing is so nearly effaced as to be almost unreadable. In spite of the difficulties, however, M. Halévy has been able to make out the *ensemble* of the inscriptions, which were made by two kings of Yadi, both named Panammu, who lived in the ninth and eighth centuries B. C. Panammu II. was a vassal of Tiglathpileser III., King of Assyria, whose exploits are recorded in the Old Testament. The language of the inscriptions is not Aramæan, as was first believed, but a Phœnician dialect closely related to the Hebrew, and only lightly influenced by the Aramæan. This tongue was spoken by the people whom the Assyrians called Hatti, whom we know as Hittites. The current opinion, then, that the Hittites were a non-Semitic people, must, if the conclusions of M. Halévy be followed, be definitively abandoned. The hieroglyphs found in many parts of Asia Minor must be considered of Anatolian, and not of Syrian origin. M. Halévy proceeded to point out the part that the Hittites took in spreading the Phœnician alphabet. It was from the Hittites, and not directly from the Phœnicians, that the Aramæans borrowed the alphabet of twenty-two letters which they carried into the East. An exact knowledge of the Hittite idiom explains the existence in Hebrew of grammatical forms and of words which are found neither in Phœnician nor in Aramæan. These are elements which were introduced into Hebrew at a time when Hittite colonies were in contact with the Israelites. M. Halévy finds in this a striking proof of the accuracy of the passages in Genesis which mention Hittite tribes as existing in various places in Palestine, and especially in Hebron, the dwelling-place of Abraham and the cradle of the Davidic dynasty.

—Richard Wagner's share in the Saxon Revolution of 1849, which compelled him to live outside of Germany for about twelve years (he wrote most of "Rheingold," "Walküre," "Siegfried," "Tristan," and the "Meistersinger" in Switzerland), has always been subject to dispute, because he himself avoided detailed reference to the matter in correspondence and conversation, and his associates also preserved silence. Mr. Dannreuther, who knew the composer personally, says that "the tale of Wagner's having carried a red flag and fought on the barricades is not corroborated by the 'acts of accusation' preserved in the Saxon Police Records." Richard Pohl, another friend of Wagner, who used to call him "the oldest Wagnerite," writes in his biographic sketch that "Wagner did not, as some have asserted, stand upon the barricades, but he undertook what I may call the 'musical conducting' of the Revolution: he led the signals and the alarm bells. He also organized the detachments coming in from the outside, and by his words encouraged them to the fight." The late Ferdinand Praeger, however, in his 'Wagner as I Knew Him,' tries to make out that Wagner took a much more active rôle in the Revolution than he and his biographers were willing to admit; and he quotes especially the evidence of a man named Hainberger to prove that Wagner did all sorts of disloyal things. This accusation has aroused the ire and polemic ardor of Mr. Ashton Ellis, editor of the London *Meister* (who has made considerable progress in his arduous undertaking of translating all of Wagner's prose works into English). After firing off a few preliminary newspaper articles, Mr. Ellis has gathered together his ammunition in a 72-page pamphlet entitled '1849: A Vindication' (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.). Mr. Ellis shows, in the first place, what justification for revolt there was, adding that "if Englishmen, so long ago as half a century, had been treated half so tyrannously, we should have seen a repetition of the revolutions which drove the Stuarts from their throne." He proceeds to quote a document unearthed by him which makes it more than probable that some of the deeds of which the composer of "Lohengrin" was accused were done by a journeyman baker named Wagner. He beards Count Von Beust in his autobiographic den, and tells him plainly and frankly why he does not believe the report he gives of his interview with Wagner, in which the latter was charged with having set fire to the palace. There are certainly many suspicious circumstances about Von Beust's statements, including the positive misstatement that Wagner had been condemned to death *in contumaciam;* upon which Mr. Ellis comments: "However much Von Beust might have approved of this summary method of dealing with distasteful absentees, even the Saxon authorities did not dare to go so far, at least in the middle of this century, as to condemn a man to death *unheard.*" But it is against Praeger that Mr. Ellis chiefly directs his criticisms, and readers of Praeger's book would do well to follow it up with a glance at Mr. Ellis's pamphlet.

—One bit of testimony has escaped Mr. Ellis's eagle eye. In the *Deutsche Rundschau* for May and June, 1887, there appeared an article by Frau Wille which contained interesting details regarding Wagner's life at Zürich. She relates that one day Minna (the composer's first wife) said in regard to the Revolution: "My husband did not commit any wrong. He only looked from the tower for the detachments coming from the villages to assist the townfolk. He did *not* stand on the barricades, as was said of him; did *not* carry a rifle; and could save himself only by flight when the Prussian troops moved into Dresden." After all, since Wagner himself admits, "I was actively engaged in the revolutionary movement up to its final struggle, and it was a pure accident that I, too, was not taken prisoner," it seems to be immaterial just exactly what he did; and certainly no American will feel inclined to throw a stone at a man who fought for such things as trial by jury, political representation, and freedom of the press.

JULIAN'S GIDDINGS.

The Life of Joshua R. Giddings. By George W. Julian, author of 'Political Recollections.' Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1892.

Now that Mr. Julian has written the Life of his father-in-law, we may congratulate ourselves that he waited till he was seventy-five years old; for it so happens that there is a ripeness in his judgment which he could not have had before, and that he sees the events and persons of his scene in a perspective which assigns them their relative importance. Then, too, it is no little matter that he has had the terrible examples of several biographers of anti-slavery leaders to whom it has seemed impossible to do justice to their heroes without claiming everything for them, and bringing a railing accusation against all who had seemed to share with them the glory of the battle. There is not a particle of these things in Mr. Julian's book. It is written with a double modesty—that proper to the author and that proper to the man of whom he writes. His nearness to Giddings as his son-in-law, and his own part in the scenes which he describes, would have excused occasional lapses into a more subjective manner, but he has chosen to efface himself as far as possible. It is significant of his habitual course that, in speaking of the election of 1852 and of John P. Hale's 156,000 Free-Soil votes for the Presidency, he does not mention the fact that he received as many himself for the second place.

His modesty for Giddings is nowhere more apparent than in his treatment of John Quincy Adams, who for ten years was Giddings's anti-slavery leader and at times his sole companion in the lower house of Congress. To belittle Adams that Giddings might be magnified, would have been the policy of the average biographer; but Mr. Julian keeps so clear of this that, in his enthusiasm for Adams, Giddings is at times forgotten. The two men, alike in their anti-slavery ardor, had much of difference. Adams was already seventy-two when Giddings entered Congress at the age of forty-three. Their culture and experience were as different as their years—Adams's remarkably complete and broad; Giddings's as remarkably narrow and imperfect. But almost from the start Giddings's anti-slavery course was the more thorough and consistent. He was for abolishing slavery in the District, while Adams still refrained; and, in Winthrop's contest for the Speakership, he "voted agin' him" with Palfrey, while Adams's support of him was at once the closing act and anti-climax of his long political career. But Mr. Julian does not make the least attempt to economize these circumstances for the comparative glory of the younger man. They are set down as necessary to a right understanding of the situation in which Mr. Giddings was involved.

Joshua Reed Giddings was born at Athens, Pa., October 6, 1795, but spent his childhood in Canandaigua, N. Y.; and when, in 1805, his father moved to Ashtabula Co., Ohio, there was too much work to be done for the boy to be either idle or at school. His early education was well-nigh "a cipher with the rim removed." But so diligent was he in private study that at the age of nineteen he was thought capable of teaching school, and, by managing to keep ahead of his scholars, he justified the opinion of his friends. At twenty-three, having picked up a little Latin, he began to study law, and three years later entered on the practice of his profession. His six feet and two inches were an adjunct of his legal furnishing that was not to be despised. Schiller's opinion that the immortals never appear alone had a fresh illustration when, in 1833, Benjamin F. Wade became a partner; but when we read that a "lack of self-confidence" kept him to the office-work, while Giddings argued their cases in the courts, we are incredulous of his identity with the "Ben" whom afterward we knew. The firm enjoyed a great success and put their earnings into Western lands, which the financial crash of 1837 made a ruinous investment. Upon broken fortunes broken health soon followed, and life seemed to have already done its best for Giddings when his real life began. In 1838 he was elected to the Twenty-fifth Congress to fill out an unexpired term; and that he held the seat until the expiration of the Thirty-fifth Congress, March, 1859, when we consider the political changes of those twenty years, is eloquent of the impression made by Giddings's character on his constituents.

Before entering on his Congressional career, Mr. Julian gives a brief history of that slavery question which was to engross the bulk of Giddings's energy as time went on. It does not seem possible that it engrossed it to the extent indicated by Mr. Julian. He has written an account of Giddings's part in anti slavery legislation, and if Giddings took any considerable or creditable part in other matters, Mr. Julian has passed it over as of no importance. His account of the slavery question up to 1838 is mainly notable for its difference from several accounts written within the last few years mainly to show that slavery was dying out in the most lovely manner until the abolitionists began their agitation. Certain incidents to the contrary notwithstanding, Mr. Julian asserts "the unmistakable trend of the National Government towards slavery in the earlier and better days of the Republic," and that it "steadily grew stronger," while the early anti-slavery societies became less and less. He makes a singular mistake in naming Whitefield with Wesley as a "thorough-going abolitionist," when in fact he was as much in favor of slavery as Wesley was opposed to it, and did more than any one else to fasten it upon Georgia in the teeth of Oglethorpe's earnest opposition.

It is an interesting fact that it was from Theodore D. Weld, who still enjoys a wonderful old age, that Giddings got his earliest anti-slavery inspiration. He had heard him speak several times in 1837, and had been so greatly moved that he had formed an anti-slavery society. This experience determined his course for the next ten years, during which he was a Whig abolitionist, or at least an abolitionist Whig. Elected by the Whigs, he clung to them with desperate tenacity. How he could support Harrison in 1840 and Clay in 1844 is a truly marvellous thing; but early in his Congressional career he arrived at an interpretation of the Constitution radically different from that of the abolitionists. It was the interpre-

tation, "Freedom national, slavery sectional," which afterward became the watchword of the Republican party; and no other did so much as he to fix that interpretation in the men by whom the victories of the Republican party were assured—and who had no better luck than he when brought to book by the disunion abolitionists. "The starting-point and fundamental idea of his exposition was that slavery is the concern of the States in which it exists, with which the Federal Government has no Constitutional right to interfere in any way" (p. 134). "The faithful and consistent application of the principle of Federal non-intervention with slavery was the controlling aim of his public life; and his interpretation of it invested it with the interest of a political discovery" (p. 136). The second of these statements does not impress us as very happily expressed. Giddings never wasted a moment in preventing the hostile intervention of the Federal Government with slavery. The Southern slaveocrats and Northern doughfaces could be trusted to take care of that. All his energy of thought and will, all his fertility of resource, went to the prevention of any Federal intervention with slavery favorable to its life and growth. To prevent Federal complicity with slavery was his being's end and aim, and Mr. Julian has given a wonderfully interesting history of the occasions—and they were many—when he detected that complicity in some foul hiding-place and dragged it forth into the light of day. It is a pity we could not have the history of these occasions in Mr. Giddings's words. When he first went to Washington he kept a journal, and the extracts from it are immensely interesting and valuable; but they do not continue long, otherwise they would have been a remarkable pendent to John Quincy Adams's journal of the same period, and a memoir of equal service to the historian.

He took his seat December 3, 1838, and in less than a fortnight he had gauged the temper of the pro-slavery party and prepared a resolution calling for information concerning slavery in the District of Columbia. A letter from W. H. Harrison on the 11th of the same month shows that the present incumbent's management of his own canvass is an inherited audacity, though intellectually and morally the letter is perhaps the smallest ever written by a Presidential candidate. On February 7, 1839, Clay made his famous declaration that "two hundred years of legislation have sanctioned and sanctified negro slaves as property," and on the 21st Giddings made his first anti-slavery speech. From that time forward he was unflinching and persistent in his resistance to pro-slavery aggression, with its revivals of the slave trade, its slavery and slave-auctions at the national capital, its greed for new territory, its suppression of free speech and the right of petition. Into every form of its Protean transformation he followed it with a courage that subjected him to frequent insult and often put his life in jeopardy. It would appear that there was less joy of battle in his heroic service than has been commonly supposed. He did not relish misrepresentation and abuse, nor even the hatred of unworthy men; and more than once he was resolved on retiring from the conflict, but his resolve was overborne.

The Liberty party in 1840 and 1844 had for him no attractions. Somehow he convinced himself that he could safely vote for Harrison and Clay. The latter had for him a powerful fascination. Mr. Julian gives much attention to Giddings's refusal to sustain Winthrop for the Speakership in 1847—not too much, perhaps, considering the long controversy that grew out of it, and how deeply Giddings's feelings were engaged, and what maledictions of the Whigs his action brought upon his head, and their influence in absolving him from the partisan allegiance by which he had been held too long. In 1848 he was an eager adherent of the Free Soil party, and Mr. Julian first met him at the Buffalo Convention which nominated Van Buren and Adams. An interesting feature of these years is Giddings's correspondence with Sumner, who was a private citizen until 1851, but for whose opinions Giddings's regard was as complete as if Sumner had already reached the measure of his fame.

People with short memories will find many surprises in these pages, some of them full of warning and rebuke and instruction in righteousness. We are permitted to believe that Mr. Julian has taken a certain pleasure in arranging some of these, though every one of them is a natural incident of his recital. We seem to read between the lines, "If I did not remain in the Republican party as long as some others, I got there in good season and stood firmly for the highest things when many fell away." Think of Horace Greeley supporting Gen. Scott in 1852, while William Cullen Bryant, and even Robert Rantoul, supported Franklin Pierce! How strange it seems that Charles Sumner could ever have looked to Tom Corwin as the standard-bearer of the Free Soil party! But it is the rage for compromise and reaction that overtook the Republican party between the defeat of Frémont and the election of Lincoln that is the most miserable of these revelations. It was a natural sequence to the support which the Crittenden-Montgomery Amendment—by which Kansas might have been admitted as a slave State—received from every Republican Senator, with one exception, and every Representative: Giddings, albeit with horrible misgivings, going with the rest. But for that lamentable blunder he made large amends in the next years, when the New York *Tribune* was openly for "the disbandment of the Republican party and the formation of a combination against the Democrats composed of Republicans, Douglas Democrats, Know-Nothings, and Whigs" (p. 351), and when there was abundant following of that inglorious lead. The subjection of principles to politics had cost Giddings his Congressional nomination in 1858, and it was a very modest recognition of his great abilities and splendid character that assigned him to the Consul-Generalship of Canada, a position which he held until his death, May 27, 1864.

The judgment of Von Holst is final when he writes, speaking of the principle of Federal non-complicity with slavery, "To Giddings, more than to any other person, belongs the credit of having, with full consciousness, made it the constitutional basis of his entire warfare against the slaveocracy, and of having applied it with a consistency never before attained to all questions to which it was pertinent." Mr. Julian, never excessive in his estimate of Giddings, says, "He was wholly wanting in genius." Yes, unless there be such a thing as genius for character, for righteousness, for devotion to a sacred cause. Every reader of Mr. Julian's book who knows Lowell's early sonnet to the stout-hearted Giddings will expect to find it at the end, and there it is—equally honorable to the poet who wrote and the hero who deserved the praise.

The Barren Ground of Northern Canada. By Warburton Pike. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

On Canada's Frontier. By Julian Ralph. Harper & Bros. 1892.

Mr. Warburton Pike is a traveller of a species unknown until quite recent years. During the first quarter of the century a man who had visited the principal capitals of Europe was accounted a traveller. In the next generation the standard was raised considerably, and some acquaintance with the Indies, East or West, was looked upon as essential. Then came steamers and railroads in every direction, and in the third quarter no one could be regarded as a traveller who had not followed a well-beaten path round the world. But the *fin de siècle* traveller scorns palace cars and twin screws. If he fails in the search for some peak unascended by man, he contents himself with a country known only to Indians or Esquimaux, and he spends weeks of semi-starvation in the society of villanous half-breeds in order to slay a few musk oxen. Rare as these animals are, the cynic may be pardoned if he raises the question whether it is worth while to give up civilization for a couple of years in order to reach them. But the traveller of Mr. Pike's species would not hesitate for an answer. He would say that he has slept under the stars night after night, with the thermometer from 40 degrees to 60 degrees below zero, and has enjoyed a more refreshing and a healthier sleep than in St. James's Street. He would tell you that some of the most marvellously beautiful sights in nature can be seen only by him who travels and camps out in the far north in early spring or late autumn, and that no orator at Washington or Westminster is as interesting as an Indian telling stories over the camp fire of those remote days when the animals could talk as well as men.

We probably all possess, in greater or less degree, the inherited instinct of the chase, though it is commonly warped and blunted by the exigencies of city life; but only the keenest hunters will voluntarily abandon the cooking that is familiar to them, and run the risk of living for days on bits of leather softened with grease, in order to shoot a particular animal. Mr. Pike not only is a keen sportsman, but has the art of telling a story in simple yet graphic language, and his book is decidedly interesting, unadorned though it be by illustration of any kind. As he had no instruments with which to make observations, his long journeys do not add to the sum of geographical knowledge, yet he reached a point on Lake Beechey within sixty miles of the Arctic Ocean, through a country unexplored by white men since the days of Sir John Franklin.

Except for the strong love of nature and of camping out in midwinter with British America for a bedroom, Mr. Ralph has not much in common with Mr. Pike. In his journeyings he had the immense advantage of a companion in the person of Mr. Frederic Remington, whose clever sketches add much to the reader's enjoyment of Mr. Ralph's text. Mr. Pike is a serious person, and takes his pleasures sadly, as becomes a Briton, whereas Mr. Ralph is gifted with a sense of humor, and one can imagine that under provocation he might, like Jeffrey, speak disrespectfully of the equator. Moreover, when he goes into the backwoods he does not propose to live on his moccasins, with or without grease, but keeps within reasonable distance of a railroad and takes a good cook with him. But then Mr. Ralph is not every inch a sportsman—by several inches

—and it is not borne in upon him that his mission in life is to shoot a musk ox. He is satisfied with such moose and caribou as fate sends in his way, and he keeps his eyes open for many other things in Canada besides sport. He becomes intimate with the Blackfoot tribe of Indians and with the celebrated missionary Father Lacombe, who has spent half a century among them; and he reaches the conclusion that it is the railroad that demoralizes the Indians, and that the degradation of the Canadian Indians has come later than that of our tribes merely because the Canadian Pacific is newer than our transcontinental lines. Before that road was built the Blackfeet lived, fought, and died as their forefathers had done, whereas now they don't fight, but they live and die like dogs. This is rather a melancholy view of the Indian question, but unfortunately there can be little doubt of its truth.

In regard to the climate of Canada, Mr. Ralph makes a discovery which others have made before, but have failed to record in equally vivid language. He says that the reason the people do not suffer from cold is that it is a country "where every one puts on everything he owns—all his stockings at once, all his flannel shirts and drawers, all his coats on top of one another—and, when there is nothing else left, draws over it all a blanket suit, a pair of moccasins, a tuque, and whatever pairs of gloves he happens to be able to find or borrow."

Mr. Ralph gives a most interesting account of the growth of that remarkable association which Charles II. chartered in 1670 as "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay." The hunters used to say that the letters H. B. C. on the company's flag stood for "Here before Christ," because some of the posts are so remote from civilization and have been established so many years that their origin is lost in obscurity. Yet, far north as they are, there is no good reason for believing, as Mr. Ralph seems to do, that the Company will some day employ its servants in the search for the north pole. No doubt their experience of the climate would be useful in such an expedition, but the whole policy of the Company is becoming more commercial and less adventurous as the years go by. The factors in charge of the different posts are much more interested in furs than in scientific investigations, and their aim is to make money for the Company and to modify as far as possible the hardships of their own tedious existence. A good instance of this is the case of a factor stationed far up on the eastern side of Hudson's Bay who makes a gallant effort to maintain the habits of London life in that remote region. He has a complete set of the London *Times* sent him by the single mail that reaches his post in the course of a year, and each morning he reads the paper of that day in the preceding year!

Mr. Ralph is full of enthusiasm about British Columbia, which he calls the El Dorado of Canada. He expatiates on its enormous mineral wealth, the development of which is as yet in its infancy, on its magnificent trees, on its stupendous mountains, and on its rivers crowded with salmon. The story of the stage-coach which was upset by the fish banking themselves against it when it was crossing a ford, may possibly be an exaggeration, but photographs have been taken showing the fish going up the river like a tidal wave which are quite as wonderful and yet true. Of all these things and of many more, which we have no space to refer to, Mr. Ralph writes instructively and in a pleasant style. Many of his chapters have already appeared in *Harper's Magazine*, and they are well worthy of reproduction in their present permanent form.

Industrial Freedom: A Study in Politics. By B. R. Wise. Cassell Publishing Co. 1892.

THE author of this book is a native of Australia, and has been, he tells us, for seven years engaged by the side of Sir Henry Parkes in the forefront of an active political controversy with the protectionists of New South Wales. In this way he claims, and we think justly, to have gained an exceptional familiarity with the modes of thought and expression that win favor for protection among voters. This special knowledge he has used to frame a complete and scientific statement of the case for free trade, from the point of view of one who is addressing himself to the voters of a democratic country. While a considerable part, and by no means the least interesting part, of the work is devoted to a comparison of the results of free trade in New South Wales with the results of protection in Victoria, the residue contains a lucid and thorough examination of the claims and merits of the rival policies, which is as instructive reading for the voters of France or of the United States as for those of Australia.

It is contended by the author, we incline to think correctly, that free-traders have made a mistake in directing their arguments principally to the effect of their policy upon the production of wealth, instead of to the question of its effect on wages. When we consider that the Democratic party, in framing its platform for this critical year, came near committing the extraordinary blunder of conceding that a protective tariff could raise the wages of American laborers, it certainly cannot be denied that our education upon this subject is incomplete. The attention given by Mr. Wise, however, to this aspect of the question is due to the fact that he was at one time associated with the late Arnold Toynbee, and is affected with his enthusiasm in the cause of improving the condition of the poor. Like most of his school, he is inclined toward socialism and repudiates the *laisser-faire* doctrine; but he demonstrates that protection fails to satisfy the conditions of legitimate State action. His argument is, therefore, of peculiar importance for those who are misled by the claim that protective tariffs improve the condition of the laboring classes. This class includes in this country almost all protectionists who are not pecuniarily interested in preventing foreign competition; and such of them as are open to conviction will do well to study Mr. Wise's elaborate exposure of a particularly impudent fallacy.

We cannot undertake to analyze the argument contained in this book, which is of course in the main familiar to students of economics, further than to say that much is made of the distinction between the economic and the political aspect of the question. As Mr. Wise patiently shows, this distinction is almost invariably ignored by protectionist writers, who thus constantly shift their ground according to the exigencies of discussion. Another feature of value is the historical résumé of national policies, which brings out clearly the difference between the old and new forms of protection and exposes the exaggeration of the protectionist revival. In this connection the motives and expectations of the early free-trade leaders in England, which are now so often misrepresented, receive a correct statement. The recent revival of protection in Europe is explained as due to the growth of "militarism" consequent upon the development of national feeling—a view which is very ably presented. As we have already said, the repudiation of free trade by the British colonies under the lead of Victoria is explained with much interesting detail.

We cannot resist citing, as illustrating the curious manner in which economic disputants have shifted their positions, a passage taken by Mr. Wise from one of Mr. Webster's speeches. He said, in discussing the duty upon iron—and it may be well to mention that prior to 1816 there was no protection for pig-iron, although our iron products in 1810 were valued at $70,000,000—that it was unwise to attempt to force our labor to produce what was produced more cheaply elsewhere. He continued:

"We have been asked . . . in a tone of some pathos, whether we will allow to the serfs of Russia and Sweden the benefit of making our iron for us. Let me inform the gentleman that those same serfs do not earn more than seven cents a day. . . And let me ask the gentleman further, whether we have any labor in this country that cannot be better employed than in a business which does not yield the laborer more than seven cents a day? . . . The true reason why it is not our policy to compel our citizens to manufacture our own iron is, that they are far better employed. It is an unproductive business, and they are not poor enough to be compelled to follow it. If we had more of poverty, more of misery, and something of servitude; if we had an ignorant, idle, starving population, we might set up for iron-makers against the world. . . . Multitudes of persons are willing to labor in the production of this article for us at the rate of seven cents a day, while we have no labor which will not command, upon the average, at least five or six times that amount. The question is, then, shall we buy this article of these manufacturers and suffer our own labor to earn its greater reward; or shall we employ our own labor in a similar manufacture, and make up to it by a tax on consumers the loss which it must necessarily sustain?"

This quotation, which suggests that our modern tariff-reformers have an unused arsenal in the debates of their predecessors, is a sample of the interesting material that Mr. Wise has collected and arranged. His book is prefaced with a good analysis, but we are sorry to say that it lacks an index, which is, in view of its character and aim, a most serious blemish.

The Odyssey of Homer. Edited by Arthur Platt. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

MR. ARTHUR PLATT, who has been working for a number of years at Homer, and who is well known to all who follow the course of the English periodicals that are concerned with classical philology, is responsible for a new edition of the 'Odyssey,' such as might have been expected from the notice of Van Leeuwen and Da Costa which he wrote some years ago in the *Classical Review* (ii., p. 124). This 'Odyssey' is a part of "The Cambridge Homer," and in this Cambridge Homer a banner is set up which is suspiciously like a battle-flag. "The principle on which this edition is made," says Mr. Platt, "is that of going back, as far is is reasonably possible, to the original language of Homer." To be sure, the device is not strange to those who are acquainted with the drift of Homeric study, and there is a qualification in the heart of it that detracts from the boldness. In fact, Mr. Platt has to admit that his aim is ideal, and the motto he has chosen from Epictetus is interpreted to mean that, if his text cannot be Homer, it shall be as like him as he can make it. With this end in view, Mr.

Platt shows a certain irritation at Dr. Leaf's objection that, "however many corrections we make, we cannot be sure that we have got all, and therefore it is better to print none of them." "This," he says, "is equivalent to saying that no bread is better than half the loaf," and it is clear that Mr. Platt would have no sympathy with those despondent scholars who look dolefully at the slow progress of the Spelling Reform Association.

He evidently expects to encounter persecution at the hands of English scholars who have a strong "prejudice against laying hands on the sacred text," and he is prepared to meet it. He is ready to be offered up for the holy cause of the digamma and for the dactylic glory of the resolved diphthong, and has put on his armor to do battle in the train of Wackernagel against the hoary iniquity of the contraction and distraction of vowels. His attitude is a trifle too heroic. Many of the points are not novel, many of the changes he has made are recommended as theoretically correct in our school-books, and whatever English scholars may do, American scholars (who are almost always men of open mind) will receive with sympathy Mr. Platt's attempts to translate theory into practice. Some of the resolutions which he notes are found in our recent texts. Ἀτρείδης has been familiar since Bekker's day. Few would be shocked at αἰδιόιος and κόλος. It is possible, however, that some might boggle at ἀρένυια for ἄρνυια, and prefer their Homeric breakfast under the form of ἄριστον instead of the jigging ἀίριστον; and here and there a Philistine may be heard to say that, if one is going to give up the old tradition and elide -οιο, why is not the elision more systematically applied?

One interesting feature of the edition is the publication for the first time of a number of MS. emendations by Bentley; and, as if that were not a compelling charm, the volume is so attractive in appearance that old-fashioned scholars and new-fashioned alike must have been tempted to slip it into the satchel for the holidays.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part I. Parliament. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Armstrong, E. The French Wars of Religion; their Political Aspects. London: Percival & Co. Harpers. $1.75.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. The Principles of Ethics. Calmire. 2d ed. revised. Macmillan. $1.50.
Church, Prof. A. J. Pictures from Roman Life and Story. Appletons.
Collins, Mabel. Suggestion. Lovell, Gesterfeld & Co. $1.25.
Colton's Map of the City of Brooklyn. G. W. & C. B. Colton & Co.
Cook, A. M. Macmillan's Shorter Latin Course. American edition. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. The Bible and English Prose Style. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Cornwallis, Kinahan. The Song of America and Columbus. *Daily Investigator*. $1.
Denkwürdigkeiten aus dem Leben des General-Feldmarschalls Kriegsministers Grafen von Roon. 2 vols. Breslau: Eduard Trewendt; New York: Westermann.
Dobbin, L., and Walker, J. Chemical Theory for Beginners. Macmillan. 70 cents.
Dumas, A. The Three Guardsmen. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Stephens, H. Morse. The Principal Speeches of the Statesmen and Orators of the French Revolution. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.50.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. Vol. XIV. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stoddard, C. W. South-Sea Idyls. New ed. Scribners. $1.50.
Stuart, J. A. The Literary Shrines of Yorkshire. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Select Cases on Evidence at the Common Law. Cambridge, Mass.: Charles W. Sever.
Welch, W., and Duffield, C. G. Cæsar's Helvetian War. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Wendt, E. C. A Treatise on Asiatic Cholera. William Wood & Co. $3.
Whiton, Rev. J. M. Gloria Patri; or, Our Talks about the Trinity. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Wollstonecraft, Mary. A Vindication of the Rights of Woman. London: W. Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Wright, W. A. The Works of William Shakspere. Vol. VII. Macmillan. $3.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Cross Roads. T. Whittaker. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 22, 1892.

The Week.

THE Presidential campaign continues to be unprecedentedly quiet. One after another of the dates set by the politicians for the outburst of enthusiasm has passed. At first they were waiting for Congress to adjourn, as the veriest tyro knows that it is impossible to rouse the country while Congress is in session. Then, when Congress did adjourn, they explained that the extraordinary heat was chilling the political impetuosity of the nation. Afterwards it was the President's letter that we must wait for before the pent-up enthusiasm could break loose. Then, when at last everything seemed propitious, the backwardness of the campaign was accounted for by the cholera scare. That has now passed away, but the politicians remind us that it is really absurd to expect imposing demonstrations of the immense interest of the people in the pending election until after the "crops are gathered in." When they are, we are now told, there will be terrible excitement. But we fear these successive adjournments are ominous, and that November will be upon us without a clearly developed political paroxysm being anywhere discernible. People act as if their minds were firmly made up, or as if they were highly indifferent and resolved to remain so. All these indications certainly favor Democratic success.

Republican organs are inclined to be somewhat downcast over the small attendance at their League Convention at Buffalo on Thursday. It had been advertised as the biggest and altogether most extraordinary gathering of the sort ever held, but rather less than half the delegates expected were present, and the spectators were so few that President Clarkson did not think it worth while to make his address. This is solemnly accounted for by the dread of cholera. The Westerners would not come to Buffalo lest they might catch the infection from this city. Moreover, it is said that "the delegations from some States were lured off to Niagara Falls to see the great cataract." But we see no occasion for the gloomy view of the meeting taken by these despondent Republican papers. They ought to remember how much they suffered from the unbounded enthusiasm which marked their canvass in Vermont and Maine, and be thankful for the absence of anything of the kind in this State. Don't they know that it is precisely such disappointments as these that make the party "wake up," "take off their coats," and "force the fighting along the whole line"?

One result of the Maine election is very significant. The People's party, as the Nationalists in that State called themselves, made an active campaign, Bellamy himself taking the stump; and before the election the leaders were loudly claiming that they would poll at least 15,000 votes. Returns from all but a few scattering towns give them only 2,934. As this total also includes most of the Labor vote, which amounted to 1,296 in the last previous election, it is pretty evident that Maine "has no use for" Bellamyism, as was shown to be the case in Massachusetts last year, when its ticket secured only about 3,000 votes out of nearly 325,000.

Although the Prohibitionists stand no chance of carrying even a single Congressional district in the whole country, it is a matter of much importance to the politicians of both parties whether their vote this year is to maintain its previous size. So far as the Vermont and Maine elections cast any light upon this question, they indicate that the Prohibitionists will gain rather than lose ground next November. In Vermont they cast 1,650 votes for their ticket, against only 1,372 in September, 1888, and in Maine 3,383, against only 3,122 four years ago. This gain, though small in each State, is significant because it was secured notwithstanding the fact that the Republicans had done nothing to offend the Prohibitionists, while in Maine their support of the amendment to the Constitution might have been expected to draw some back to their old party. If the Prohibitionists can gain strength under such circumstances, there is every reason to suppose that they will increase their poll much more largely in States where the Republicans used to bid for their support, but have now turned their backs upon them. One such State is Indiana, where in 1888 the Republican platform denounced the saloon and favored local-option legislation, whereas this year not a word is said on the subject; and another is Iowa, where four years ago the Republicans congratulated the people on having secured "the best prohibitory law in the United States," and declared that "no backward step will be taken on this question," while this year they have ignored the matter of prohibition entirely, although the Democrats are committed to a repeal of the law as soon as they get the power.

One of the most bitter opponents of ballot reform in the whole country has always been the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. It is therefore no surprise to find it saying of the small Republican majorities in New England this month, that "the lightness of the vote is doubtless to a great extent attributable to the Australian ballot system, which has disfranchised more citizens of all parties than any other law that has ever been adopted in the politics of the country." But the *Commercial Gazette* is mistaken in saying that the Australian ballot system disfranchises "citizens of all parties." It is only the Republicans who suffer from it. In Vermont, for example, the Democrats polled 19,526 votes this year, against 19,527 four years ago; and the Prohibitionists 1,650 now, against 1,372 then—the only disfranchisement being of Republicans, who cast 48,522 ballots before the new voting system was adopted, and only 39,190 after that.

While so many Republican organs are calling for the repeal of Australian ballot laws on the ground that they hurt their party, it is a great satisfaction to find a prominent newspaper of the party which says that the new system is a good thing for the country, and that it must be sustained for that reason, even if Republicans do suffer from it. Such a newspaper is the Lewiston *Journal*, edited by Congressman Dingley. The *Journal* was a most earnest advocate of ballot reform when Boutelle's followers were trying to defeat it in the Maine Legislature, and it stands by it now that the Republican majority has sunk so low under it. Of the good effects of the system it says: "We have never seen so orderly and satisfactory elections in our cities as we had on Monday. The polling-places were at no time crowded, the ward heelers were out of business, there were no brawls, and everything passed off serenely, even in wards where heretofore it has been as much as a man's life was worth to get to the polls." As for the objection that so beneficent a change "hurts the party"—and it must be kept in mind that in Lewiston itself the Democratic plurality was increased from only 9 two years ago to 257 on Monday week—the *Journal* says:

> "He is not a good party man who is not first a patriot. A man who believes in his party so little that he is afraid the conscience of the voter will hurt his party, doesn't even believe intelligently in what he believes. It is not half so necessary in a free country that everybody should vote our ticket as it is that everybody should vote without an impertinent ward heeler at his heels."

The chief feature of the Massachusetts Republican State Convention appears to have been the adoption of a resolution declaring that the Republicans in the next Legislature, which is to elect a United States Senator, "should nominate in caucus." This was the work of Henry Cabot Lodge, the "scholar in politics," who is diligently seeking the nomination. In the old days the Republicans of Massachusetts used to pride themselves upon their freedom from caucus tyranny, but the man

who objects to that sort of thing now is denounced as a Mugwump.

New Hampshire promises to have a most hotly contested election this fall. The Democrats are harmonious and enthusiastic under the leadership of Congressman McKinney, a vigorous and popular stump-speaker, as their candidate for Governor. On the other hand, there is much division among the Republicans. A bitter hostility exists between Chandler and Gallinger, the two Senators. The Portsmouth *Chronicle*, a Republican newspaper, openly bolts the nomination of ex-Senator Blair for Congress in one of the two districts. In the other, the *New Hampshire Republican* has "read out of the party" ex-Congressman Moore, editor of the Nashua *Telegraph*, because of "the repeated attacks of Mr. Moore upon the character and standing of Gen. Henry M. Baker, the nominee of the Republicans of the Second Congressional District," and a man who only secured the nomination by the corrupt use of his wealth. The Democrats are also greatly encouraged by the fact that the November election will be the first held under the Australian ballot law. Harrison's plurality in 1888 was only 2,272, and if the Republicans of New Hampshire lose only half as much from "a free ballot" as their brethren in Vermont and Maine claim to have suffered, the new voting system will of itself give the State to Cleveland this year.

The nomination of a man for an office in the face of his declaration that he will not accept the nomination, always implies a certain amount of discourtesy to the person so chosen. The New Jersey Democrats, in persisting in nominating Judge Werts for Governor last week, refused to accept his repeated declaration that he would not run for the office. But political conventions, in many notable instances, have in this way ignored individual wishes, assuming that the claims of the party on any of its members are higher than any man's inclinations. Judge Werts is an able man, whose name has been associated at Trenton with many important measures, notably the State Ballot-Reform Law. He was put forward to defeat the Hudson County candidate who was most openly antagonistic to Gov. Abbett and his allies, but he is not an Abbett man, and, having accepted the nomination, if he be elected (as he doubtless will be), there is every reason to believe that New Jersey will be rid of the dictation of the family bosses who have so long made Jerseymen blush for the good name of the State.

There is a marked contrast between the attitude of the Wisconsin Republicans on the school issue this year and that of their brethren in Illinois. In 1890 the Wisconsin Republicans sustained the Compulsory Education Law (better known as the Bennett Law) as "wise and humane," and declared themselves "opposed to its repeal." The same year the Illinois Republicans declared themselves "in favor of a compulsory education law." In both States the Republicans were beaten. This year the Wisconsin Republicans have nominated for Governor ex-Senator Spooner upon a platform which declares this issue settled by the election of two years ago, and denounces any further agitation of the subject. The Illinois Republicans have renominated Gov. Fifer, who was first elected four years ago, and there has been much curiosity as to the stand he would take. He has defined his position clearly and boldly in a speech delivered at Earlville, "in the heart of the Lutheran section of the State," where the opposition to the law is most pronounced. He declared himself unqualifiedly in favor of the law, and a summary of his speech proceeds: "He said he was the uncompromising friend of the free-school system; he was in favor of compulsory education; he was for the principles involved in compulsory education, whether he was elected or not; he had nothing to conceal or cover up; he would deceive no one on this or any other question; before he would do that, he would keep the company of his self-respect and go into private life."

The Republicans have been expecting "confirmation" of the Peck contribution to statistical literature in this year's report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor. The report is now published, and indicates that while, for the ten years from 1875 to 1885, the value of goods made and work done in the manufacturing establishments reporting their condition showed an average increase of 3½ per cent. a year, the increase for the McKinley period, the year 1891, was only 1.33 per cent. In some industries losses are reported; in others there have been gains. In considering all returns of manufactures for the last year it should be remembered that big crops and good prices have had a very stimulating effect. Had these returns covered a period of agricultural depression, the figures on the loss side would be much larger. But a protectionist always credits every gain in business to the blessed tariff, just as the *Tribune* a few weeks ago credited a decrease in the price of print cloths (which did not exist) to the beneficent operation of a higher McKinley duty, although that particular duty had been reduced.

We expect to see, from this time on, much circumspection on the part of the Republicans in referring to Peck. He has had immense popularity with them, and has received the endorsement of all their great authorities, including the President himself. At present, however, he is under arrest for a crime of which the penalty is imprisonment for five years, or a fine of $5,000, or both. He is charged with having burned public documents in his care. These documents were the originals upon which he professed to base his famous report. He had been very valorous and even truculent in professing to be willing to show his data to anybody who doubted the accuracy of his figures, but as soon as a serious attempt was made to get him to show the original returns, he began to fight the matter in the courts, and now, while his case is still pending, is arrested for having destroyed the documents which it was his sworn duty to preserve. He ought now to turn his hand to criminal statistics.

We doubt if there has ever been a time when the editors of trade journals were so outspoken on tariff evils in connection with the particular industries they represent. They frequently tell McKinley that his superior wisdom in levying taxes was pure folly, so far as the business they know most about is concerned, and that he has done only harm; and sometimes they address a searching word to favored manufacturers themselves. A striking instance of the latter form of speaking out in meeting is furnished by the *Iron Trade Review* in its issue of September 8. This is, of course, a high-tariff paper, but it talks about the subject of steel rails in a deplorable manner. It asks "the steel-rail manufacturers of the country" such ugly questions as this: "With Bessemer pig at $17 in April, 1885, and steel rails then selling at a profit at $26, why should steel rails now be $4 higher, with Bessemer pig $3 lower than in '85?" Then it resorts to such an odious comparison as the following: "Paying 12 per cent. *more* now for Bessemer pig than they did in April, 1885, British railmakers are selling their product at 14 per cent. *less* than in the month and year named. The rail-manufacturers of the United States, on the other hand, are getting their Bessemer pig 18 per cent. *lower* than in April, 1885, but are selling their rails for nearly 16 per cent. *more*." It goes on to say that "no one could have more interest than the friends of a protective tariff in having a stop put to manifest abuses of it." Concluding, the *Review*, which, be it noted, is published right under McKinley's nose, has this to say of the most "scientific" and "symmetrical" tariff ever put together:

> "The theory of the $13.44 duty was that steel rails called for double the protection given to pig-iron. Even on that basis, the extreme price of steel rails should not exceed $28; but it is very evident, from the decreasing ratio in England between Bessemer iron and steel rails, and the actual ratio in this country of 1.53 in 1885, that the doubling of the pig-iron duty is not called for. The rail-manufacturers might avert a summary reduction by doing the fair thing themselves."

The lessening volume of our agricultural exports requires an explanation from McKinley. The August returns show a

diminution in exports of breadstuffs of $7,750,000, as compared with the same month last year. Moreover, the price of wheat averaged in August of this year only 84 cents a bushel, as against 106 in August, 1891. Now, McKinley has assured the farmers of the West that their great sales and high prices of last year were directly due to his benign methods of taxing money out of the foreigner's pockets and into theirs. But his law is still in force, and the question arises why it does not continue to perform its beneficent functions. We hope it will not be answered that better harvests in Europe have slackened the demand, for that would seem to imply that the McKinley Bill does not, as is claimed for it, override all natural laws, and would also call to mind the fact that last year there was an extraordinary European demand for our agricultural products. This would have fallen out to the profit of the Western farmer in any case.

The Chicago *Tribune* prints with comments the results of an investigation by the Chicago *Economist* into the cost of producing silver at the new mines of Creede, Colorado. The mines are called the Last Chance and the Amethyst. Since their opening last November, their combined product has been 2,000,000 ounces, or at the rate of 3,000,000 ounces for the first year. The writer puts their real capacity at 8,000,000 ounces per annum, a supply not hitherto included in our reports of silver production, and typical of Colorado silver-mining. Special investigation was made into the cost of working. The figures for the Last Chance are believed to be close to the real facts. This mine has already paid $750,000 in dividends since its opening, nine months ago. Calculating all expenses and outlays, including cost of boarding-houses, wagon-roads, etc., it is found that the average cost of the silver produced has been 24½ cents per ounce. This cost will be less when certain items of more or less permanent character have been written off. It is asserted that the running expenses of the Last Chance mine are but 5 or 6 per cent. of the income. The cost of production at the Amethyst mine cannot be so closely ascertained, but is estimated at 44 cents per ounce after allowing for all outlays.

The Last Chance Mine has been marketing at about 88 cents per ounce silver which it has cost the mine only 24½ cents per ounce to produce. Its owners are representative of silver-men who are clamoring for $1.29 per ounce even if all trade be demoralized in consequence. Even if we take the case of the Amethyst, we find that silver under unfavorable conditions is being mined for one-half the ruling market price. We have here a fresh illustration of the oft-stated cause for the decline in the price of silver. At the present price there is enormous profit in silver-mining. How can we, as reasonable men, expect a lessening in the production of silver under such conditions? And how can we also expect anything but a continuous decline in the market price of silver until that price approximates the cost of production in the more expensive mines? Could even the adoption of bimetallism stop it permanently? "There is no reason," concludes the *Tribune*, "why the people of the United States or the rest of the world should be compelled to pay ever so much more if they can obtain all the silver they want to use at the low figures mentioned. It would be just as absurd to demand that not a single bushel of wheat shall be marketed at less than $1.50 because some few men exceptionally placed cannot afford to raise it for less, while plenty of other farmers find a fair profit in selling below $1 per bushel."

The labor market is generally thought to be pretty well supplied in this country, but there is one department in which the demand seems never to be satisfied. This is domestic service, and the complaints of the difficulty of securing women for such work, no matter how high the wages offered, are as loud in the West as in the East. A new employment bureau was recently started in Omaha, Neb., by female members of the Knights of Labor, but the *World-Herald* characterizes it as "rather superfluous, for the reason that there seems to be no one who wants employment." It says that, all over the city, women who keep house are in want of servants, and it is in vain that they offer good wages and inducements of every other sort. It concludes that "there evidently are not enough women in need of bread and butter who are willing to enter domestic service to fill the places which are vacant. The employment agencies already in existence are in many cases obliged to tell applicants for help that it is beyond their power to supply them." This universal lack of supply of domestic servants, in a country where there are so many complaints that women have to work at "starvation wages," is one of the most extraordinary phenomena of the day.

Mayor Grant's request to the President, in behalf of the city government, to exercise all the authority which he possesses "to prevent further immigration to this country until all fear of the introduction of cholera shall have disappeared," is likely to serve a useful purpose, whatever response the President may make to it. It will stimulate discussion of the question, and thus bring us nearer to the adoption of some remedy for future emergencies. There is no doubt that the stopping of immigration would remove all danger of the introduction of cholera to this country whenever it breaks out in Europe, for all medical authorities are agreed with Dr. Shakespeare of Philadelphia that "the only source of danger of cholera finding a foothold, when inspection is properly performed at quarantine, lies in its introduction by the emigrant classes." It may be that an international agreement could be made by which all migration should be arrested as soon as cholera made its appearance as an epidemic in any part of the world; but a notice on the part of our Government that no immigrants would be allowed to land would accomplish the same purpose.

Considerable tension has developed in the relations of Chili and Peru, growing out of a protocol recently signed by the Government of the former country and the French Minister in Santiago. Under the terms of the treaty of peace which closed the war between Chili and Peru in 1883, Chili was to take possession for ten years of the two guano-producing provinces of Peru, Tacna and Arica; at the end of that period the final ownership of the territory was to be determined by the vote of its inhabitants, and the country obtaining it was to pay the other $10,000,000. In the meantime Chili was to take charge of the exports of guano, reserving for herself one-half of the resulting profits and depositing the rest in the Bank of England for the benefit of creditors of Peru, principally French, whose loans had been secured by liens upon the guano product. Under this agreement there has been deposited in the Bank of England something like $2,700,000, while the share falling to the Chilians has been invested in 4½ per cent. national bonds.

Now the protocol agreed upon between the French Minister and Chili directs a pro-rata distribution among the creditors of the $2,700,000, and provides further that 80 per cent. of the amount received from the guano by Chili and invested in national bonds be likewise turned over to the French holders of Peruvian securities. This is to be taken by the French creditors as a complete discharge of all their claims against Chili growing out of the Peruvian war, and, it is alleged, by a secret article France in addition undertakes to maintain the preponderance of Chili on the Pacific. It is doubtless this last provision which is the main source of Peru's irritation, as it would bring to naught her reported alliances with Brazil and the Argentine Republic. But against even the open clauses of the protocol she has lodged a vigorous protest, maintaining that many of the French claims admitted into it were fraudulent, and that, in any case, their validity should have been passed upon by a Peruvian tribunal. The controversy, which threatens to become embittered, is particularly unfortunate in coming within a year of the time when the plébiscite must be resorted to to determine the possession of Tacna and Arica.

PARTY VALUE OF A SECRET BALLOT.

THE admission of Republican leaders and journals that wherever the Australian ballot system has been put in operation in this country "it has worked against the Republican party," is one which they will be wise not to "dismiss with a smile," for the fact has a very ominous significance for them. Of course they do not believe for a moment their own explanations of the falling off of their vote in Vermont and Maine at the recent elections. They know that there is something else than "sensitiveness" and "timidity" at work in their party when its vote falls off heavily and the Democratic vote remains unchanged. It is merely stress of weather which forces them to take the position that, while all except one of the Democratic voters in Vermont were able to deposit their ballots under the new system, over nine thousand Republican voters were either too illiterate or too indifferent to do so.

The true explanation of the case is plain enough. No intelligent person thinks it a fact that the entire Democratic vote deposited in Vermont was cast by men who had hitherto voted only with that party. There had been no active Democratic campaign, and no especial effort made to bring the Democratic voters to the polls. There was no hope of the Democrats carrying the State, as they were the same forlorn minority that they have always been. If it be reasonable to say that Republican voters stayed at home because their party was sure of a majority anyway, it is none the less reasonable to say that Democratic voters stayed away because they had no hope of success. If the new ballot system drove away nine thousand Republicans, it must also have driven away many Democrats. How could the full Democratic vote be maintained, then? Simply by having some Republicans change their votes to that side.

That there were changes of this kind in both Vermont and Maine no person capable of forming an intelligent opinion on the subject will question. It was said by the Philadelphia *Press* recently that there "is no use of disguising the fact that the Republican vote, in New York State particularly, has fallen off greatly in the localities where the party was especially strong, since the new ballot law went into effect." Here is the same excuse of falling off on the Republican side alone. What happened in this State is precisely what happened in Vermont and Maine, namely, that many Republican voters went over to the Democratic side, being helped in doing so by the shield of a secret ballot. For the first time they could vote without any one knowing the way in which they voted. In rural communities any man, under the old system, was able to see how his neighbor voted, and no man could change his party affiliations without subjecting himself to a great deal of annoyance and, sometimes, persecution. Under the secret ballot he can make the change and say nothing about it, and nobody will be a bit the wiser.

So, too, with the employee, who, under the old system, was kept close watch of by his employer and compelled to vote in the latter's interest. He can vote as he pleases now with no fear of consequences. Then there is the bribed voter. He cannot be followed to the polls to see whether or not he earns his money, and the consequence is that he is no longer bribed. Neither can the local leader or boss follow his men to the polls to see if they vote in obedience to orders. All these effects of a secret ballot were predicted by the advocates of the new system and were the chief reasons advanced for its adoption. If the Republican party is found to be the chief sufferer, it is simply because it has been the party which has indulged most in the abuses which have been abolished.

We do not see how the Republicans can hope for a more friendly working of the system in other States than they have experienced in New England and New York. It has worked very badly for them in Indiana in one State election, and there is little reason to think it will work any better for them in the national election. Certainly the Dudley "blocks-of-five" method will not be practicable under it, for the voters must go to the polls singly and must mark their ballots in secret. In every manufacturing centre in thirty-five States the employees of protected manufacturers will deposit their ballots free from all espionage and intimidation, and this is certain to "work against the Republican party." Everywhere throughout thirty-five States bribery will be impracticable, because it will be impossible to see if the bad bargain is kept.

But, above all, we believe that the most deadly effect which the new system will have upon the Republican cause will be due to the secrecy which it will throw around regular party voters who for a long time have wished to register a protest against the high-tariff abomination, but have been too timid to do it with the eyes of their party associates upon them. They can prepare their ballots in secret now and vote them in secret, and they will hasten to improve the opportunity. We believe that it is to such voters that the Republican losses in Vermont and Maine and New York are due, and that there will be similar losses revealed in all other parts of the country when the November returns come to hand.

DR. JENKINS AND THE OTHER DOCTORS.

CURIOUSLY enough, whenever we are threatened with cholera, courage suddenly loses its place among the social virtues. The cowards come out of their concealment and unblushingly avow that, although brave as lions in the presence of other dangers, in the presence of cholera they are willing to commit or connive at any species of atrocity, not simply to avoid cholera, but to avoid even a remote chance of catching it. For the chance of catching it to which a cleanly, well-fed, careful man is exposed in any modern city is almost infinitesimally small. Even in Hamburg, during the last few weeks, we could probably count on our fingers the number of such persons who have fallen victims to it. If cholera were raging in New York to-day, such persons would probably be in far less danger from it than they are from typhoid fever every fall, or pneumonia every winter. The doctors know little more about its transmission, apparently, than that *one* mode of transmission is direct contact. There may be other modes, as we see from the way it seems to drop down into streets and houses far removed from any known source of contagion. But one thing is certain, and that is that well-fed, cleanly people, whose nerves are not shaken by its approach, and whose minds are not occupied with it, seldom if ever catch it. This, which has been long known, has almost received scientific demonstration from the experiments which Dr. Jenkins has been making, as on a *corpus vile*, on the cabin passengers of the *Normannia*, *Rugia*, *Wyoming*, and other ships in the lower bay—experiments which no physician would have dared to make in any hospital in the world, and which nothing but the cowardice of the intelligent and well-to-do class in New York would have permitted for one hour.

For be it remarked, in the first place, that these performances of Dr. Jenkins have been and are clearly illegal. The statute from which he derives his authority (chap. 486 of the Laws of the 115th Session, passed May 5, 1892, section 26), prescribes:

> "That, on the arrival of an infected vessel, all well persons on board shall have their freedom as soon as possible consistently with the regulations prescribed by, or pursuant to, the present law. All sick persons shall be *immediately* transferred to the hospital set apart for their reception, and the vessel unladen, purified, and admitted to pratique as soon as possible. Persons sick with different diseases shall be kept separately."

Section 4 of the same statute says that the Quarantine Commissioners

> "may make such rules and regulations, *not inconsistent with law*, as they shall deem necessary for the care and protection of each portion of the quarantine establishment, for the government of employees therein, for the regulation and conduct of all quarantinable persons, and for the prevention of communication or intercourse with any quarantinable vessel. *Well persons shall not be detained unnecessarily*, and in cases of exigency all means conducive to the protection of the public health shall be adopted."

Now, the Health Officer, acting under this statute, has in the case of the *Normannia* held 500 well persons in confinement for a fortnight on board ship, and in the case of the *Rugia* 80 well persons for more than two weeks, in close contact with disease, apparently for the purpose of seeing whether, under these most unwholesome conditions, they would not catch cholera. Was this "conducive to the public health"? Under what regulation

"not inconsistent with the law" was it done and is it being done now?

These are important questions, but there is a more important question still: Why did and do the bar, the press, the doctors, and the clergy stand by and see it done? Where are the "patriots" who wanted to go to war with Chili because two or three drunken sailors were killed in a street fight? Is there a man among us who would consent to save this city from a foreign invader by giving up 600 innocent women and children and infirm to be tortured by him? Who among us would agree to arrest such an invader by poisoning wells, or killing or starving prisoners, or sending infected clothing to his camp? And what is there in the danger of cholera to convert us into helpless cravens, ready to resort to or connive at any means, however cruel, or illegal, or unscientific, in order to avoid it—nay, even to abjure the usages of civilized warfare in our treatment of our own countrymen at our own gates? *All* means of escape from danger are not open to civilized Christian communities. The measures taken for this end must be plainly necessary; they must be humane; they must be remedial; and they must be carried out by competent sanitarians. The Health Officer at the port of New York ought not only to stand high among doctors, but to have enough administrative talent to command a division in time of war or manage a great railroad.

Nor is this the worst. We have handed and are handing these unhappy people over to a man who not only has not the moral or intellectual, but has not the legal qualification for his place. Of his capacity as an administrator we need not speak after the events of the last ten days. The statute we have already quoted, art. 2, sec. 12, wisely provides that the Health Officer of the Port of New York

"shall be a doctor of medicine of good standing of at least ten years' experience in the practice of his profession, and *practically familiar with quarantinable diseases.*"

Quarantinable diseases are yellow fever, cholera, typhus and ship fever, smallpox, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, and relapsing fever, or any disease of an "infectious or pestilential nature." Now, we challenge Dr. Jenkins and his supporters to say where or when he ever practised his profession even for two years, and where and when he ever treated a case of quarantinable disease. Dr. Jenkins was graduated from the Medical Department of the University of the City of New York in 1882, at the age of twenty-six. He spent the two years while at this college, as young doctors usually spend them, we presume, in some kind of dispensary practice, and in the year of his graduation became a deputy coroner or post-mortem doctor, which place he filled till appointed, in January of this year, Health Officer of the Port of New York, at a salary of $12,500!

It is impossible, we are sorry to say, to acquit the doctors of the city of the largest share of responsibility for this great national scandal. The press, it is true, started the panic which developed the selfishness and cowardice that gave Jenkins his chance. But what medical man has said one word *publicly* to quell it, to restore the reign of reason and humanity, or to make the world acquainted with the incompetency of the man on whom the city was relying to "keep out the cholera"? What other body could have spoken with the same authority? How was it that they, knowing well that this barbarous and illegal quarantine which Jenkins was enforcing had been abandoned as useless and cruel by other civilized nations, never said so *openly*, never called attention to the immunity of England from cholera, though ten times more exposed than we are, without other quarantine than two days' watching of the well in their own homes, and the treatment of the sick in the hospital, without inflicting any suffering or indignity on any human being? We have received the following explanation from a leading member of the profession in a private letter, but we must honestly say that it does not explain the failure of the profession to speak out. He says:

"Politics, incompetency, and inhumanity have played a sad part in your lives during the past few weeks. That the *Normannia's* passengers have escaped in spite of the odds against them may well be a subject of national thanksgiving. The medical profession were bound hand and foot, so far as practical usefulness was concerned, until Dr. Jenkins accepted the assistance of the Advisory Board, through the pressure brought upon him by the Chamber of Commerce and public opinion. I have heard frequently through colleagues during the past fortnight of the condition of affairs at Quarantine, which they denounce in no uncertain terms, but which they were powerless to change. The general medical opinion is that there is not a single redeeming feature in Jenkins's case. To know that an office which demands equally an administrative ability of the highest order and technical knowledge can be bestowed on one lamentably deficient in both, is a sad reflection upon the power of politics for evil, and the powerlessness of public and professional opinion for good, in questions even affecting the health and life of a nation."

This is all true, but, if true, why was the Chamber of Commerce meeting on Friday week allowed, without a word of protest, to "put on record its hearty appreciation of the energetic action of the Health Department of the city of New York"; and why was the meeting of citizens on the evening of Thursday week, which contained at least two eminent physicians, allowed to "recognize the successful efforts put forth by Dr. Jenkins as Health Officer of this port to keep the cholera out of the city of New York"—the said Jenkins being at that time actually engaged in the perpetration of an atrocious and illegal attack on the public health in the lower bay, by the deliberate and protracted exposure to infection of some 600 or 700 men, women, and children? Do we not find in these things some excuse for the cowardly and rabid exploits of the Long Island clam-diggers?

PROTECTION IN CANADA.

THE Department of Agriculture of the Dominion of Canada has recently published a bulletin showing the number of industrial establishments in the Dominion, the number of persons employed therein, and the wages paid these employees now as compared with the wages paid in 1881. When this bulletin appeared, we examined it with some care, but reached the conclusion that its results, so far as comparative wages were concerned, were unworthy of confidence. Our conclusion was based upon the fact that the census of 1881 furnished no information as to the number of days during which the establishments reporting were at work. The census of 1891 showed that of 75,768 establishments 48,748 had been running full time during the year ending April, 1891, 12,981 half time, and 14,039 quarter time. It is obvious that when aggregate wages for the year are given, the average wages per diem depend greatly upon the number of days worked. The only possible way, therefore, of comparing the average wages of 1891 with those of 1881 was to assume that the number of days worked was the same in both years. This was the method employed by the Department of Agriculture, and while it may have been the only method available it is not scientific. It may lead to correct results, but it can do so only by chance. The inference, therefore, that the average wages paid in Canada are from 16 to 18 per cent. higher than those paid ten years ago, we were unable to regard as justified by the evidence, although we do not regard it as improbable.

But this bulletin has now become invested with an extrinsic interest, owing to the fact that the New York *Tribune*, in its desperate clutching at straws, and perhaps in its anxiety to distract attention from Commissioner Peck's blunders, has seized upon it as a possible argument for the McKinley Law. It must be confessed that its argument is extremely ingenious; so much so that it may be doubted if it would have suggested itself to the ordinary protectionist. He would have been apt to say, on seeing this bulletin, "See what protection has done for Canada!" without thinking of the meagre advance in wages in some unprotected industries in this country, and the decline in protected industries, disclosed by the Senate's Committee on Finance. The *Tribune* has been more astute, and boldly takes the position that the advance in wages in Canada has been due to protection in the United States. It concedes, apparently, that if they had had the genuine American non-exportable article of protection in Canada, the result might have been different; but, owing to the fact that the Canadians have tried to get along with a cheap and inferior substitute, a "hesitating and partial protection," their wages have been lower than ours. Wages being higher here, the pauper laborers of Cana-

da have flocked hither, and the diminution of the supply of labor there has had the natural effect of raising wages.

The argument of the *Tribune*, however, lacks completeness. There are inferences to be drawn from it about which the *Tribune* is silent, but which the laboring-men of this country will not overlook. The most obvious of these inferences is, that, since a diminution of the number of laborers in Canada has caused the rate of wages there to rise, the increase in the number of laborers here caused by the Canadian emigration must have caused wages here to fall, or at least not to rise to the same extent as they would have risen but for this emigration. It is therefore an undeniable consequence of American protection that, by stimulating the importation of cheap foreign labor, it has injuriously affected the condition of American labor. There is nothing new about this proposition, but it is well that it should be publicly confessed as the real doctrine of the Republican party.

As if by way of emphasizing this confession, the *Tribune* has recently published several letters from Canada which contain statements to the effect that there are over a million French-Canadian emigrants in the United States; the emigration amounting to 40,000 or 50,000 this year—say 4 per cent. of the population of the province of Quebec. This emigration, it is added, has been enormously stimulated by the McKinley Act. Without "American protection" these people would have for the most part remained at home, but the McKinley Act is driving them into this country in hordes. It is true that some of them, like the heathen Chinese, return, carrying their savings with them, and that "an enormous amount of money is sent by French-Canadians in the States to their friends in Canada." But this does not discourage the *Tribune's* correspondent, who cheerfully assures the laboring people of America that the Canadians who are here are going to stay, that the exodus will greatly increase, and that these people are distinguished by their willingness to accept low wages. Moreover, he adds, it is the most prolific people in the world, and he cites the case of ten couples in a single community of 1,200 inhabitants who rejoice in descendants numbering 527 souls. According to the view of the *Tribune*, Quebec is to become, under the beneficent policy of McKinley, a mere breeding-ground for laborers who are to hasten across the frontier as soon as they are able, and enter into competition with American citizens. Democratic campaign orators will do well to impress this upon their audiences.

No one who has visited the interior of Quebec can have failed to be charmed with the many virtues of the people, and we are far from saying that their emigration to this country in moderate numbers is undesirable. But their standard of living is undeniably low, they are ignorant, superstitious, and, where there is an admixture of Indian blood, often dangerously vicious. We can assimilate them if they do not come in masses, but if the McKinley Act has the effect attributed to it by the *Tribune*—and we are inclined to believe the statement to a certain extent in spite of its authorship—of forcing the French-Canadians off their farms and compelling them to crowd into New England, it had better be repealed. The policy of "building up our industries" by imposing a tax upon all Americans for the benefit of any foreigner who chooses to emigrate here with all his "pauper laborers," bringing his machinery with him, is one that fills the *Tribune's* heart with joy and exultation. It has little to recommend it, either to the American manufacturers or to the American laborers, who find foreign competition more tolerable on the other side of the ocean than at their own thresholds. Not thus is either the American manufacturer or the American home to be protected.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

No little attention has been called, during the past year, to the University of Chicago. The rapid enrolment in America and Europe of a large staff of professors, many of whom have been attracted by larger salaries from established institutions of the highest character; the number and variety of courses announced and projected; and, above all, a certain audacity of initiative and dash in execution, which may be unacademic but are none the less typically American—all these things have excited interest, and have also (we say it without the slightest intention of criticism) secured for the enterprise that liberal advertisement without which nothing appears to "go" in our day and country. But in the multitude of press notices too little heed has been taken of the innovations of real interest, and the educational experiments of indubitable value, that are outlined in the preliminary circulars of the University. We base our comments on the *Quarterly Calendar* for June, the issue announced for September not having reached us; but it is unlikely that any of the principal features of what is clearly a carefully considered scheme will be modified before the University opens in October.

Any criticism must necessarily be prefaced by a statement of the general plan of organization, which is in some respects a novel one, and an explanation of the terminology employed, which is even more novel. In ordinary phraseology, the University may be said to consist of a graduate department and a college proper. There is also a divinity school, and other professional schools are projected; and there is a separate department of "university extension"; but these call for no especial comment. In the college proper there are three parallel courses of study, leading respectively to the degrees of A.B., Ph.B., and B.S. These several courses, at Chicago, are termed "colleges" of "liberal arts," of "literature," and of "science." There is also a cross-line of cleavage between the sophomore and junior years of each of these colleges; the two lower years being termed the "academic college" and the two higher years the "university college." We have thus six "colleges," three "academic" and three "university"; and two more are projected, with the view of creating a four years' course in "practical arts." In the general construction of the three parallel courses which are to be thrown open in October, there is little that is new. It is the familiar "group system." To obtain the degree of A.B., the student must devote more than half of his freshman and sophomore years to Greek, Latin, and mathematics, and at least one-third of his junior and senior years to mathematics, languages, and the political and social sciences. For the degree of Ph.B. an increased amount of work is required in the modern languages and in history, with less mathematics and no Greek. For the degree of B.S. an equivalent for Greek is found in the modern languages and natural science. All these courses contain the same amount of obligatory Latin. In the entrance requirements we find a real innovation—anticipated in principle, it is true, at Harvard, but carried through more logically at Chicago. There are no less than six groups of subjects, and in three of these there is no Greek. Substitutes are found in the modern languages and the natural sciences, in varying proportions. Latin, however, is required in all cases. All this, with one exception, is in accordance with the educational tendencies of the day. The exception is the multiplication of baccalaureate degrees. We cannot see why each of these "colleges" should not award the degree of A.B. Each curriculum contains a fair amount of classics, modern languages (including, of course, English), history and political science, mathematics, and natural science. Each, therefore, affords the essential elements of a liberal education. We do not perceive why those students who have devoted a greater amount of time to natural or political science and to the modern languages and literatures should be put off with a B.S. or a Ph.B.—degrees which are commonly regarded as inferior.

An especially interesting innovation is to be found in the manner in which the course chosen by each student is to be accomplished, as regards the arrangement of subjects and hours. Each student is held to attend fifteen hours of class-room work per week, and this time is to be devoted to only two or three subjects at once. The normal arrangement restricts him to two subjects at a time, one of ten and one of five hours. The unit of measurement, called a "major," is a ten-hour course running through six weeks. A five-hour course running the same length of time is a "minor," and this, of course, is reckoned as half a unit. Under this system the "academic" students, *i.e.*, the freshmen and sophomores, work off their required subjects two at a time. A candidate for A.B. might devote himself, as a freshman, to Greek, Latin, and English exclusively, and complete in that year all that is required in these departments during the first two years. In his second year he would then confine himself to mathematics, natural science, French and German, and history. Within each year the concentration of subjects would go still further: all the required Greek, for example, could be completed in a portion of one academic year. This is an interesting reaction against the scattering system now in vogue. In many of our colleges the time of the student is frittered away in one hour and two-hour courses, and his attention distracted by the pursuit of half-a-dozen different subjects at once. But we think that the reaction has been carried too far. If it is true, as many teachers complain, that a course of one or two hours a week is almost useless, it seems to us, on the other hand, that a course of ten hours a week is strikingly near a "cram," and

that its results must be as evanescent as those of other "crams." If a boy of eighteen be thus "railroaded" through a portion of the 'Odyssey' in six weeks, what residual impression can there be in his mind when he is twenty-eight?

This system becomes even more questionable when it is applied to juniors, seniors, and graduates. The principle of concentration, indeed, becomes more justifiable; for with increasing maturity the student may specialize with increasing profit. But the majors, or ten-hour courses, are open to criticism on other grounds. It is clearly recognized by the Chicago authorities that the method of instruction in the "university colleges" and the "graduate school" should be different from that followed in the "academic colleges." Instead of recitations there are to be lectures. In many of the ten-hour courses the lectures are to be "informal," and there are to be "discussions." The students are to be held to outside reading, and are to prepare essays on special points. It is obvious that courses of this character are what the Germans call "Seminaria"; and the fact that in the Chicago plan they are called "courses," while other similar courses are called "seminaries," does not establish any real difference. Fifteen hours a week of this sort of work, we think, is quite too much to demand of a university student. If he is really to be trained in investigation, he needs more time in the library and less in the classroom. Moreover, the experience of the German and of the leading American universities has demonstrated that a capable instructor does not need to meet seminary students more than once a week for a couple of hours in order to learn what they are doing and direct them in what they are to do. If the students have more time than this for "discussion," their remarks will be of a very speculative and a-priori character, and the University seminary will degenerate into a sophomoric debating society. We venture to predict, therefore, that in courses of this sort the "informal lectures" of the instructor will assume great prominence; that they will practically become lecture courses.

Viewed from this standpoint, they are still too heavy. There are few subjects in which the student can profitably listen to ten or even eight lectures a week. He can scarcely assimilate what is given him, and he certainly cannot supplement the lectures by a proper amount of outside reading. There is, we concede, a great difference in the amount of time that can be advantageously employed in the class-room in different subjects. In some of the German universities there are law courses of twelve hours a week in a single subject (Pandects), and we have no doubt that the same amount of time could be used to still greater advantage in an American law school in discussing cases on the Harvard plan. It may be that President Harper can make good use of ten hours a week in exercises on Genesis i-viii in the Hebrew, and it is not unlikely that the same amount of time can be improved in reading the "inscriptions of the Achæmenian Kings" in the Old Persian; but we doubt whether Prof. Starr will get as good results from his "major" in general ethnology as he would obtain by giving a "double minor," *i. e.*, a course half as heavy and running twice as many weeks. And we are quite sure that the historical professor who is to rush advanced students through the Renaissance, the Protestant Revolution, the Thirty Years' War, and the Age of Louis XIV. in twenty-four weeks, will obtain very unsatisfactory results indeed.

It is significant that this professor has not been found, or at least had not been found up till June. It is significant that the professors who have been appointed and who have (presumably) fixed their own courses, offer to the university students minors only in philosophy, in political economy, in history, and (with the one exception above noted) in social science and anthropology. In these departments we find 111 courses announced or projected, of which only seven are to be majors, and for six of these majors the professor is not yet found. In these departments, accordingly, the system is obviously breaking down before it is fairly initiated. It is a step in the right direction that the university majors and minors may, under the existing regulations, be cut down from ten and five to eight and four hours. It would be still better to reduce them to six and three hours respectively.

But there is a further objection to the whole system. The designation of certain courses as major and of certain others as minor, whether it proceeds from the University authorities or from the several professors, is an arbitrary designation. It is the first principle of true university work that one subject is as important as another, and it is a necessary corollary of this principle that the university student should be permitted to determine for himself on what lines he will do his chief work, *i. e.*, that he should make his own major. In the Eastern universities, *e. g.*, at Columbia and Johns Hopkins, this is fully recognized and provided for. Any subject that is taught may be selected as a major subject for the degrees of A.M. and Ph.D.; and any subject may be taken, at the pleasure of the student, either as a major or as a minor. The student who takes a subject as his major is required to do more work, and particularly more original work. Under this system, of course, the crude measurement of the student's work by hours of attendance in the lecture-room is discarded. It seems to us that the Chicago authorities have made a mistake in carrying this system of measurement into the university years. The mistake is the more serious because it is the announced purpose of the University to devote its chief attention to its more advanced instruction, and as soon as possible to throw off its "academic" work upon "affiliated" institutions.

Some final reflections, suggested by the Chicago *Calendar*, touch the government of the University. It is, we think, one of the greatest errors of American university organization that so much power is exercised by the trustees and by the president, and so little by the corps of professors. The professors really make the university, and they ought to determine its educational policy. At Chicago it seems to us that far too much has been settled in advance by the president and trustees without the possibility of consultation with the faculties. The circumstances, of course, are exceptional; the University had to be organized in some fashion before there could be any faculties to consult. But was it necessary to elaborate the educational plan in such detail? And is the dictatorship of the president, necessary as it may be in such a formative period, to be prolonged after the University is fairly in operation, or is a constitutional era to be inaugurated?

The *Calendar* informs us that, under the trustees and in addition to the president, the deans, etc., there are to be two organs of university government. The "University Council" consists of deans and other administrative officials. It is clearly an administrative body, pure and simple. But the "University Senate" is composed of professors, and this body is to "discuss *and decide* matters relating to the educational work of the University." This seems satisfactory as regards the powers of the Senate. But its composition is open to criticism. It consists only of "Heads of Departments of Instruction." This excludes all junior professors, and makes the body ultra-conservative. In Columbia, which has not commonly been regarded as a radical institution, the central organ of the professors, the University Council, consists of delegates from the several faculties; and in the election of these delegates the junior and assistant professors have the same voice as their seniors. It is certainly surprising to discover that a more conservative, not to say reactionary, policy has been adopted at Chicago.

OUTLETS TO THE GREAT LAKES.

North Bay, Ont., September 9, 1892.

I have just discovered a link in the geological history of the Great Lakes which cannot fail to interest the general public as much as it will the scientific world. As frequently happens, however, the discovery is not unexpected, but has been made in following out lines of inquiry suggested by earlier discoveries of many investigators.

Now that the railroads have completed so many surveys of the territory surrounding the Great Lakes which lie along the frontier between Canada and the United States, we are able to engage in special explorations of the region under peculiar advantages, and to forecast results in a way that would have been impossible a few years ago. Accurate topographical surveys of the region bring impressively to light the fact that the direction which the vast volume of waters in the upper four of our Great Lakes should take, depends upon a very slight accident of nature. Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan are substantially on the same level—a little less than 600 feet above the sea. Lake Superior is but thirty feet higher, and flows into them. A moment's inspection of any map will show that the watershed around these lakes is surprisingly narrow. The tributaries of the Mississippi rise within a few miles of Lake Erie, and penetrate almost to the limits of the city of Chicago, while the Mattawan, one of the tributaries of the Ottawa, reaches to within three miles of Lake Nipissing, which is but little above Lake Huron and tributary to it. Thus it appears that these lakes occupy a saucer-shaped general depression near the height of the tableland in the centre of the continent, and that a slight tilting of the edges of the plateau one way or another would determine the direction of overflow. At present the status of the plateau is such that the water runs over the precipice at Niagara. But an elevation of less than fifty feet at Niagara, or a depression of an equal amount at Chicago, would turn the stream into the Mississippi through the Illinois River. The fact which has been brought clearly to light by recent surveys is that a subsidence amounting to only a trifle more than a hundred feet would turn the current from Lake Huron through Lake Nipissing into the Mattawan and thence into the Ottawa. The discovery referred to in the opening sentence is of the fact that this was probably for a considerable period the actual outlet, and one which then robbed Niagara of the most of its glory.

The surmises leading to this discovery are connected with the history of the glacial period. It now seems clear that the glacial

period was preceded, and perhaps brought on, by an extensive elevation (probably not over 3,000 feet) of the land south and east of James Bay. During this period of elevation nearly all the rivers of the Atlantic Basin excavated deep gorges and cañons, like those of the Saguenay and the Hudson, which then extended a hundred miles or more further out than at present over a plateau which is now covered with comparatively shallow water. But the culmination of the great ice age was marked by a depression of the glaciated area, which increased in amount towards the centre of ice-accumulation. The subsidence, which was 230 feet on the south shore of Maine and about the same east of Lake Ontario, was 500 feet at Montreal, and in the far North 1,000 feet or more. This is shown by deposits of sea shells overlying the glacial deposits in these regions.

Reasoning from this differential northerly subsidence, it was surmised by Mr. Gilbert of the United States Geological Survey some years ago, that it was probably sufficient to change the attitude of the rim of the Great Lakes, so that their outlet would be turned into the Ottawa. The correctness of this surmise and the actual course of the early outlet are fully established in my own mind by the investigations of the last few days. In pursuing them it has been intensely exciting to see with one's own eyes direct evidence that the engineers of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, when following the trail of Champlain, the earliest white explorer of this region, were not only paying tribute to the skill of the Indians in selecting the lowest passes from one valley to another, but were also unsuspectingly utilizing one of the most remarkable of nature's highways.

In the year 1613 Champlain worked his way up the Ottawa from Montreal about 200 miles to the site of Fort Coulonge, the gathering-place at that time of the Ottawa Indians. Here he heard of the Nipissing and Huron Indians, and established trading connections with them. Two years later, or in 1615, the great explorer set out again in the same direction, following close upon the footsteps of Father Le Caron, a Catholic missionary who had already started to preach the Gospel to the Hurons. Passing the limits of his former expedition, Champlain reached the mouth of the Mattawan River, about 300 miles above Montreal, and, turning up that stream along the trail of the Hurons, he found himself conducted through various long and narrow lakes (one of which still bears his name), separated by short portages, to the shore of Lake Nipissing, where lately there has sprung up the bustling railroad town of North Bay. In early post-glacial times, there can be little doubt, this part of his route, from the mouth of the Mattawan to Lake Nipissing, was occupied by a stream which is now represented in its mission by the Niagara. The evidences of this can be briefly stated and easily understood.

Lake Nipissing is scarcely seventy feet above Lake Huron, emptying into it through French River. The western extremity of Trout Lake, the source of the Mattawan, is less than three miles from North Bay on Lake Nipissing, and is separated from it by a wide swampy channel, which is only about twenty-five feet above the level of either lake. This portion of the channel we have explored and determined its capacity for conducting the waters of the Great Lakes over into the present watershed of the Ottawa when called upon to do so, and there is no other passage so low between the upper end of Lake Erie and Hudson Bay.

On looking for more positive evidence, we find it in a clearly defined shore-line of well-rounded pebbles extending upon the north side of the channel from one lake to the other, and at a uniform height of about fifty feet above the connecting channel. This shore-line is as well defined as that on the banks of the Niagara River just west of the present cataract. Such a deposit could not have been formed along this connecting depression except by a stream of vast size passing from Lake Nipissing into the Mattawan.

It is, however, on going down to the junction of this outlet with the Ottawa that the most positive and striking evidence is seen. For ten miles above the junction, signs of the old river terraces are more or less visible high above the present stream; but at the junction there is an accumulation of river deposits unparalleled, probably, by anything else in the world. The lower angle of the junction between the two streams is filled to a height of eighty feet or more above the present water level with a boulder bed about half a mile in width and extending up the Mattawan for nearly a mile, where it shades off into finer material. On the upper angle the Mattawan is bordered by a terrace equally high, but consisting for the most part of fine gravel. These boulders in the lower angle are well rounded and many of them of enormous size. Thousands of them are several feet in diameter, while some which we measured were thirty feet in diameter and were resting on loose material. The trough of the Ottawa is here 500 or 600 feet below the general level of the country, and this accumulation is clearly a terrace and not a simple glacial moraine, for it is level-topped and has every characteristic of the deltas which are built up where a tributary of rapid descent joins a large valley. It is peculiar only for its enormous amount and for the enormous size of its constituent material. That it is a delta brought down by the Mattawan and not by the Ottawa is shown by the fact that it has dammed the latter stream, producing in it deep water above and rapids below. This action of tributary streams is finely illustrated in Gen. Warren's report upon the characteristics of the Upper Mississippi River, from which it appears that in this stream there is shallow water below the mouth of every considerable tributary and deep water above. The explanation is that the rapid-flowing tributary brings into the slower-moving current of the main stream coarser material than it can handle, and so a bar is pushed out completely across the larger and broader channel. This is just what has been done by the Mattawan at its junction with the Ottawa; and the material of both the delta and the bar is such as only a stream like Niagara, rushing down a declivity of several feet to the mile, could transport. In this case, however, it is not probable that the larger boulders were transported far by the river. They had first been brought into the lower part of the valley of the Mattawan by the ice movement, which, all over this region, is from the northeast.

The scenes thus brought to the mind's eye by these significant phenomena contrast strangely with those which have greeted our senses during the past weeks of exploration. Then it was the roaring rapids of Niagara, crowded into still narrower compass, and rushing through a treeless and tenantless waste which the long winter of the glacial period had just released from its relentless grasp. Now, in their impression upon the senses, the noises of the destructive saw-mill and of the sluggish freight-train alternate with the splash of the voyageur as he pushes us along in his birch-bark canoe through the still water of narrow lakes bordered by luxuriant forests from whose depths come the cheerful, but, to us of the south country, unseasonable, song of the spring bird and the chickadeedee. The romance of science, of history, and of vacation life are here united to perfection.

Since the scenes of the earlier time, many thousand years have rolled by, and meanwhile the northern country, which had been so much depressed beneath its load of glacial ice, has been slowly returning towards its former position. The current of the Detroit River has been reversed, and now we have Niagara, whose age is pretty well known. At the present rate of the recession of the falls, less than 10,000 years would be required to form the gorge above Queenstown. Of late this has been taken as a glacial chronometer. But this discovery of an earlier northern outlet for the Great Lakes will, as Mr. Gilbert some time ago surmised, considerably lengthen our calculations.

In conclusion, it is well to remark that summer tourists in this region can obtain much pleasure for themselves and confer a great favor upon the world by working out and publishing the details of this theory, now so well established, concerning the later geological history of the Great Lakes. Not only can they trace out more carefully the evidences of the actual existence of the outlet here described, but, by collecting facts concerning the height and extent of the terraces of clay and gravel surrounding the lakes, they may do much toward giving definiteness to our knowledge concerning these recent changes in level which have determined in so large degree the history of man upon this continent. One has but to pass the fleets of steamers now necessary to conduct the commerce of these inland seas, and to stand for a few hours beside the lock which admits a part of this commerce through the Sault Ste. Marie, to be overwhelmed with the significance of these providential waterways.

The commerce which even now passes into Lake Superior far exceeds that which seeks the Orient through the Suez Canal. As we passed that great portal into the largest of the lakes, a few days since, twenty great steamers were waiting their turn to enter the lock which should admit them to the broad waters above, and as many were waiting to descend with their burdens of ore and grain. In 1890 more than 10,000 vessels passed through this outlet, carrying more than 9,000,000 tons of cargo. Within a year another lock, 800 feet long, 100 feet wide, and 21 feet deep on the sills, will be completed. The future of the commerce passing in and out of these natural gateways to the interior can be estimated only by the growth of the whole country.

In the light of all these facts it certainly is somewhat startling to reflect how delicate has been the balancing of natural forces through long geological ages which has determined the location of our inland cities and the course of our inland commerce. First there was the late tertiary elevation of the continent, brought about by geodetic forces too obscure to admit of calculation. During this period the main characteristics of the larger valleys of the northern part of the continent were determined. Then followed the marvellous and apparently capricious accumulation of snow in which originated the majestic forces of the glacial period, which in their slow march southward to the Ohio River prepared and distributed the soil destined to furnish the seat of empire upon the continent. Bordered for many

thousand years by icy walls which prohibited egress to the north, the drainage of all the northern part of the continent was from the Red River into the Minnesota, from Lake Michigan into the Illinois, and from Lake Erie into the Wabash—all reaching the Mississippi. Then there was for a while a change. When the Mohawk Valley was first cleared of ice, the drainage of the Lakes sought access to the ocean through the Hudson. At a later stage this drainage was directed through the Ottawa along the line above described. It was only after many thousand years that Buffalo and Cleveland and Chicago and Duluth could come into existence by virtue of their advantageous commercial situation. Considered from a geological point of view, the present conditions are but temporary. But, as human history goes, geological changes are so slow that, when once established, human effort can easily maintain the centres of trade and the lines of commerce upon these lakes where they are until the immense natural resources of the region shall be exhausted. After that, no matter if the deluge does come! G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, September 5, 1892.

FOR the first time in Irish history we have an English Government in office pledged to make an earnest effort to settle the Irish question—that is, to grant legislative independence to Ireland in all Irish matters and to arrange the relations between the two kingdoms on a just and equitable basis. The great change that has taken place during the last fifteen years is well illustrated by one incident: during the last month Michael Davitt, ex-convict, imprisoned over and over again for treasonable practices and speeches, went to Newcastle to support the reëlection of an Englishman as Irish Secretary; and so far as the result was due to any one man's influence and exertions, he was the chief instrument in securing John Morley's return.

The Irish Nationalists have, however, in my opinion, made a very great mistake in adhering, under present circumstances, to their resolution not to take any office until a satisfactory home-rule measure has been introduced. Their position may be consistent with their past declarations, but is utterly unreasonable. They profess confidence in the intentions of the Liberal party and are in open alliance with them. It is well known that three-fourths of the Irish officials are violently opposed to any home-rule measure; they belong by association, interests, and training to "the classes," and have no sympathy whatever with democratic tendencies; and yet it is these very officials who must be consulted on every point of law, statistics, practice, and precedent in the framing of the Home-Rule Bill. The Irish Parliamentary party may be on the best of terms with the English Government, but their advice is given from a standpoint of irresponsibility, and without the requisite acquaintance with and access to official records and returns which may be perverted to suit the views of their opponents. The English Liberal Government might reasonably have refused to deal with the home-rule question unless upon the terms of every political office vacated by the change of parties being accepted by a Parliamentary Nationalist. The position of the Irish Secretary, whose subordinates are bitterly opposed to his political views and objects, will be most difficult. The late W. E. Forster, who came to Ireland with the best and most kindly intentions, completely succumbed to his environment; Mr. Morley will not succumb, but he will work under the greatest disadvantages and difficulties.

No new legislation can be introduced for six months, and the interval ought to give plenty of time for careful preparation of the Home-Rule Bill. In the meantime, the existing laws must be enforced, and it is believed that the landlord party is deliberately preparing to embarrass the Government by evicting tenants systematically, enforcing legal rights which they refrained from doing during the late Government's administration. Such a course of action will, however, only prepare the way for more radical reforms. The rent-fixing tribunals were appointed by a Government out of sympathy with and ignorant of the necessities of the people; they were composed of individuals drawn exclusively from the landlord class, with the result that the greater number of judicial rents are not only too high to enable tenants to "live and thrive," but in many cases impossible of payment. The reductions of rent decreed by the Irish land courts are generally much less than those which have been voluntarily given by English landlords. Any general campaign against the tenants will therefore only make legal reductions on the first opportunity imperatively urgent.

The evicted-tenants question is that which for the moment occupies political attention. It is supposed that there are about 5,000 families, most of whom belong to estates where the "plan of campaign" was put into operation. With the exception of Smith Barry's Tipperary estate, where the tenants surrendered their holdings as a protest against the landlords' conduct in interfering to prevent a peaceful settlement on a neighboring property, the evicted tenants lost their holdings and homes from inability to pay exorbitant rents; in most cases they might have had "fair" rents fixed by the land courts, but these tribunals did not possess the confidence of the farmers, and in the plan-of-campaign districts were fixing rents at an impossible figure. Mr. Gladstone suggested that landlords might find it wise to agree with their tenants, and so obviate the necessity for legislation. In the absence of any such conciliatory action, a royal commission might usefully investigate these cases and recommend legislation. No government should permit the continued existence of such centres of disturbance as these estates have become from mismanagement, political passion, and enforcement of unjust laws.

Another subject which needs investigation before legislation is the fiscal system of the United Kingdom, which is admittedly unjust in its effect on Ireland. The poorest country in Europe is fiscally linked to, and is taxed as if it were an integral part of, the richest country, with the same requirements for defence, foreign relations, and protection of commerce. Mr. Robert Giffen, the best known of English statisticians, estimated in 1886 that Ireland's capacity for taxation was one-fiftieth that of the United Kingdom, yet for many years Ireland has been paying one-twelfth of the imperial revenue. The income-tax assessment is £17 per head in England and £5½ per head in Ireland, yet the rate of imperial taxation is 6s. in the pound in Ireland and only 3s. 1d. in the pound in England. Ireland's assessment is stricter than that of England, and it includes four or five millions of Irish rents paid to and wholly spent by persons resident in England. If allowance is made for these facts, the rate of imperial taxation is three times heavier in Ireland than in England. It is not surprising that Mr. Giffen should have stated that in these circumstances "there can be little accumulation of wealth in Ireland," and that "nearly the whole taxable income of the Irish people is absorbed by the State." Ireland has no need of the expensive defence and diplomatic services which Great Britain requires, yet she is expected to contribute a full proportion. If royalty is an advantage to Great Britain, it is certainly not to Ireland, yet we not only pay a proportion of that costly service, but have to pay separately for the Lord Lieutenant, who receives a larger salary than the President of the United States.

Unless the fiscal aspect of the home-rule question is fully considered and satisfactorily disposed of, a very substantial and vital Irish grievance will remain an open sore. Irishmen will very properly object both to paying more than their due proportion of the revenue fixed according to Ireland's comparative capacity for taxation, and to paying for services from which Ireland can derive no benefit. At present, financial solidarity is insisted upon in collection of the revenue, but is disclaimed in matters of expenditure. Ireland, from her remoteness from the political centre, and less requirements for defence, imperial show, and dignity, does not and cannot derive any benefit from a large part of the imperial expenditure, which is on a scale unsuited to the circumstances of a poor country like Ireland, where the chief and almost sole occupation of the inhabitants is farming. The cost of the Irish police and of education is now paid out of the imperial revenue, and if these expenses were thrown on the Irish revenue, a contribution of two millions instead of eight millions would appear to be what Ireland ought to pay on the principle of equality, and to be as much as she could afford. AN IRISHMAN.

BOSSUET AS AN HISTORIAN.

PARIS, September 1, 1892.

I HAVE read with much curiosity—few people, I am afraid, will imitate me—a compendious book on 'Bossuet, Historian of Protestantism,' by M. Alfred Rébelliau, who left not long ago our Superior Normal School, and is now a professor in our Faculty of Letters at Rennes. Bossuet's name is sure to draw the attention of whoever cares for our classic French literature; but I am afraid the number of such persons is diminishing day by day.

M. Rébelliau's subject is very limited: he does not speak of Bossuet as a writer, as a preacher, as the author of immortal "oraisons funèbres"; he deals only with Bossuet the historian. As such, Bossuet comes before us with two great works, the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle' and the 'Histoire des Variations des Églises Protestantes. M. Rébelliau has not much to say on the first of these two works, which is a general survey of the history of the world, written by a professor for a pupil—a pupil who was to be the King of France; he regards Bossuet chiefly as the author of the 'Histoire des Variations,' and here he exhausts completely his subject, with an abundance of notes and of documents which does great credit to his industry. Renan has professed to be scandalized because the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle' still remains on the programmes of our classical education; and surely nothing can be more different from our modern historical method than the method of Bossuet. Scherer, one of our best modern critics, in an imaginary conversation between a few writers, says of Bossuet: "Bossuet! a man who had read nothing, who knew nothing!" Sainte-

Beuve is much in the same spirit: he cares little for Bossuet as an historian; he is under the charm only of his beautiful style. He recognizes in the Bishop of Meaux "the man of all the authorities and of all the stabilities," a "sacerdotal" character, incapable of yielding, without any elasticity, devoid of all scientific instinct. Even in Bossuet's time, in 1686, Jurieu, the great Protestant writer, accused him of ignorance. "M. de Meaux," said he, "is one of those court bishops whose business it is to study nothing."

M. Rébelliau has undertaken to prove that as an historian Bossuet does not deserve such a severe condemnation. He has undertaken to study the documents which Bossuet used in his history of the Protestant churches, and to judge the manner in which he used them. How was Bossuet led to write the history of what he calls the "Variations in the Protestant churches"? Was it because he had under his eye a book printed in Geneva in 1654, 'Syntagma Confessionum Fidei,' etc., a collection of the discordant articles of faith of the various Protestant sects, condemning each other on many points? No, he had a higher aim: he wished to renew, to rejuvenate the old controversies between the Catholics and the Protestants. At the time of the Reformation these controversies were very ardent and very encyclopædic: they touched a hundred different points. Richelieu had taken part in them, and, not content with having taken La Rochelle, he had hoped to bring back the Protestants to Catholicism by discussion and persuasion. Mazarin, though he was a Cardinal, did not care much for theology; and it may be said that during the reign of Louis XIV. the Catholic Church and royalty were more inclined to use force than persuasion. Heresy was looked upon as a danger to the State. Theological discussion had almost ceased entirely when the Jansenist movement began. It has been said that Jansenism was, so to speak, a second edition of French Protestantism. Though the moralists and theologians of Port Royal defended themselves against the imputation of Calvinism, they had a visible affinity with it: they showed it in their mysticism, in their horror of superstition, in their Puritanic morals, in the sobriety, discreetness, and dryness of their ceremonies, in a certain severity of doctrine and of life. The Jansenist movement, which has been so carefully studied by Sainte-Beuve, was a curious sort of revival of the ideas which the Protestants of the sixteenth century had defended sword in hand. It was an aristocratic movement, like the Calvinistic movement; only, as it manifested itself at the time when monarchy was absolute, it never left the domain of thought and remained purely theological.

If Bossuet had espoused the ideas of Jansenius, he would perhaps have made a revolution in the French Church, and accomplished what the doctors of Port Royal were unable to do; but Bossuet was in essence conservative, and he wrote the 'History of the Variations' chiefly in order to prove that the true character of the Church lay in unity of doctrine. He condemned the Protestants because they were divided into various sects; that would, perhaps, have been enough, from his theological point of view, but, as the cause of the Church seemed to him absolutely tied to the cause of monarchy, which he could not conceive otherwise than as orthodox and sacerdotal, he condemned the Protestants also as enemies of the State. Here the historian came forward, and he had to give a history of the religious wars of France during the sixteenth century. I will not enter here into the theological part of the work of Bossuet; the spirit of it is condensed in a line on the first page of the 'History of the Variations,' in which he says that "the truth which comes from God has at once all its perfection." It became a favorite argument of the Catholic theologians, after Bossuet, to charge against the Reformation the variations and the variability of the several confessions of faith of the Protestant churches, and there has often been manifested in the Protestant churches themselves a desire to reunite once more all the churches in one universal church. The historical part of Bossuet's work is entirely subordinate to the theological; but this secondary part was, however, important. M. Rébelliau takes great pains to prove that Bossuet had prepared himself well for it. Historical studies were certainly not held in so much honor as they are to-day. Descartes and the Cartesians looked on them with some contempt; Malebranche and La Bruyère laughed at the "savants de mémoire." But there was a group of men who did not despise the original documents on which history is founded: Le Nain de Tillemont, though a Jansenist, was a good historian; the Benedictine monks, Mabillon in particular, who were very erudite, were in correspondence with Bossuet. Modern criticism has many faults to find with the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle,' but on the whole Bossuet's errors are trifling; you may discuss the spirit of the work, the facts are generally exact. I turn at once to the history of the religious wars in France. Bossuet explains in these words why he introduced this subject in his great work on the 'Variations':

"The Protestants," he says, "began in France as well as in Germany by declaring very loudly that they would not use violence in order to defend their persecuted faith and to bring about the triumph of their religion. This principle was inscribed in the confessions of faith and other public acts of the party; it was proclaimed by the doctors, by Calvin and Beza, as well as by Luther and by Melanchthon. It was a dogma of the Reformation at its origin. In 1560, however, a religious war breaks out in France, and it finds theologians to absolve it, synods to encourage it. There is a dogma dead as soon as born; there is a new variation to be added to the list of contradictions of the Reformation."

Was it very necessary in 1665, when the Court was visibly meditating the violent suppression of Protestantism in the kingdom, to represent the Protestants as animated by a spirit hostile to the French monarchy? Neither Mazarin nor Louis XIV. had ever had to complain of the loyalty of the Protestants. Ever since the Duke of Rohan signed the peace of Alais, the Protestants had ceased to exist in France as a party; it was ungenerous to recall the long and bloody struggles of the past. It is clear that, consciously or unconsciously, Bossuet was preparing the overthrow of the Edict which still protected the last Protestant churches. Had he a right to reproach the Protestants with having defended their churches, sword in hand, when the parlements and the intendants were asking for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes?

Bossuet has no other object in the historical part of his work than to throw suspicion on the loyalty of the French Calvinists and to find arguments against the perpetual validity of the Edict of Nantes. It is idle now to discuss the legitimacy of the religious wars of the sixteenth century and of the beginning of the seventeenth century. The answers made by Jurieu, Burnet, Basnage to the part of Bossuet's work which relates to that period forced him to write in 1691 a 'Defence of the History of the Variations.' Here again Bossuet tried to demonstrate that the French Reformers "began the civil war 'par principe et en corps d'église.'" He used freely the declarations of some of the synods.

The 'History of the Variations' was much read and it had a great influence even on the Protestants. It somewhat changed the character of their polemical works. It probably did not convert a single reformer, but it forced the Protestant writers to change, on some questions, their argumentation. Jurieu and others boldly vindicated for the French reformers the right to rise against tyranny. "M. de Meaux," says Jurieu, "must learn that we are not ashamed to find in our synods decisions from which he concludes that we do not consider it always forbidden to use arms in favor of religion." The first Protestant writers had looked upon the Albigenses, the Vaudois, and the other heretics of the middle ages as their spiritual ancestors. Bossuet takes advantage of this solidarity; since his time the great majority of French Protestants have disavowed the doctrines of those heretics. Beausobre, for instance, sees only essays at reformation in their attempts. "I have looked," he says, "for ancestors for our *réformés;* the Albigenses cannot be these ancestors."

Bossuet had drawn striking portraits of Luther, Melanchthon, Calvin, Beza; he had shown their weaknesses, their failings. Jurieu, Basnage, and others wrote on the founders of the Reformation with a modesty which was not felt by the first Protestants. But the chief point of the 'History of the Variations,' the chief argument, was the doctrine of the perpetuity of the Catholic faith as opposed to the variability of the reformers. Jurieu tried to prove that the invariability of the Catholic doctrine was not real; that the most essential dogmas of Christendom till the fourth and fifth centuries of the Church had changed their external form; that the Church had undergone an evolution, and that this evolution had not come to an end. Here Jurieu struck at the very root of the question. Inconstancy is the lot of man. You may enclose a doctrine in a network of formulas and of words; the ideas which these words embody will evaporate in the end and nothing will be left of them. "Variation," writes Basnage, "far from being a proof of falsehood, is often necessary to the pursuit of the truth."

Correspondence.

THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY'S LIBERALITY TO AUTHORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to the following statement in your paper of August 18, 1892:

"We regret to learn that the Boston Public Library no longer exercises that discretion which led it, by an enlightened view of its duties and its interests, to grant to persons actually engaged in authorship the privilege of occasionally drawing books, although non-residents. The custom which has been discontinued was a generous one, but it illustrated the liberal public spirit which Massachusetts men desire to have characterize their institutions. It is certainly not far beyond the sphere of a great public library that it should assist literature upon necessary occasion or proper convenience; yet, at present, the loan of a book only for a few hours is refused."

Will you permit me, in the interest of the Library, to state in the columns of your paper that there is not a particle of foundation for the above statements, and that the

policy of the trustees has always been, and still is, to increase the facilities for the use of the Library rather than to curtail them?

Very respectfully yours,
SAMUEL A. B. ABBOTT,
President Trustees.

PUBLIC LIBRARY OF THE CITY OF BOSTON,
September 12, 1892.

[We were aware of the printed rule which permits non-residents to draw books by special vote and "for weighty reasons." Until within two years, we believe, it was customary to issue books to persons engaged in literary work without this formality; and, in particular, authors residing at a distance were permitted to receive books by mail or express through responsible officers of the Library who kindly charged themselves with this duty. This was the custom which we referred to as a generous one, which is used at the British Museum, is common on the Continent and is gaining in this country, and which was discontinued at the Boston Library. In consequence of orders then given, forbidding subordinate officers to send away books in response to such requests, authors who had drawn in this way ceased to do so, understanding that they were debarred. Two instances of this have been brought to our notice. There is little reason to question that the effect which the measure had was aimed at, as the printed rule does not contemplate the case of an author who cannot present himself in person at the desk.

The incident which occasioned our comment was a much simpler matter than sending books to authors at a distance. It was the refusal of the loan of a book for twenty-four hours to Prof. George E. Woodberry. In editing his new edition of Shelley's poems, which is to contain the variorum readings of all editions and all known MSS., he went to the library to verify certain readings in his proofs by the facsimile of the MS. of "The Mask of Anarchy," published by the Shelley Society. On examination he found that changes must be made in proofs already returned to the press and immediately to be cast, and a vexatious delay could be avoided only by taking the book to Beverly for the night. A single star showed that the volume was open to restricted circulation; it was of the value of ten shillings, and, though one of an edition of 500 copies, could at present be easily replaced if lost; its only use was that to which Prof. Woodberry would have put it. He thus relates what took place:

"I sent in my card to the librarian, and, on his coming out, shook hands with him, showed the book and my proof, explained the situation, and made my request. 'Beverly,' said the librarian, 'is, I believe, not a part of Boston.' I replied that the favor would oblige me and the printers. 'I know of no rule,' he said, 'which permits it.' I remained silent, being, indeed, somewhat abashed by the brief lesson in geography which I had received, and he turned and left me. What followed was more singular. I went to the publishers and ordered the types held, but, on explaining why, was offered one of the firm's cards on which to obtain the book. I returned to the library, but, although the assistants and one of the officers, to whom I was well known, kindly made a half-hour's search, the book was 'lost.' I was told that it should be reserved for me at the desk, and the next day found it there with a written slip, 'Not to be taken out. By order of Mr. Dwight.' The intention of the librarian that I should not have the book, even on an entitled card, was plain. The librarian of the Providence Library, on hearing of the affair, placed any books there at my disposal, and the Harvard College Library immediately sent the book by mail."

The refusal, on the ground of non-residence, was direct, responsible, and not further explained. There was no intimation that non-resident authors could obtain books in any way; on the contrary, the impression plainly meant to be conveyed was that they had neither rights nor privileges in the Library. The rules were cited and the request disposed of as a matter of routine in the ordinary course, as one of a class of cases. It was, as we characterized it, an incident "unfit to happen" in such a place. If the Board should grant the librarian a share of that discretionary power in which he is apparently so poor, it would materially assist in carrying out the intention of usefulness expressed by its President; and if the Board should find some simple mode of obliging authors at a distance, on necessary occasion or proper convenience, as we said, the Library would escape unfavorable comparison with Harvard and Providence, as well as with its neighbor, the Athenæum, Yale, the American Antiquarian Society, and other libraries which are as excellent in their administration as they are rich in special collections.—ED. NATION.]

MR. ADAMS'S QUINCY ADDRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have mentioned my name in connection with the charter of the city of Quincy, I should like to say a few words with regard to it. The professed object of that charter was to concentrate power and responsibility in the hands of the Mayor, but it must be admitted, so far as I can learn, that it has failed to accomplish this object. The control of the city finance and administration is still in the hands of the Council, with very little check by the Mayor. The city expenditure is parcelled out by a log-rolling process among the districts, with very little consideration of the total. I do not think that the election of councilmen-at-large, instead of by districts, would make any difference. I believe the experiment has already been tried in Boston, and it was found that the elected members represented districts just as before. Again, it would take a good deal of compulsion to make some men serve in positions where their reputation is sure to be tainted, where they can get no credit for good work, and must bear their full share of blame for bad. I am not sure that a term in the State's-prison would not by many be regarded as a desirable alternative.

The object to be aimed at remains the same, even if the Quincy charter has failed to accomplish it—namely, such concentration of power and responsibility in individuals that the best and largest part of the voters—those who can, and do, give the least attention to politics—shall be able to see clearly where praise and blame belong, and award them with a minimum of effort. Now the mainspring of city as well as all other politics is finance. The English national is beyond comparison the first public finance in the world, simply because Parliament never proposes an expenditure or a tax. The whole subject is in the hands of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who manages it like his private purse, though subject to his responsibility to Parliament and the nation. The next drastic step in city government would be to have a city treasurer appointed by the Mayor on his sole responsibility, and to leave to that treasurer the whole subject of revenue and expenditure, allowing the Council or Aldermen only to accept or reject his proposals—or, in other words, the veto power. That would very speedily bring the district politicians into line. Something like this already exists in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in Brooklyn and I think in New York, but that is also an impersonal body, and its plans are sent to the Aldermen in writing, so that there is still a failure of public discussion and criticism and of individual responsibility.

One other firm conviction has been forced upon me by years of study and observation, that the only way to effectively improve city government is to attack its source in that of the State. The whole organization and administration of the cities are dependent upon the State governments; and, though the evil is less directly felt, these are by far the worst of the two. Nowhere in the country does this omnipresent problem of the confusion of executive and legislative power, and the absorption of the former by the latter, project itself more offensively or call more loudly for reform. I covet, with exceeding greediness of desire, for Massachusetts the honor of being the first to lay her hand to this work. In this Presidential year nothing can be done, but next year I propose to try once more whether the attention of the people of this State, and particularly of the young men, from whom the most and a great deal of generous and disinterested work is to be expected, cannot be directed to this important subject, and whether State politics cannot be turned towards some other distinction than that, the absurdity of which you so justly stigmatize, between Republicans and Democrats. GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, September 17, 1892.

BERLIN'S MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the May number of the American edition of the *Review of Reviews*, Dr. Albert Shaw published an extremely interesting article on the municipal problems of New York and London—an article that has attracted widespread attention. As an American student of municipal government, I beg to analyze some of the statements made by Dr. Shaw, as well as to raise some doubts as to the validity of some of his applications of European experience to American conditions. In taking examples from Continental cities I shall limit myself to Berlin, with which I am most familiar. It is generally agreed by students of municipal government that of all the modern metropolises, Berlin is without a doubt the best and most economically governed. Its citizens pay less and receive more than those of London, Paris, New York, or Philadelphia. From this it by no means follows that its institutions would allow of transplanting to American soil. The traditions of the Prussian monarchy, the position of the Prussian municipalities in the

organism of the State, the admirable civil-service system which pervades every branch of the State and local administration, a more earnest conception of the duties of citizenship rather than its rights—all these are elements which make the premises of reasoning in the two cases totally different, and which render direct comparison extremely difficult—yes, well-nigh impossible. And yet there are certain political, economic, and ethical principles pervading all the different branches of the municipal administration which are very well adapted to furnish us with a criterion by which to judge the state of our American municipalities, the causes which have led to their degeneration, or rather stagnation, and to give us certain hints as to the direction of our development if we wish to fulfil the mission that civilization has placed upon our shoulders.

In this short communication I wish to direct attention exclusively to the two main tendencies of the article in question:

(1.) The idea that London and its recent reorganization should serve us as a model for the future reforms in American municipal government.

(2.) A seeming neglect of the experience of Continental cities, or, when they are mentioned, a misunderstanding as to the real factors that have so largely contributed to their efficiency.

While it is true that the problems of "Greater New York" would in many respects be analogous to those of London at the present day, it is equally true that those of "Greater Berlin" would offer the same analogies. For the present, however, it is *New York as she is* with which we have to deal. Such being the case, it is surprising that the author should have taken London as the standard of comparison, whereas Paris, and to a much higher degree Berlin, could furnish us with (in many respects) brilliant examples of the solution of some of the most difficult problems of municipal government—problems which London as yet has been unable to solve satisfactorily. The constitution of the "New County Council" is nothing more than an experiment, the results of which must be more definitely known before a decisive opinion can be expressed.

Dr. Shaw says (p. 287):

"The European cities have found that they can best govern themselves by reposing authority in a good-sized central e ective body known as the Municipal Council, of which the Mayor, as a rule, is simply the presiding officer. All appointive authority and administrative power, as well as authority for the raising of municipal revenues and for the appropriation and expenditure of municipal moneys, is centred in this Municipal Council. Every ramification of the complicated system flows from the central reservoir of authority and of administrative energy."

We do not know what cities Dr. Shaw may have in mind; at all events, the conditions above described are not in harmony with either of the two great Continental cities, Berlin and Paris. In point of fact, the very organization against which Dr. Shaw throws the full weight of his judgment and authority is here realized to a greater or less extent. He says (p. 286):

"American city government has had a curious system. Its purposes have generally failed to be properly conceived, and attempts have been made to organize it upon mischievous analogies. The Common Council has been treated as if it were a legislative body, and the Mayor has, in a general way, been regarded as the chief of an executive department. But there has been no logical partition between the two because the analogy at the outset was a false one. The whole government of a city exists properly to carry on a series of business enterprises which grow out of the massing at a central point of a large body of people. There is no pertinence in the attempt to separate the executive head from the body which makes municipal regulations and votes upon income and expenditure."

It is not my object to go into the details of either the Berlin or the Paris administration. Where, however, this autocratic, this "all-appointive and administrative authority" of the Municipal Council is to be found, is to me unknown. At any rate, of the two great Continental cities, Paris and Berlin, the latter offers Dr. Shaw by far the stronger case, for it can hardly be possible that the author would think of exemplifying his doctrines by means of the Paris administration, which is in reality no more of a municipality, in the true sense of that word, than is New York.

At Berlin, however, it seems to me that the division of authority is pretty closely drawn, and along the same lines as in the case of the State authority. As to the Municipal Council being an autocratic body, this is far from being the true state of the case. If it be possible to speak of one of the integral parts of a municipal organism as being the more important, I should be tempted to give that place to the "Magistrat," which occupies in some respects the position of a select council, whereas in others it is the executive organ of the city administration. The members of the "Magistrat" are elected by the Municipal Council, but their election requires the confirmation of the King of Prussia. They are elected for six or twelve years, according to their position. As a matter of fact, those members whose functions are of a more technical nature, requiring long preparatory study, generally remain in office for life. As presiding officer of the "Magistrat," and at the same time as highest representative of the personality of the city, stands the "Oberbürgermeister." He is the real executive, for under his leadership and control the "Magistrat" exercises its executive authority. He also has a veto power upon the bills passed by the Municipal Council and "Magistrat."

These are but the very barest outlines of the Berlin administration, which would necessarily undergo some modifications in a detailed description, especially in treating of the exact relation between Municipal Council and "Magistrat" and between "Magistrat" and "Oberbürgermeister." It is true that the Municipal Council of Berlin possesses very great powers, but these powers resemble closely those of a House of Representatives—that is, a "purse power" and financial control. But as to having by itself an appointive and administrative power, that is out of the question. In reality, its financial powers are limited by the fact that the "Magistrat" has to prepare the bills to be laid before the Municipal Council, has the right to send representatives to the Council to uphold these measures, and, after passage by the latter body, has still a practical right of veto. The only redress for the Council is an appeal to the "Bezirksausschuss," a kind of administrative court which has peculiar legislative powers. The relation between "Magistrat" and Municipal Council reminds one in some respects of the position occupied by the Imperial Council and Imperial Diet of the German Empire.

To go any deeper into this part of the subject would exceed the limits that I have set myself. At least one point I hope to have made clear, viz., that an appeal to the present conditions of Continental cities as examples of administrations with almost autocratic municipal councils of which "the Mayor, as a rule, is simply the presiding officer," is by no means justifiable, and is entirely misleading as to the true state of affairs. This being the case, the question very naturally arises, Is all that against which Dr. Shaw argues with such vehemence really as worthless as one would be led to infer from his statements? Is it an illogical division of municipal powers to regard "the Common Council as a legislative, and the Mayor as the chief of an executive, department"? Is the theory that a city is not much more than a business corporation on a large scale a correct one? In these three points it seems to me that Dr. Shaw has erred in carrying to their extremes three doctrines which are true only when kept within certain limits.

As regards the first question, a sufficient answer should be the description of the organization of Berlin. The weak point in American municipal government does not lie so much in our *principle* of the division of authority as in the haphazard way in which such authority is actually divided. The anything but satisfactory experiences made with our present system have led Dr. Shaw to throw the whole principle overboard, which is, however, by no means necessary. Without in any way attempting to sketch plans for reform, it is evident that rather than unduly to strengthen the power of the Common Council, it must be our endeavor to strengthen the position and clearly define the responsibility of the Mayor; and where a second chamber (Select Council) exists, to strengthen its financial and administrative control. The possibility of an extension of the system of honorary offices, and the development of a more efficient system of administrative responsibility and control, is too complicated a question to be entered upon here.

Before closing, I wish to add a short comment upon Dr. Shaw's apparent conception of the municipality as a large business corporation. As he expresses it, "the whole government of a city exists properly to carry on a series of business enterprises which grow out of the massing at a central point of a large body of people." This is true as far as it goes, but the conception is a too narrow one, and would result in erroneous ideas regarding the true functions of a municipality. A municipality is much more than a large business corporation. It is clothed with certain public functions which cannot in any shape or form be crowded into the framework of any such corporation. The mischievous results of a conception such as the author's show themselves in the doctrines of municipal taxation of the extreme individualistic school of political economy. Their doctrines have had only too great influence in the actual development of municipal taxation upon the Continent. To a more liberal conception the future undoubtedly belongs.

LEO S. ROWE.

BERLIN, June, 1892.

FORM OF BALLOT IN PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Ballot-reformers generally may be interested to learn that the form of ballot finally adopted under the Pennsylvania law, in accordance with the opinion of the Attorney-General of the State, is much more favorable to honest, intelligent voting than that hitherto presumed to have been required by the language of the act. As originally drawn, the bill provided for the system of grouping by offices and individual marking adopted in Massachusetts and several other States—the "non-partisan ballot," as it may rightly be called. The Senate Committee on Elections, under or-

ders, as is generally believed, from Quay, made many changes for the worse, including the introduction, as was supposed, of the "partisan ballot" in its worst form—complete party tickets to be voted by a single mark; and the Secretary of the Commonwealth prepared a draft of the ballot in this form, presuming that to be what was required by the words used in the hastily-drawn substitute for the original provision.

The ballot-reformers had been so thoroughly disgusted at the treatment which their bill, in spite of its well-known popularity, had received, that they gave the whole matter little further attention, so that criticisms of the official interpretation came first from the Republican State Chairman and others of his party, who, though the partisan ballot was obviously in their favor, they having usually a large majority, had no desire to risk the electoral vote of Pennsylvania on a ballot of doubtful legality. After a conference between the party leaders, the matter was referred to the Attorney-General, who, though upholding the arrangement of names in parallel party columns, advised that the names of the candidates of each party must be placed, not in a single group, to be marked by one cross-mark, but in as many groups as there were certificates of nomination, *i. e.*, the State ticket in one group, the Congressional district ticket in another, and so on (a single candidate being in many instances required, in the language of *Dundreary*, to "flock all by himself" in a group of one), and each group must be marked separately.

Under this system even the most rigid partisan cannot vote the straight ticket by a single mark, but must make at least one mark for each of the five or six groups, while the man of average independence is at all events not encouraged to vote on strictly party lines in order to save trouble. In those legislative districts where the desire to secure a vote against Quay has produced either disaffection or a positive split among the Republicans, the Attorney-General's opinion is naturally received with great satisfaction by those engaged in the anti-Quay fight.

CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, September 16, 1892.

Notes.

DUPRAT & CO., 349 Fifth Avenue, announce for publication early in November 'The Book-lover's Almanac for the Year 1893,' with twelve full-page illustrations in color by Henriot. Only 600 copies will be printed, on Japan and on Holland paper, by the De Vinne Press.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in press Matthew Arnold's selections from Wordsworth, illustrated in photogravure by E. H. Garrett; and Walton's 'Complete Angler' in two volumes, reproducing Major's edition, illustrations and all.

G. P. Putnam's Sons expect to continue their edition of Edmondo De Amicis's writings with a translation of his latest volume, 'School and Home,' and with the romance on which he is now engaged, 'The First of May.'

'College Requirements in English,' compiled by the Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton, for the various fitting schools of the country, with specimen examination papers, will be issued by Ginn & Co.

Two books somewhat akin are announced for publication this winter by Longmans, Green & Co. One is the autobiography of Sir Henry Parkes, to be called 'Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History'; and the other is 'The Biography of Robert Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke),' by Mr. A. Patchett Martin.

Capt. Cook's journal of his first voyage round the world, never before printed, is to be edited by Capt. Wharton, R. N., and supplied with maps and charts, for publication by Elliot Stock, London.

Three volumes by Prof. Adolf Bastian, 'Ideale Welten nach uranographischen Provinzen in Wort und Bild' (Berlin: Felber), are on the eve of publication. The first will contain a description of his travels in India in 1890; the second will be devoted to ethnology and history and their mutual relations, especially as exemplified by the races of India; and the third will give an account of Indian cosmogonies and theogonies, including a thorough examination and critical analysis of the system of the Jainas.

Prof. Willard Fiske is passing through the press at Florence one of his "asides" from bibliographical labor. This is a trial list of vulgar Arabic words, which he has edited in collaboration with Mr. Socrates Spiro of Cairo. The list is followed by a grammatical synopsis, consisting chiefly of paradigms and examples, both given in the simple but ingenious modification of the Latin alphabet designed by the late Spitta Bey, a man who deserved well of Egypt, not only for his work on the vulgar Arabic, but for his organization of the Khedivial Library. Prof. Fiske, however, omits the semi-vowels as making the system too complicated. The list generally presents the irregular or *broken* plurals of the nouns and the principal part (the imperfect) of such verbs as are irregular in that form. The sentences in the grammatical parts exhibit the capacity of the language of the people to treat almost any subject—historical, scientific, etc. Whatever the shortcomings of the work, it will at any rate be a modest beginning in the laudable endeavor to make the spoken language of the Arabic people its literary tongue, recorded by means of an alphabet far easier to acquire than the cumbrous one now in use. The volume will be privately printed at the Landi press in Florence, and will be in modern Arabic down even to the bastard title.

Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard's 'South Sea Idyls' makes its reappearance after nineteen years with the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons. Mr. Howells, in a flattering introductory letter to the author, bespeaks a better reception for the book than it had when the late J. R. Osgood first published it on the eve of the financial panic of 1873. We are now, however, in the midst of a cholera panic and a Presidential campaign, unimpassioned though the latter is. Moreover, while Mr. Stoddard's fantasy and humor have probably still a power to charm and amuse, he now has to compete in style and theme with Robert Louis Stevenson and Rudyard Kipling, who were unknown and unexpected in 1873.

Another reprint by the same firm is a pretty two-volume edition of J. G. Holland's 'Kathrina' and 'Bittersweet,' each with an etched frontispiece and a "cameo" binding. These poems are just a quarter-century old and call for no renewal of criticism. No more does the Baroness Tautphoeus's evergreen 'Initials,' which the Putnams have just brought out in a handy "Hildegarde Edition" in two volumes of clear type, fit to be re-read by eyes no longer young.

Like McPherson's Political Handbooks, Mr. Edward Stanwood's 'History of Political Elections' has become a permanent necessity. A third edition, revised, has just been issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Its novelty consists in its added chapter on "The Second Harrison." This deals, of course, not with Mr. Harrison's Administration, not yet closed, but with the events which led up to his renomination. The exposition of facts is marked by the same candor and non-partisanship which so much enhance the value of Mr. Stanwood's compilation of platforms and electoral statistics. He calls attention to a discrepancy in the "official" footings of the total vote of 1888, amounting to more than 3,000, for which he cannot assign a cause. In the appendix, the Conventions of 1888 are replaced by those of 1892.

To all lovers of choice literature of the older school the retrieval from oblivion of anything by Thomas Fuller cannot but be most welcome. And we have, in good part, such a retrieval in the two volumes of his 'Selected Sermons, 1631-1659,' lately published by Pickering & Chatto, London. While, to the general reader such as he is in our age of rush and hurry, these discourses are of too little interest to warrant detail of their contents, it is enough, for those who are qualified to appreciate them, simply to announce their appearance. As specimens of typography, their place is in the first rank; and harmonious with their quaint external daintiness is the reverent and critical care which has been bestowed, editorially, on these scattered remains of a famous old divine. The idea of collecting and annotating them originated with the late Mr. John Eglington Bailey, already favorably known by his excellent 'Life of Fuller,' and had been largely realized by him at the time of his premature death. For the completion of Mr. Bailey's unfinished undertaking we are indebted to his friend, Mr. William E. A. Axon. Of the manner in which their task has been accomplished it would be difficult to speak in terms of praise exaggerating their deserts.

The concluding parts of the current Annual Supplement to 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (New York: Westermann) are now at hand. Among the noticeable features are a fourteen-pages-long list of German romances from the seventeenth century to 1891, by way of exhibiting its wealth of subject; an elaborate article on socialistic fiction (*Staatsromane*), from Sir Thomas More's 'Utopia' and Harrington's 'Oceana' to Bellamy's 'Looking Backward,' in many subdivisions; a review of Social Democracy, with the text of the German platform and a glance at receipts, expenditures, and growth of its newspaper organs; a survey of national debts; an account of the various parliaments of Europe and the United States; statistics of city and suburban railroads, New York included, with maps. To these add articles on typewriting machines, on reform in the studies of universities and high schools; on Troy, with Dörpfeld's plans based on Schliemann's last excavations; on the habitability of the sun and Mars, etc.; on slavery and the slave-trade in Africa, etc. As last year, there is an analytic table of contents and a necrological conspectus.

The bibliography of Ibsen grows apace; not only are there magazine essays and newspaper articles in plenty, but of books also there are not a few. The latest is one of the best; it is a critical study of 'Henrik Ibsen et le Théâtre contemporain' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), by M. Auguste Ehrhard, a professor of the faculty of Clermont-Ferrand. M. Ehrhard makes four groups of Ibsen's plays, the Romantic, the Philosophic ("Peer Gynt"), the Modern (from the "League of Youth" to "Ghosts"), and the Symbolic (from "An Enemy of the People"

to "Hedda Gabler"). The classification is a little arbitrary, but it is obviously convenient. M. Ehrhard does not insist quite as strongly as he might on the perfect understanding of the theatre which Ibsen has.

Maps of the battlefield of Antietam are the main feature of Part 6 of the Atlas to accompany the 'Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' in process of issuance by the War Department at Washington. But South Mountain, Gettysburg, Sharpsburg, Fredericksburg, Stone River, and other famous fields are also depicted by Federal or Confederate officials, and there is even a map of the region about Washington, dating from July, 1861, at the opening of McClellan's session in front of the capital.

G. W. & C. B. Colton & Co. have revised their folding map of Brooklyn, showing the new ward boundaries, railroad lines (of which there are 46 on the surface), etc. The scale is four inches to a mile.

The Stralsund sheet of Dr. Vogel's map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) might, in itself considered, as appropriately be called the Copenhagen sheet, since the capital and much of the insular part of the Danish kingdom are shown on it, with a part of Sweden. A second sheet, designated Bromberg, takes us away from the coast into the glacial lake-region of West Prussia.

Thomas Hardy is another English author whose American editions get bedevilled. He writes to the *Critic* that he could not control the omission of the explanatory preface which appears in all the English editions of his 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles.' He further illustrates the crudeness of our present copyright law when he says: "I may add in this connection that the necessity for (at least) simultaneous publication in America of English books, to secure copyright, renders it almost impossible that the latest addenda of an author should be incorporated in the foreign imprint. Could even a fortnight's grace be allowed, final touches, given just before going to press on this side, would not be excluded from American copies, as they now are in so many cases."

—A unique institution is about to be established in Weimar. It is neither university nor academy, nor yet, strictly speaking, a library, but it is, nevertheless, an intellectual workshop of great importance to writers and scholars the world over. It is an enlargement of the scope of the well-known Goethe-Schiller Archives, out of which it has developed naturally and organically. In 1888 Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm, the grandson of Schiller, and one of the foremost landscape painters of Germany, made over to the Goethe Archives all the papers of his celebrated grandfather, and the Archives thereupon took the double name of the poet pair. The papers of Herder and Wieland having already been deposited there, it was an easy step to the idea of a universal German archive; this idea has now taken definite and practical form. The new institution is to serve a twofold purpose: it is primarily a place of safe deposit for the literary remains and manuscript treasures of all the great writers of Germany, in whatever field of intellectual activity they may have labored; and it will furthermore afford unrivalled facilities to investigators, scholars, editors, and critics who wish to have access to the original sources and to study their authors at first hand. The Archives will continue under the supervision of the scholarly Prof. Suphan, and the present name, which will lose none of its appropriateness under the new conditions will probably be retained. The success of this enterprise is now assured, and a special building for the purpose is to be erected at the expense of the Grand Duchess herself.

—It has been thought fitting that an opportunity should be afforded to all persons interested in German literature of associating their names with this institution, and an appeal has accordingly been issued, signed by some forty of the most prominent men of Germany. Although the funds for building have been appropriated, money will nevertheless be necessary for the enlarging of the library to be used in connection with the work of the Archives. Even the smallest sums will be acceptable; the essential point is that America should manifest her interest in an enterprise of such importance to the world of letters, and that the names of a goodly number of her citizens should appear on the list of founders and be deposited in the corner-stone of the building, which is soon to be erected. The presentation of the fund thus subscribed is to take place upon the occasion of the golden wedding of the Grand-Ducal pair, on the 8th of October next. Contributions should therefore be sent at once to the banking firm of Robert Warschauer & Co., Berlin.

—Mr. N. H. Thompson contributes to the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly* a valuable article upon the control of national expenditures. From an early day, Congress has endeavored to check the extravagance of administrative officers. Gallatin successfully labored for Congressional restrictions upon the discretion of heads of departments in the use of public moneys, and labored with more earnestness but with less success in securing general compliance with the rules after they were prescribed. But we have had few finance ministers as watchful as Gallatin. He gave every hour of the day and many of the night for the first two years of his service in order to understand and control all the details of the office, and, as he used afterwards to say at the end of his twelve years' term, he "was fairly worn out." It would be impossible at the present stage of our growth for a Secretary of the Treasury, with the McKinley Act and the cholera on his hands, to exercise any supervision over disbursements of the appropriations. Moreover, as Mr. Thompson contends, such supervision cannot be beneficially exercised by the officer who himself gives thousands of orders for the payment of money. His preliminary order "forecloses his subsequent judgment as to its legality." Granting that Congress should assume to give minute directions concerning the manner of disbursing the public money which it grants, it must be admitted that it should employ efficient means to enforce its commands. Administrative officers cannot be depended upon for this. Congress cannot directly control. But the accounting officers, if properly equipped and sustained, would prove, as Mr. Thompson thinks, an admirable agency. He suggests that they be organized anew—converted into an independent, semi-judicial body, distinct from any executive department. He would do away with the system of double examination of accounts, and provide for a greater degree of responsibility upon the part of clerks. He urges the unification of the several accounting offices, the contraction of their jurisdiction, and the enactment of a statute of limitation to bar public demands.

—The Department of Audit which Mr. Thompson advocates is a familiar institution in many European governments. If we should ever have a court of accounts, presided over by eminent magistrates holding office during good behavior, and authorized to select their own assistants, it would not be necessary for Congress to direct with minuteness the duties of the subordinates, or to take pains to give them that protection which Mr. Thompson now implores for them. On this subject the author, who is well qualified to speak, says:

"The present Civil-Service Law . . . throws its protecting ægis over the clerks only, and but partially and imperfectly over them; for among them a class which needs its protection most urgently is now left to bear the brunt of the affray and is slaughtered without mercy. When the Treasury Department was reorganized in 1875, chiefs of division were established in the various offices, it being the intention that these chiefs should be selected from the principal clerks, who, by reason of their knowledge, experience, and special training, would be well qualified to superintend and direct the other clerks in the discharge of their duties. From what has been said of the importance of the duties of the clerks in the accounting offices, it will be obvious that this was a judicious and admirable provision. Moreover, it offered a goal for the commendable ambition of meritorious clerks, and encouraged fidelity and proficiency. But the rules adopted by the Civil-Service Commission most inexcusably excepted such chiefs of division from examination. The effect of this injudicious concession to the patronage system has been to permit those important positions to be filled with inexperienced and merely nominal chiefs, incompetent to instruct and direct their trained subordinates. The rule thus operates in practice as a bar to the promotion of even the most worthy and meritorious clerks; for, being the only important positions in the departments at Washington which are in the free gift of the Secretary, they are regarded as choice plums to be exchanged for reciprocal favors, past or prospective, and they command a price in 'influence' which is beyond the reach of a department clerk."

—In a recent letter to the London *Guardian*, Archdeacon Cheetham pointed out some ecclesiastical inaccuracies, one of which was serious, in the latest volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' In the life of Kitchin, Bishop of Llandaff, it was stated correctly that he was expected to take part in the consecration of Archbishop Parker, but in fact did not do so. The writer then goes on to say: "No bishop consequently took part in the ceremony; a fact which gave rise to the great controversy as to the validity of English orders." Parker's consecrators were, of course, Barlow, Scory, and Coverdale; and, moreover, if the fact had been that "no bishop took part in the ceremony," it would not have raised, but settled for all time, the question of English orders. The author of the article explains in the *Guardian* of August 10 the cause of the misstatement. He wrote "bishop in office"—that is, in undisturbed possession of his see—but the words "in office" were accidentally dropped in the printing, making an omission trifling in form, but vital in effect. Mr. Shaw, the writer, adds that it was as far from his intention as it would be from the traditions of the 'Dictionary' to treat the question controversially from any standpoint. He ends his letter by expressing his satisfaction at finding that the 'Dictionary' is being so closely watched.

—Dr. Arthur Schuster, President of the Mathematical and Physical Section of the British Association, concluded his address at the recent meeting of that body by stating some problems the solution of which seems not beyond the reach of the physics of to-day: (1.) Is every large rotating mass a magnet? If it

is, the sun must be a powerful magnet. The filaments of the solar corona probably consist of electric discharges. The effect of a magnet on the discharge is known, and careful investigation of the streamers of the corona ought to give answer to this question. (2.) Is there sufficient matter in interplanetary space to make it a conductor of electricity? Dr. Schuster believes the evidence to be in favor of that view. (3.) What is a sun-spot? The general appearance does not show marked cyclonic action; and (4) if the spots are not due to such motion, is it not possible that electric discharges setting out from the sun, and accelerating artificially evaporation at its surface, might cool those parts from which the discharge starts, and thus produce a sun-spot? (5.) May not the periodicity of sun-spots, and the connection between two such dissimilar phenomena as spots on the sun and magnetic disturbances on the earth, be due to periodically recurring increase of the electric conductivity of the regions of space surrounding the sun? Such an increase of conductivity might be produced by meteoric matter circulating round the sun. (6.) What causes the anomalous law of rotation of the solar photosphere? As all causes acting within the sun might cause its angular velocity to be smaller at the equator than at other latitudes, but could not make it greater, the only explanation open to us is an outside effect, either by an influx of meteoric matter, as suggested by Lord Kelvin, or in some other way. On the whole, the exceptional behavior of the solar surface deserves more careful attention, and its explanation seems likely to carry with it that of many other phenomena. It is gratifying to find that a young American astronomer, Mr. George E. Hale, recently elected to the University of Chicago, seems to have gone about this matter in the right way.

THREE BOOKS ON GREEK ART.

Histoire de la Sculpture Grecque. Par Maxime Collignon. Tome premier. Ouvrage illustré de 11 planches hors texte, en chromolithographie ou en heliogravure, et de 278 gravures dans le texte. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie. 1892. 4to, pp. x. and 569.

Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien (1854), rééditées avec un commentaire nouveau et un index général des *Comptes Rendus* par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie. 1892. 4to, pls. 86, and pp. 213.

Handbook of Greek Archæology: Vases, bronzes, gems, sculpture, terracottas, mural paintings, architecture, etc. By A. S. Murray. With numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. 8vo, pp. v. and 483.

It is now nearly ten years since Mrs. Mitchell published her admirable 'History of Ancient Sculpture,' and although work in the field of classical archæology has been active in the meantime, and new discoveries have led to essential modifications of many theories which were then generally accepted, no complete history of the art has usurped the place which was at once given to the work of that conscientious and painstaking woman. A number of small and condensed handbooks have made their appearance, and Mr. Murray has issued a second edition of his 'History of Greek Sculpture,' but Mrs. Mitchell's book has remained the standard compilation on the subject by the common agreement of German and French authorities, not less than by that of our own.

In the present rapidly developing state of our knowledge of Greek remains, classical archæology may be perhaps regarded as the least exact of all the sciences. Probably in no other branch of investigation does the discovery of to-day so frequently upset the theory of yesterday; and while with each decade the body of our fixed and established knowledge becomes larger and more strongly supported, the sum total of it is still so small as to discourage many of the ablest authorities from undertaking a work of such permanent character as a history purports to be. The story is told, and we believe with a basis of truth, that an eminent German professor completed a history of Greek sculpture some fifteen years ago, and has been deterred from bringing it out yet by the fact that he cannot keep the revision of his text abreast of the new theories and discoveries bearing upon different parts of it.

Such being the case, and with the knowledge that no history of this subject written at the present time, however carefully it may be prepared, can pretend to be the final word upon it, our gratitude is especially due to any scholar of the first rank who is willing to take the time and the trouble to present, in a popular form, a summary of what is known or thought at the period when he writes; and when he does this with the completeness and skill exhibited in this first volume of M. Collignon's History, he has produced a book of permanent value, no matter what the discoveries of another day may bring forth. Of small abridgments and manuals we have had enough and to spare during the last few years, and M. Collignon has wisely chosen to treat his subject in a larger and fuller manner, taking plenty of time and space to explain to his readers the different theories regarding such vexed questions as that of the "Mykenean" or "Ægean" civilization, for example, so that the layman, after reading his chapter on this subject, is in a position to appreciate any new essay which may appear upon it, while the lecturer or advanced student finds in this discussion of it suggestive material to freshen the memory, not to mention the value of M. Collignon's own contributions.

The present volume is divided into four books. In the first of these, "Les Origines," the prehistoric epoch of Greek sculpture is described, beginning with the most primitive plastic productions of Troy, Cyprus, and the islands of the Archipelago, and continuing through the Mykenean, with sufficiently detailed accounts of the discoveries at Mykenæ, Tiryns, Vaphio, and the other centres of this civilization; then the period in which the influence of the Orient was strong, the art of the age of Homer; and finally the beginnings of plastic types, the work of the period when the Greek instinct was beginning to assert itself. To those who have been unable to follow the advances made in our knowledge of Greek art during the last ten years, no part of the volume will be more valuable than this first book, or more convincing of the necessity of a successor to Mrs. Mitchell's History, much of the material here described being still unknown when she wrote. We regret, by the way, to note that M. Collignon alludes to her book as an English production, the number of workers in this field which America has contributed being still too few to make us indifferent to the loss of credit for any one of them.

In the following books, "Les Primitifs," "L'Archaïsme avancé," and "L'Époque des grands maîtres du Vème siècle," M. Collignon carries us from the rude works of the early island and Attic schools through that wonderful period of rapid development which culminated in the Parthenon. Though some account of Pheidias is given, the sculptures of the Parthenon, with the exception of the colossal Athena, are left for the next volume. There are chapters on the sculptures of Olympia, on Myron, and on Polykleitos. As to the Olympian pediment figures, M. Collignon judiciously refrains from entering into the discussion of their arrangement, as being a question "toujours pendante" and impossible of absolute determination at present; though, in regard to the eastern pediment, he admits that he prefers the order adopted by Treu to that of Curtius. In his description of these and all other sculptures it is refreshing to find that warm appreciation of them as works of art, and not merely archæological dry-bones, which distinguishes French archæologists from their German colleagues and makes their writings pleasant as well as profitable reading. Pressure of space prevents our discussing the details of the volume or giving it more than this general description, but we welcome it cordially as a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject, and we hope we may see the completed work translated into English at no distant day. The illustrations are quite up to the standard of the house from which they come, and we notice as an agreeable innovation in popular books on Greek sculpture the colored reproductions of the archaic statues found on the Acropolis. Though inferior to the German plates of the same figures in the 'Antike Denkmäler,' they serve their purpose satisfactorily in enforcing the existence of one element in the original effect of Greek sculpture which we are too apt to overlook.

M. Reinach's new book will appeal more to specialists. Last year we had occasion to call attention to the excellent service he had rendered in republishing Millin's and Millingen's unwieldy folios on Greek vases, in a convenient form and with editorial notes which made modern books of them. He has continued his work in this direction by bringing out the 'Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien' in the same convenient quarto form, and with a thoroughness of editorial revision which must excite admiration not less than gratitude among those who have occasion to consult the book. The original of the 'Antiquités' is probably the most inaccessible of all archæological books, in spite of its great value to students. It was published in 1854, by the order and at the expense of the Czar, to illustrate the unparalleled discoveries of Greek jewelry, pottery, and other minor arts which had recently been made in the Crimea. In the preparation of the three folio volumes, no expense was spared to make the illustrations worthy of the originals; but the edition was limited to two hundred copies, none of which were placed upon the market. One hundred were distributed among the leading libraries of the world, and the rest, we believe, sent as presents to societies and individuals whom the Czar chose to honor in this manner. As a result, it has been almost impossible to purchase a copy, at whatever price, and the number of public libraries possessing the book is naturally very limited, especially in this country. M. Reinach says that as much as 2,000 francs has been given for one copy, and he knows of but six in Paris, four of which are in the large libraries. Consequently the obligation under which he would have placed students merely by reproducing this "rarissimo" in a form and at a price which place it within reach of all, would be great in any case, but he has done more. He has subjected the text to a careful editorial sifting, retaining for his volume only so much of the original as is of permanent value, and bringing

the subject-matter of this up to date with his own notes and references.

As a supplement, he has added a complete and minute index to the *Comptes Rendus*—the periodical work in which the publication of the Greek treasures of the Ermitage was continued from 1859 to 1881—an achievement of which he may well be proud, for it constitutes a compendium, like Overbeck's 'Schriftquellen' or Brunn's 'Griechische Künstler,' which no archæologist can afford to be without. Stephani, the editor of the *Comptes Rendus*—or we might more properly say their author—was, to use M. Reinach's words, "un prodige d'érudition," but with learning as unwieldy as it was colossal, his essays being full of enormous digressions on topics remotely connected with the subject in hand. In his description of the representation on a vase, the presence of some unusual bit of ornament or jewelry on a figure was sufficient to call a halt while he went into an interminable disquisition upon all other known examples of the same or a kindred kind; and because one of the fragments of Greek textiles from the Crimea was decorated with a b rder, his account of it branched off into a thesis, with a classified list, on all the types of Greek borders and patterns to be found among all the surviving monuments of Greek art. With an index this encyclopædic knowledge is of inestimable value by way of reference, whereas, unindexed, the essays have remained unread, unless by the very patient. It is not too much to say, therefore, that in this work M. Reinach has built a monument to the Russian scholar.

We must confess to a feeling of disappointment that the illustrations have not resulted more successfully. In this respect the book is decidedly inferior to M. Reinach's former one. Piccard was unquestionably the most exquisite draughtsman and engraver ever called upon for archæological work. From personal observation we can testify to the fidelity with which he rendered the originals in the Ermitage, and the delicacy and spirit of his drawings alone make the Russian publications a delight to the lover of art, whether archæologist or not. This very delicacy has apparently prevented their successful reproduction. The fault is not in the reduction, which still remains clear enough, but the lines have lost their subtlety, many of them appear feeble and broken; and the photographic process to which it has been necessary to have recourse has reproduced the grain and imperfections of the paper, sometimes with unpleasant prominence. It also seems a pity that the chromolithographs of the original work should not have been reproduced in color—at least the most important of them. As it is, with these as with the line-drawings, the facts are there, but the spirit is gone; and while archæological students will find M. Reinach's edition an indispensable addition to their book-shelves, our public libraries ought not to relax their endeavors to acquire the original.

Mr. Murray's 'Handbook of Greek Archæology' labors under the disadvantage of all manuals which try to get too much into a limited space. We have before this expressed our inability to comprehend the purpose served by these crowded handbooks which appear in constantly increasing numbers. They are necessarily so condensed that the beginner in the study of ancient art gets but a bewildering impression of names and facts from them; the attractiveness of the subject is entirely lost to him, whereas to the more advanced student the material is already familiar, and he has therefore no need of such books. Mr. Murray's present volume is no exception to the rule. Had he given the same amount of space and labor to any one of the seven branches of Greek art of which he here attempts to summarize the history, he might have produced a manual of extreme value, alike to beginner and specialist, by expanding his subject so as to bring out its interest, and treating it with a thoroughness—possible within the size of this volume—which would have made it a useful work of reference. However, this he has not chosen to do, and his book must be judged by what it is. The keynote of his purpose may be found in a sentence in the preface, in which he says that "we have now a large body of accepted truth to which we can refer as such without at every step citing a mass of facts in support of it." The aim of his book is to put this "accepted truth" before the reader, and while this is done as a rule in a conservative spirit, the principle is a dangerous one, in the present state of our knowledge, inasmuch as there must inevitably be some doctrines which, though they appear indisputable to the author, have not yet been accepted by everybody; and, moreover, his desire to state them without citing too many authorities sometimes leads him to render scant justice to the men who first published these "accepted truths," and with whose names it seems to us highly desirable that the beginner should become familiar in connection with the subject. Such men are, for example, Prof. Ramsay and Mr. Flinders Petrie, who have made most valuable contributions to our knowledge of the early civilization of Greece. Although Mr. Murray favors the theory of the former as to the date of the Lions of Mykenæ (p. 178), he does not credit him with it, and Mr. Petrie is disposed of in a foot-note. But the most glaring omission of this nature is in the chapter on Terracottas, which contains no allusion to M. Pottier's little manual on the subject, though it is by far the best handbook on this branch of Greek art that has yet appeared, and should be brought to the notice of all students or lovers of the art.

On the whole, however, Mr. Murray's book, although dry in style, treats its subject carefully and contains a valuable lot of information in a compressed form. If we must have these abridgments of the whole range of Greek art, this is certainly to be recommended as one of the most trustworthy that we have yet seen.

ROGERS'S INDUSTRIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

The Industrial and Commercial History of England: Lectures delivered to the University of Oxford by the late James E. Thorold Rogers. Edited by his son, Arthur G. L. Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

It was said, we believe, of Sir Humphry Davy that he made great discoveries in chemistry by examining what previous experimenters had thrown away, and a somewhat similar judgment might be passed upon the work of the lamented author of these lectures. Political economy as a science requires very broad generalizations, which, however true in the main, are subject to important limitations and exceptions. The determination of the relative influence of custom and competition in fixing both rents and wages has been a field especially fruitful in results of this kind, and by his extensive and minute investigations among mediæval records Prof. Rogers succeeded in bringing to light facts that have led to some important modifications of economic doctrine. It may be that he exaggerated the importance of his discoveries—we are unable to follow him in his view that he had exploded Ricardo's theory of rent by declaring that rent is the outcome of profits, not prices. But this is to be expected of discoverers in general; and the fact that things look larger to him who fixes his whole attention upon them does not extinguish our gratitude to him for making us acquainted with their existence.

It may seem surprising that, as we are informed in the preface, the audience to which these lectures were delivered consisted of about a dozen men, although they were free to all members of the University. The topics discussed are those concerning which the present generation is much troubled, and the erudition of the lecturer was as extensive as it was unique. He illustrated Bacon's maxim that much reading maketh a full man, and the glimpses which he offers into the mysterious life of past ages are often fascinating in their suggestiveness. But to a great extent these lectures consist of material that has appeared in the published works of the author, they contain many repetitions and a good deal of padding, and they are extremely discursive. They are the talk of an antiquary, full of recondite information, poured forth as it rises in the memory, guided by the association of contiguity rather than by any definite plan. Moreover, it must be admitted that, like many other antiquaries, Prof. Rogers was not free from a certain opinionated acerbity. The almost exclusive possession of knowledge of a certain kind seems to lead men to mistake their special superiority for a general one, rendering them not only impatient of criticism, but intolerant of any difference of opinion.

Thus, Prof. Rogers, disliking the expression that men are the creatures of circumstances, calls those who use it fools and poltroons. This is nearly as bad as Adair's story of his first meeting with Burke, when he unfortunately asked that statesman some question concerning the wild parts of Ireland, and got the answer, "You are a fool and a blockhead. There are no wild parts in Ireland." In Prof. Rogers's case this intemperate language occurs so frequently that we fear that it is a sign of hastiness of judgment. We are quite aware that this charge is, under the circumstances, a very serious one to make. Prof. Rogers occupied the position of an expert witness. He testified as to the existence of facts which were and must always remain inaccessible to most people. He visited unexplored regions, and his hearers were absolutely dependent upon his report as to what he had seen. It is indispensable in such cases that there should be accurate and intelligent observation, careful verification, and conscientious recognition of the evidence against as well as in favor of proposed explanations and theories. If we feel that we can depend upon the presence of these conditions, we listen to the witness as to an inspired prophet. If we find that these conditions are not observed in any instance, our confidence is gone; and suspicion, once aroused as to a single particular, beclouds the whole of the evidence. It is to such cases that the legal maxim, *Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, applies, not as expressing a fact, but as warning us of a possibility.

In order to test the credibility of Prof. Rogers as an expert, we have selected certain statements that fall within the ken of American readers, although in making them to an English audience Prof. Rogers must have been aware that they would be taken upon his au-

thority. He is accumulating evidence to show the effect upon cultivation of fixed tenure of land, and mentions as one fact that "the soil of New England is exceedingly sterile as a rule, but the hedges are full of peach trees." We leave it to our readers to judge if the English listener would be led to form a true mental picture of the region in question. Prof. Rogers, we may add, had visited New England, and, we believe, more than once.

If his recollection of what his eyes had seen is not altogether trustworthy, what shall we say of his report of what his ears had heard? Norwich, he tells us, was the principal town in the early history of Connecticut, and in the meadows which lie by its river was the meeting-place of the Six Nations. Statements like this imply a good deal more inaccuracy than they express. The matters involved may be intrinsically of little importance, but when we find an author who is so dictatorial in his language, and so cocksure in his manner, guilty of carelessness of this kind, our confidence is severely shaken. Another instance of inaccuracy is to be found in the statement that the Bank Act of 1844 "has been imitated by no other civilized community." The peculiarity of that act consisted in its separation of the banking from the issue department, and this principle was adopted by the State of New York, and again by the United States in its National Bank Act. Strictly speaking, it may be maintained that this was not an imitation of the English act, for the New York statute was passed in 1838, and the United States statute was an imitation of that of New York. But the principle had been announced in England by Mr. Lloyd before it was adopted in New York, and we apprehend that Prof. Rogers's language would be likely to mislead an English listener as to the extent to which the characteristic features of the Act of 1844 prevail.

Although we are thus admonished that it is not safe to follow Prof. Rogers blindly, it would be unjust to make no reference to the numberless points upon which his lectures throw light. His treatment of economic subjects is so broad, and his knowledge really so extensive, that it is impossible to listen to him without profit, and, in spite of the harshness and abruptness of his style, without pleasure. His historical illustrations continually remind us of the importance of scrutinizing our stock of theories and modifying our cherished generalizations. The following passage from his account of the history of the Bank of England illustrates the power of his method:

"To me the fall of near 30 per cent. [in the Bank stock] in 1710, consequent upon the election of the Tory Parliament and the establishment of a Tory Government, . . . is worth a thousand guesses at the motives of Swift and Atterbury, Harley and St. John, Harcourt and Masham, and the whole procession of dim shadows which pass over the stage of history at this age. And similarly I am more instructed by the rise of 10 per cent. at the death of Anne than I am at the picture of the Whig peers pressing into the council chamber as Anne was in her last lethargy, and forcing from her almost unconscious hand the nomination of Shrewsbury to the office of Treasurer, and the repudiation of the Pretender and his hopes. . . . To my mind, the English Constitution has been as much guarded and developed in Grocers' Hall and Threadneedle Street as in the Palace of Westminster."

Upon the whole there is so much of shrewd and suggestive observation in the book that it is to be recommended, but with the caution that the author's opinions are not always to be accepted without question. If his knowledge is not always accurate, he at least causes his readers to examine the accuracy of their own —a service which is not to be underrated.

SUGGESTION AND FICTION.

Die Suggestion und die Dichtung: Gutachten über Suggestion und Hypnose. Herausgegeben von Karl Emil Franzos. Zweite Auflage. Berlin: F. Fontane & Co. 1892. Small 8vo, pp. 129.

THE youthful but vigorous science of Hypnotism emerged some fifteen years ago from obscurity and the odium of charlatanism into the clear light of scientific research and academic recognition. Within this time it has deeply influenced medical practice; has propounded new problems for the jurist and the moralist; has furnished the experimental psychologist with a new method of research; requires a bibliography of more than a thousand numbers to index the recent contributions to its study; and now threatens to disturb the prevalent conceptions of the relation of man to man, in the delineation of which the novelist and the poet find their material and their *motif*. The distinguished editor of *Deutsche Dichtung* fears that this influence may not be altogether wholesome; that the discoveries of science may be falsely and prematurely applied in the realm of fiction. He is apprehensive, too, that, among so many new and startling results, there may be some more novel than true; that the facts may have been distorted by the nebula of exaggeration, misinterpretation, ignorance, and bias by which science is so often surrounded. Moreover, strongly suspecting that the modern "medicated novel," as Dr. Holmes calls it, in which hypnotism and allied states play so large a part, diverges as much from scientific accuracy as it does from artistic truth and propriety, he has appealed to the most eminent physiologists and psychiatrists of Germany and Austria, asking for an expression of opinion upon the value of hypnotism, and in particular upon its bearings upon the ever vital issues of free-will and responsibility. These opinions—from Professors Helmholtz, DuBois-Reymond, Preyer, Mendel, Jolly, and Eulenberg of Berlin; from Krafft-Ebbing, Exner, Meynert, Nothnagel, and Kahler of Vienna; from Forel of Zurich; from Binswanger of Jena; from Fuchs of Bonn; from Hirt of Breslau—are here collected. Within a month after publication they passed into a second edition.

To give definiteness to his inquiry, Herr Franzos cites three cases reported in the daily press as of actual occurrence, and asks whether science regards them as true and recognizes suggestion, with or without hypnotism, as an adequate explanation of the extraordinary personal influence upon which the tales turn. The first of these alleged incidents tells of a young artist, the protégé of a millionaire and his wife, whom he accompanies to their villa near Florence. He there falls in love with a fair member of his craft and is accepted. He becomes possessed with the idea of founding a grand institute for the advancement of art, and is covetous of his benefactor's wealth for this purpose. The latter is suddenly called away on business, and a few hours thereafter the young artist, despite his betrothal, persuades his benefactor's wife to elope with him to Rome. The artist is there discovered by the husband, is arrested, confined in an asylum, and finally released. His first thought is to find the lady of wealth, over whom he is confident that he possesses unusual powers. Failing in this, he attempts suicide, but recovers. The lady, who remembered nothing of her flight to Rome, is informed of what has happened and consents to a divorce. She thus comes into possession of her own property, and her first act is to endow an art institute.

The second case is that of a young man who gains a mysterious power over an old bookbinder, to whom he was formerly apprenticed, and whose rival he has now become. Through the unexpressed wishes of the young man, aided by potent glances upon casual meetings, the bookbinder is forced to commit a variety of foolish and unseemly acts, finally necessitating his removal to another town.

The third case is similar. A young man, upon the plea of needing funds to perfect some invention, swindles his employer of a considerable sum of money. He is convicted, and, after serving his sentence, again passes forged papers into his former employer's hands. At the trial he at first admits his guilt, but suddenly claims that he wrote the papers simply to practise his handwriting, that the plaintiff was aware of this, and knowingly took them into his possession. The plaintiff is recalled, and, in contradiction to his former testimony, corroborates the defendant's new version of the transaction. The story, like the preceding one, involves the direct transference of thought from one mind to another, and the control by this means of another's actions and utterances.

How far, Herr Franzos asks, does science corroborate such tales? in what respect must the doctrine of free-will be modified to accord with new discoveries? in what way may writers of fiction utilize such incidents and remain true to fact?

To expect unanimity among sixteen German professors upon such a question, is to presume for the German professor as well as for present science an approximation to Utopian harmony that is hardly warranted by past experience; and yet it is possible in some respects to outline the tenor of these replies without injustice to individual differences. All are agreed that the incidents as told involve gross exaggeration and misrepresentation, and that an explanation of what really occurred would be possible only after the minutest details of personnel and incident had been supplied; and if a definite "yes" or "no" be required, the verdict must be that these tales and their kind are neither true nor verisimilar. The writer of fiction who introduces hypnotism into his work in this guise and with such accompaniments diverges very far from legitimate realism. Thought transference, or telepathy, is pronounced by all not proven, by some impossible; while a few are tempted to use quite unparliamentary epithets in their characterization.

At this point the differences of opinion begin. The most unfavorable opinion is that of Prof. Fuchs, who regards the entire hypnotic movement as pernicious, and those who act as "subjects" as seekers of notoriety and victims of the passion of deception; he would like to see university professors and not hysterical women hypnotized. Prof. Nothnagel is opposed to the popularization of hypnotism and is inclined to be suspicious of its results. The others clearly indicate their belief in the reality of the hypnotic condition and the importance of studying it. A considerable number regard the state as pathological, though equally many hold that persons in normal health are hypnotizable. All who touch upon the point are agreed that no one can be hypnotized without his knowledge, and most would add "consent"; and this is an additional reason for refusing credence to the tales above told. Further than this, the various contributors under-

stand the inquiry so differently, commenting upon the points in which they are personally most interested, that any statistical analysis of their opinions becomes impossible. There are, however, certain general impressions which the volume leaves and which may be noted.

The two phenomena most important to the issue raised by Herr Franzos are the post-hypnotic suggestion and the criminal suggestion. The former term stands for the fact that suggestions given during the hypnotic state may be carried out after waking while the subject is in a normal condition. The subject forgets the source of the impulse to do the suggested deed, and so accepts it as his own. The suggestion may be entirely proper, or have no moral significance, but it may also be criminal in intent, and thus apparently deprive a responsible agent of his responsibility. This possibility naturally takes deep hold upon the novelist and the reading public, and its discussion both from a legal and a moral point of view can hardly be much longer postponed. Criminal suggestions during the hypnotic state have been given, but different experimenters are not agreed upon their interpretation of the facts. Some hold that the subject appreciates that it is a "laboratory crime" that he is committing, while others hold that it is dead earnest. It is certainly true that the subject is not a mere automaton; his character and morality are not annihilated, and yet his power of resistance is weakened. Just how far this increases the possibilities of suggested crime it is difficult to say; but it is important not to lose sight of the fact that suggestibility, like responsibility, is of all kinds and degrees, and that the action of hypnotic suggestion is not so far different from that of the environment and other recognized influences as one is apt to imagine.

The novelist must remember that in addition to the ordinarily recognized and patent factors by which conduct is influenced and character formed, there are many others, subtle, unconscious, and difficult of description, but no less real and potent; he must remember that both sorts of influences differ widely in the kind and degree of their effects, passing by imperceptible gradations into the abnormal; and finally he will do well to bear in mind that no good can result from the indiscriminate introduction of states and phenomena that arise in unusual and quasi-morbid circumstances, into the everyday lives of everyday people.

This seems to be the outcome of Herr Franzos's inquiry. Nothing but confusion results from explaining a phenomenon by calling it hypnotism or suggestion unless these terms be used with an adequate consideration of the facts established by scientific research, and not with the loose and meaningless connotation which they bear to the popular mind. Here, as everywhere, mental health depends upon the power of drawing distinctions, of absorbing the actual and vital while rejecting the unreal and parasitical. The study of hypnotism is doubtless destined to add to our insight into man and his mental operations, but not by loose generalizations and sensational applications of dimly suspected truths.

Le Choléra, ses causes, moyens de s'en préserver. Par le Dr. G. Daremberg. Paris: Rueff & Cie. 1892.

THE savagery that has lately disgraced our shores, and the shot-gun quarantines from time to time established against epidemic disease, are barbaric expressions of the natural dread of illness, and especially of the fear when the approach of a pandemic threatens general desolation. Fortunately, those rude outbreaks are but the uncouth and cruel illustrations of a common feeling that finds a more intelligent and profitable expression in preventive medicine. This science is aggressive. Its pickets have long been in the enemy's front, and now it has fairly established permanent outposts, here and there, within his former lines. And although occasional errors are committed and untenable positions have to be vacated, the progress, one decade with another, is steady and positive. This little book is the very latest and one of the most lucid and trustworthy of the despatches sent back from the advance guard. Its author is well known and respected among the leaders of science, and it contains material collected as late as August, 1892. Although written especially for French conditions, its intelligence and its warnings are full of value to us.

The preface describes it truly as a work of practical hygiene, representing researches and opinions in relation to cholera control originally presented to scientific bodies and now set forth in abstract for the benefit of municipal authorities, upon whom rests the possibility of perpetuating or abolishing "the unhygienic horrors in the midst of which we live without protest." But as, particularly with us, laws and regulations unsupported by popular opinion can be enforced with difficulty, such studies should be taken to heart by every intelligent citizen, who, in turn, should become a propagandist of the gospel of sanitation.

It is unnecessary to describe anew the march of the fierce epidemics that during the past three score years have laid waste both hemispheres. It is now clearly shown that they follow the lines of human intercourse, at least in Europe and America. Cholera in India is a problem by itself. If there is no transportation of persons and things, there will be no spread of cholera. But must every case in Europe proceed from a recent preëxisting case? Leaving out of sight the views of a few who find no difficulty in believing that, given a long succession of favorable conditions, the disease may arise, let us say, in the delta of the Amazon or of the Mississippi, as well as in that of the Ganges, or that by natural evolution a harmless microbe may become virulent, Dr. Daremberg maintains that the cholera cause, once deposited in the soil, may lie dormant but vital to renew its activity after a term of years. As a matter of fact he announces that the existing Parisian epidemic has no relation to the present Russian and North German disease, whose immediate connection with India may be traced by a chain of well-defined links. This very grave assertion will be referred to later.

Although not yet accepted by some excellent Indian authorities, we may assume with the writer that the comma bacillus of Koch holds a causal relation to epidemic cholera. Forewarned as to the habits of that microbe, we may forearm ourselves against its effects. It is pretty certain that it withstands all natural cold; that boiling (in water) will destroy it; that it multiplies in ordinary drinking-water with variable rapidity; that it survives, at least for a time, in the soil; that, wet or dry, it may cling to any article it touches, preserving a prolonged vitality, thus making clothing, food, the dust of the house or of the street, as well as unclean hands and utensils, mediums of infection. Just how long it may survive when dried by the forces of nature is yet undetermined.

Ever since Dr. Snow's experiment with the handle of the cholera pump, no English-speaking student has doubted that water may be a vehicle. Concerning the earth, there have been two schools, and, notwithstanding Pettenkofer's ground-water theory, the prevailing belief has been that the pathogenic bacteria are destroyed either in conflict with other microbes or by the oxygen in the upper layers of the soil. But our author is a strenuous advocate of their prolonged vitality within the earth, so that, when brought to the surface by turning up the soil or by capillarity, and mingled with the dust, they, like the bacilli of tubercle, are ready to convey their special poison. He insists, therefore, that sewage-irrigation farms which have received choleraic discharges not disinfected, are constant menaces to the public health, and that the great farm of Gennevilliers is responsible for much of the special disease of Paris. Disinfected discharges are of course harmless. This challenge from such authority must be met by renewed sanitary investigation before such farms can be safely advised; for it follows that if the cholera bacilli preserve their vitality, they may attach themselves to such vegetables as are eaten raw as well as mingle with the dust and so with the atmosphere.

But what is of more immediate popular interest is the avoidance of the disease when it is at hand. Land quarantine on a large scale has no value, and only creates a false sense of security. Quarantine by sea that does not involve complete disinfection, is useless as to the country to be protected and destructive to the voyagers. A quarantine of observation with complete disinfection of vessel, passengers, and freight, involves short time and moderate expense and is sufficient. The station at the mouth of the Mississippi is cited as a typical example of intelligent prevention. Except as to the arrangements for observing suspected passengers, it has always been supposed that the facilities for disinfection at New York were adequate to prevent the entrance of an epidemic here.

The destruction of the cholera germ itself depends upon its inability to withstand 212 degrees F., to live in an acid medium, or to survive certain other germicides, the most important of which is corrosive sublimate. Heat and acids are as serviceable for private families as for the public. It was long ago published as an empirical fact that acid drinks guard against cholera, although the guard may be forced. But this was neither generally known nor believed. It has now been determined by exact experiment that very slightly acidulated fluids kill the comma bacillus, and the frequent immunity of well-fed persons of good digestion appears to rest upon the natural acidity of the gastric secretions. Certainly, as herein advised, the habitual use of about six grains of citric acid to a pint of water, as an ordinary drink in the presence of cholera, not only destroys stray bacilli in the water itself, but fortifies the stomach against attack in that direction. Wherever groups of people work together, the management should supply them with this cheap and pleasant beverage. A very dilute mineral acid has the same good effect.

Two popular fallacies are disposed of here. Alcohol, the broken staff upon which so many lean in danger, predisposes the stomach to the reception of the bacilli. Opium, sought for the relief of pain, is not disengaged through the inflamed kidneys, and hastens the end. Boiled water drunk soon after boiling is safe, but if exposed it may serve to nourish germs accidentally introduced. One can never be

sure of ice. Porcelain filters daily and scrupulously brushed with acidulated water may be depended upon. All others either become clogged or do not detain the poison. Alum, whose ability to clarify muddy (alluvial) water has long been known, is here announced as a germicide also. It is claimed that three grains agitated through a quart of water will not only leave it clear at the end of twenty-four hours, but also free from germs (*ne contient plus aucun microbe*). Preventive "vaccination"—an odious word as applied to counter inoculation—by very recent experiments seems a preventive, but this epidemic will pass before that can be popularized. Very little space is given to treatment, properly enough in a book on prevention. What is suggested looks to the slaughter of the invading bacilli and to replenishing the body-fluids drained in the profuse discharges. That does not seem enough. Bacilli may be the cause, excessive outpourings are a part of the consequence, but the disease proper is something else, probably a derangement of the organic nervous system.

But to be clean, to be clean, to be clean, is the burden of the book. Cleanse the mouth, the nose, the skin, and above all, the hands, and use for this purpose as well as for drinking only disinfected water. Keep the body warm and well nourished. Cut short the preliminary painless diarrhœa. Be always scrupulously clean, and for the sake of others disinfect all emitted fluids. For its manner and inspiration the book itself should be consulted, and its immediate translation into English would be to the popular good.

Kolokotronis, the Klepht and the Warrior. Sixty Years of Peril and Daring: An Autobiography. Translated from the Greek with introduction and notes by Mrs. Edmonds, with a preface by J. Gennadius. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THE Life of Theodore Kolokotronis, told by himself to his friend George Tertzetis, reads like a modernized narrative from the 'Iliad.' It gives a vivid history of the Greek War of Independence from the point of view of one of its heroes and chief actors. Although most personal narratives err on the score of partisanship, and are generally more or less tinged with egotism (and this is no exception to the rule), we are told by Mr. Gennadius in his preface that, on the publication of these reminiscences (which took place firstly in 1846 privately, and subsequently in their entirety in 1852, at which time many of the fellow-combatants of Kolokotronis were still living), no material contradictions were called forth—only a few emendations as to incidents of slight importance—and that no one has ever questioned the exact veracity of his part in the war. Those who are not thoroughly cognizant of the history of Greece at the moment of this struggle will find some difficulty in grasping the import of much of the story. The old warrior never had any intention of furnishing material for a book. He could read, and it is said that he thought education would do more for Greece after it became a kingdom than the sabres of its pallikars; but he could not even write beyond scratching his own signature, so it was only at the repeated urging of his friend that he consented to dictate his memoirs. This he did in the simple idiom of the Greek mountaineer, and Tertzetis had the good taste to change nothing. He did not even add any supplementary notes, so that, as the narrator presupposes a knowledge of the events he refers to, and does not lose time by explanations, the uninitiated reader remains unenlightened. This is decidedly unfortunate in a work which is evidently mainly intended for boys, belonging as it does to the Adventure Series.

Mrs. Edmonds has in a measure supplemented this defect by giving us an historical sketch of the klephts, this term meaning the free mountaineers who carry on open warfare against their oppressors, and not brigands whose object is plunder. After the fall of Constantinople in 1453, the mountains of Olympus, Pindus, Pelion, and Agrapha became gradually peopled by men who would not submit to Ottoman rule; they occupied the mountain fastnesses, and were beyond the power of the Turk. The rough, untrammelled life they led had a great attraction for adventurous spirits, and their numbers continued to increase. The attitude the klephts maintained with regard to the Ottoman Government was encouraged by the Venetians, who held maritime ports in their neighborhood, and who called the klephts to their aid when they found it necessary to fight against the Turk. After these combats many of them returned to their mountain homes, while others, hoping for some fresh opportunity of fighting the common enemy, remained in the Venetian service. The Porte also, on her side, enrolled as many klephts and Greeks as she could persuade to fight for her; and during the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, between 1534 and 1537, terms were offered to the mountain people which they could accept without feeling they had offered submission. Ibrahim, the Grand Vizier of Solyman, a man of great intelligence, favorably disposed towards the Christians, being himself of lowly Christian origin, divided Greece into fifteen districts, and appointed a Christian as captain or armatolos (a man at arms), whose function was to keep order on the highways and to repress outrages through his province. In 1627, Amurath, fearing the armatoli were getting too powerful, destroyed all their forts on the defiles and put Ottomans in their posts. The armatoli on this formed themselves into a body and revenged themselves on the Turks who had been put in their places by killing them and ravaging the district. The Greek historian Sathas says: "On this account they first received the name of klephts, from κλέπτειν—to steal or rob—by which name they were ever afterwards known to the outside world."

The Turks in vain sought by every means to check their deeds of violence, but, every measure failing, they were obliged to issue a new firman reinstating them as guardians of the roads, charged also to collect taxes on flocks. They were thus allowed the possession of the hills on condition of the payment of a small tribute and of defending the country against Albanian brigands. For this purpose they were enrolled as armatoli, *i. e.*, the captain of each band was an armatolos, and the men received the name of pallikars (from πάλλομαι, I bound or leap), and this term still remains to designate a brave warrior. The companies of armatoli were entirely composed of Christians; no Turk could ever be enrolled among them. The beneficent effect of this arrangement was soon felt by the dwellers on the plains, who had previously been unable to protect their flocks and lands. Even then many of the fiercest klephts would not hear of treating with the Turk, and held their mountain heights, governing their districts in their own way, regardless of pasha or bey. But the armatoli and the klephts were continually exchanging rôles, it would seem, for the Turks found it to their interest to entice the fiercest into their service, while, on the other hand, the armatoli sometimes preferred the freer, more untrammelled life of the klepht. A very significant difference in their costume was that the klephts wore a long cord wound round their waists and tied in front, to serve them to bind their captives with; otherwise they were dressed alike in fustanella, with vests adorned with silver buttons, according to their means, and rich embroideries on jackets and greaves. These wild mountaineers had necessarily to come down from the barren crags on which they lived to plunder, in order to live; and they did not hesitate to pillage their Greek compatriots when they had any grudge against them; they especially preyed on tax-gatherers, wealthy prelates, and the monasteries. Their animosity against the monks was on account of the latter never giving them assistance in time of need, from obsequiousness to the Turk; otherwise, like all Greeks, they were strictly attached to the forms of the orthodox faith, giving offerings to the saints and invoking God's blessing on the success of their arms on every perilous adventure. They would never lay hands on the vessels of the sanctuary, although they had no scruples as to plundering monks. Mrs. Edmonds also tells us how temperate and chaste the klephts were. She goes on to describe the many risings which took place before 1821, mostly miserable failures, but always instigated by klephts to liberate their country from the intolerable oppressions and persecutions they were enduring under Turkish rule.

Kolokotronis came of a family of klephts who had held their own against the Turks for three hundred years. The revolt of the Morea, in which his father had taken part, was just suppressed when he was born under a tree on the hills of Rama in Messenia, in 1770. Already an orphan at twelve years old, he was bringing a load of wood to sell for his mother at Tripolitza, when he was met by a Turk, who gave him a beating. This indignity so enraged him that he bought himself a sword with the price of the wood and vowed vengeance on the oppressor of his country. His very name, and the traditions of his family, must also have opened this path to him. When only sixteen, the Porte gave orders that the whole clan of Kolokotronis should be extirpated, and we read that thirty-six of Theodore's brothers, cousins, and relatives, and one hundred and fifty followers were butchered in this struggle; but, notwithstanding this, Theodore had himself recognized as chief of the armatoli of Megalopolis. He had the year following to fly to Zante on account of a conspiracy against him. We have not space to describe his adventurous career, so full of thrilling crises. At one moment the people of the Morea wished to proclaim him their king, at another he was condemned to death. He seems to have met all these variations of fortune with indomitable courage, having always the good of his fatherland as the aim before which all personal affections and ambitions were sacrificed. This is the trait which strikes one all through the autobiography as the dominant one, and it is at least gratifying to the reader to learn that the first act of King Otho, on attaining his majority, was to release Kolokotronis from prison, and that for ten years he lived in Athens, enjoying the high esteem of his countrymen, who regarded him as the chief factor in their war of independence.

The illustrations are among the worst we have seen in any recent book.

Sohm's Institutes of Roman Law. Translated by James C. Ledlie, of the Middle Temple and of Lincoln College, Oxford, with an introductory essay by Dr. Erwin Grueber, Reader in Roman Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

Prof. Rudolph Sohm of Leipzig is an acknowledged authority on Roman Law; his book, in so far as it treats of the internal development of that law from its rude beginnings to the days of Justinian, fills worthily the place which Hugo's utterly unreadable treatise occupied, for want of anything better, at the beginning of the century. Grueber's essay refers to the study and application of the Roman Law from the days of Accursius at Bologna to the present time, in Italy, France, and Germany, and does not aid us in understanding or appreciating Sohm's great work. Throughout the latter so much room is given to the growth and change of law—Justinian's legislation being never expounded except as the final outcome of a slow and gradual development—that one might prefer to call it Sohm's History of the Evolution of Roman Law. We find everywhere, whether the law of persons or of things, whether obligations arising from contract or from tort, whether rights or remedies are discussed, the same progress from the compound of savagery and of helpless formalism which constitutes the old Jus Quiritium, and is left almost intact by the Twelve Tables, to the polished and world-embracing body of equitable rules making up the Corpus Juris Civilis of the later Empire, which Justinian at last by his 'Novellæ' freed from all remnants of unreason and of harshness. This progress is shown to have taken on all the modes pointed out by Sir Henry Maine in his 'Ancient Law'—fiction, equity, and statute. The great defect of Maine's work is the scantiness of illustration. Were it to be published with Sohm's 'Institutes' broken up into copious notes, it would, at least to the thinking lawyer, be most interesting reading.

Prof. Sohm himself sometimes speaks in a footnote of some bizarre or harsh rule in old German law, such as it existed before the Civil Law was introduced early in the sixteenth century, and points out its analogy to the rude customs of the earlier days of Rome; but he cannot trace the parallel development of the two systems, for Germany, when it became philosophic and civilized, threw away the bulk of its own jurisprudence instead of developing and improving it, so as to conform it to modern wants. And here, we think, the translator, Mr. Ledlie, has allowed a great opportunity to slip. An English lawyer has material for comparison which the German lawyer lacks. Sir Henry Maine evidently had the progress of both English and Roman Law in his mind when he sketched the progress of law in his painfully general way, relying upon the reader's ingenuity to fill up the canvas. As all Roman transfers of property started from the *mancipium*, to which soon the fictitious judgment known as *in jure cessio* was added, so in England all transfers of land began with livery of seizin and fine. As the Roman Law had its *obligatio verbis*, in which a consideration was not essential, so the English law has its sealed contract, "importing a consideration." In both systems under their later forms the consideration may be drawn into dispute. As the oldest Roman Law knew no mortgage other than in the form of an absolute sale, so the English mortgage is still a sale in form, but is now in effect pretty much like the *hypotheca* of the latest Roman Law. The analogy of the Roman prætor to the Chancellor, and of the judex to the common-law judge, was noticed by Gilbert in his 'Jus Prætorianum' a hundred and fifty years ago; the similarity of the *formula* to the English paper book (but for the conciseness of the former and the prolixity of the latter) is most striking. The helplessness of the early Roman judges, who could adjudge nothing but a sum of money, reminds us of the English action of trover; the late Imperial Constitutions, which provided for a restoration of the thing in dispute, did the same for Romans deprived of highly valued articles that the English Chancellor did for the owner of an heirloom in Pusey vs. Fusey. The older Roman Law for executing money judgments was cruel mainly from helplessness; and so was the English and even the American law at the beginning of this century. Men were imprisoned or outlawed merely because the simple idea of taking just enough of the debtor's property to pay the creditor's judgment was beyond the narrow formalism of George the Third's England, as it had been beyond that of Cæsar's or even of Hadrian's Rome.

In his introductory essay Dr. Grueber expresses the hope that the publication of Sohm's treatise in English will not "interfere with the present [English] system of instruction," which is "based immediately on the study of the Roman sources, *i. e.*, chiefly on the text of the Institutes of Gaius and Justinian." Sharing this hope, we add a brief review of the work that has been done of late years in England in the editing and translating of the texts of the Roman Law. Dr. Moyle's excellent version of the Justinian Institutes has reached a second edition. Moyle's command of contemporary literature is not so complete as that exhibited by Prof. Muirhead in his 'Roman Law,' but the translation is faithful and the notes are valuable. Poste's text and translation of Gaius has also reached a second edition; but his text is not so correct as that given by Muirhead in the latter's Gaius and Ulpian. Prof. Holland's text of the Justinian Institutes, "edited as a recension of the Institutes of Gaius," in which the passages borrowed from Gaius are distinguished by different type, enables the student at a glance to grasp the relations of the classical and the Justinian law. In this respect it serves the same purpose as the numerous Continental "Syntagmata"; but the latter have the advantage of giving a complete text of Gaius as well as of Justinian. Finally, Holland's and Shadwell's 'Select Titles from the Institutes of Justinian' furnish well-chosen material for more advanced reading.

The text editions of Muirhead and Moyle (supplemented by Mommsen's edition of Bruno's 'Fontes Juris Romani,' Lenel's 'Edictum Perpetuum,' and Mommsen's and Krüger's 'Corpus Juris Civilis'), with the treatises of Muirhead and Sohm, will be found to constitute an excellent working library for the study of the Roman Law. All that is now really needed is a good English book on Roman civil procedure. Will not the Clarendon Press, that has already done so much for English and American students, give them a translation of Wach's latest edition of Keller's 'Römischer Civil-Process'? The older English books, original or translated, can then be relegated to their proper place—the stack-rooms of our libraries.

Secret Service under Pitt. By W. J. Fitzpatrick, F. S. A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

The author of this portly volume claims a credit for diligent research which apparently is no more than his due. But his subject, which is the identification and the history of Irish spies employed under the Government of Pitt, while it may have an interest for Irish patriots, has little interest for any other class of readers. A Government threatened by conspiracy at home in concert with impending invasion from abroad will, of course, employ spies in its defence, and will look for them in the ranks of the conspirators. It is mournfully notorious that an Irish conspiracy has always in it a spy. The book contains, so far as we can see, no very startling revelation except in the case of the Franciscan Father Arthur O'Leary, whose sinister connection with the Government had already fallen under the notice of Mr. Lecky.

Father O'Leary was a brilliant and popular writer, who in pleading the Catholic cause took the line of moderation and national amity. If he was really a spy, or employed as a paid agent in the secret service of the Government, he must have played his part with consummate skill, for he died in the odor of the purest public virtue, and panegyric followed him beyond the grave. In the very year in which (if the charge now brought against his memory is true) he undertook "to get at the bottom of all secrets in which the Catholics were concerned," a gold medal was presented to him by the Cork Amicable Society, in which

"he was represented in the habit of his Order, crushing with his right foot the hydra of religious persecution, with his right hand opening the gates of the Temple of Concord, and with his left beckoning his countrymen (emblematically represented by the harp) to enter the sacred edifice forgetful of their prejudices against each other, while the genius of his country was represented with outstretched arms over his head, each bearing a crown, one of science, the other of victory."

Grattan said of O'Leary that if he did not know him to be a Christian clergyman, he would suppose him, from his writings, to be a philosopher of the Augustan age. The evidence adduced against O'Leary in this volume does not seem to us perfectly conclusive. There is a little doubt about the identity, the Christian name not being given in the incriminating documents, though Mr. Lecky puts this doubt aside. Apart from this, however, we should say nothing more is absolutely proved than that O'Leary was not so independent as he professed to be, and was possibly rather slippery in character. As a moderatist avowedly opposed to rebellion, he might naturally have intercourse with the members of the Government; and though it seems that he received, or was ready to receive, £100 for some service, the service is not specified, and it is somewhat harsh to assume that it was the service of a spy. At the same time, Mr. Fitzpatrick is able to state that Lord O'Hagan, who had kept O'Leary's portrait in his study and regarded O'Leary's writings as his political guide, mournfully admitted the force of the evidence.

It does not appear that Pitt himself soiled his fingers with this dirty work, though he must of course have been aware in a general way of what was going on. Whatever may have been his errors, he was, like his father, high-souled, and he would be sure to leave the reptile department to others. Mr. Fitzpatrick largely quotes and freely cites Mr. Froude, who is not so good an authority as Mr. Lecky, and the investigation into whose accuracy opens a wide but unfruitful field. However, the work will no doubt be interesting to Irish patriots, to some of whom it may at the same time read a salutary lesson.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. Gulf and Glacier; or, The Percivals in Alaska. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Bailey, L. H. The Horticulturist's Rule-Book. 2d ed. Rural Publishing Co.
Ball, B. W. The Merrimack River. Putnams. $2.
Barrett, C. R. B. Essex: Highways, Byways and Waterways. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Chaffee, Frank. Bachelor Buttons. George M. Allen Co.
Checkley, Edwin. Natural Method of Physical Training. New ed. Brooklyn: W. C. Bryant & Co.
Cook, Prof. A. S. The Art of Poetry: The Poetical Treatises of Horace, Vida and Boileau. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Daudet, A. L'Evangéliste. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Dods, Rev. Marcus. The Gospel of St. John. Vol. 2. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Dumas, A. Nanon. Chicago: Lotus Publishing Co.
Dupuis, Prof. N. F. The Principles of Elementary Algebra. Macmillan. $1.10.
Ellis, E. S. From the Throttle to the President's Chair. Cassell. $1.50.
Ellwood, J. K. Table Book and Test Problems in Mathematics. American Book Co. $1.
Goddard, Julia. Fairy Tales in Other Lands. Cassell. $1.25.
Griffin, Sir Lepel. Ranjit Singh. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Hale, E. E. East and West: A Story of Newborn Ohio. Cassell. $1.
Harvey, Emeline D. Gold Dust. Chicago: Lotus Publishing Co.
Hesty, G. A. Condemned as a Nihilist. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. In Greek Waters. Scribners. $1.50.
Herron, Rev. G. D. A Plea for the Gospel. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Hodges, Rev. G. Christianity between Sundays. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Holland, J. G. Bittersweet; Kathrina. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.50.
Johnston, R. M. Mr. Fortner's Marital Claims, and Other Stories. Appletons.
Johnson, Rossiter. The End of a Rainbow. Scribners. $1.50.
Kirby, W. F. Elementary Text-Book of Entomology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Knox, T. W. A Close Shave. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Leighton, Robert. The Thirsty Sword. Scribners. $1.50.
Lhomme, F. Charlet. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Mackie, Alexander. Macaulay's Essay on Warren Hastings. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Mathews, Harriet. Outlines of English Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
McAnally, D. R., Jr. How Men Make Love and Get Married. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.
Millet, F. D. The Danube from the Black Forest to the Black Sea. Harpers. $2.50.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Third Part: Chamberlen—Conciliation. Macmillan. $1.
Peacock, T. L. Calidore, and Miscellanea. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Perkins, J. B. France under the Regency. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Rand & McNally's Pocket Map of Vermont. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Ridpath, J. C. The United States: A History. New ed. U. S. History Co.
Sabine, Julia A. At the End of the Rainbow. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Duchess of Berry and the Court of Louis XVIII. Scribners. $1.25.
Sauveur, L., and Van Daell, A. N. La Parole Française. New ed. F. W. Christern.
Sauveur, Marie-Louise, and Louge, Susan C. Premières Leçons de Grammaire. F. W. Christern.
Savage, R. H. Prince Schamyl's Wooing. American News Co. 50 cents.
Stevenson, Rev. W. F. Praying and Working. Order of St. Christopher.
Tautphoeus, Baroness. The Initials: A Story of Modern Life. Putnams. $2.50.
The Schoolmaster in Literature. American Book Co. $1.40.
The Story of the Life of Mackay of Uganda. Armstrong. $1.50.
The Wee Widow's Cruise in Quiet Waters. Cassell. 50 cents.
Thompson, Mary S. Rhythmical Gymnastics. E. S. Werner. $1.
Thoreau, H. D. Autumn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tillier, Claude. My Uncle Benjamin. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Torrey, Bradford. The Foot-Path Way. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Tourgée, A. W. A Son of Old Harry. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
Vincent, Jacques. Tiomane. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Ward, W. C. The Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay. 3 vols. Frederick Warne & Co. $3.
Werner, E. Enthralled and Released. Worthington Co.
Williams, Espy. The Dream of Art, and Other Poems. Putnams. 75 cents.
Young, Gerald. The Wild Pigs: A Story for Little People. Macmillan. $1.25.

Hyde's (W. De W.) Practical Ethics. 12mo, 208 pp. Mailing price, 88 cents.

A book for sub-collegiate classes. Its theory is nowhere abstractly stated, but is imbedded in its structure. The proof offered is not a metaphysical deduction from first principles, but simply the presentation in a rational and intelligible order of the concrete facts and consequences of conduct. Duties and virtues are enumerated, not by exhortation, but by showing the place they occupy in a coherent system of truth and the part they play in a symmetrical development of character.

Shaw's (E. R.) English Composition by Practice. 12mo, 203 pp. Mailing price, 83 cts.

This book sets the pupil at writing rather than at correcting the writing of others, and it does not demand bricks without straw. It develops inductively the elementary principles of composition from inspection of examples of good writing, themselves of the sort and of sufficient length to awaken the pupil's interest.

Jagemann's (H. C. G. von) Elements of German Syntax. 12mo. 170 pp. Mailing price, 88 cents.

A supplement to the regular grammars. The facts most important in rendering into German are systematically presented from the point of view of English, instead of that of general descriptive grammar.

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[Continued from page iii.]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1892.

The Week.

THE calm tone of Mr. Cleveland's letter is entirely suited to that of the present campaign. If the country is quiet and is entering upon a Presidential election free from the excitement and uproar which usually accompany such contests, Mr. Cleveland is equally undisturbed. He states his principles and his attitude towards the leading questions of the canvass, and submits his fortunes and those of his party to the verdict of the people, without making any effort to excite their prejudices. The strongest portion of his letter is naturally that relating to the tariff issue, for it is with this that he is most closely identified, and it is upon this that the election will turn. Those persons who have been hoping that he would "dodge" on this question and fail to stand squarely upon the Chicago platform, will be disappointed. He does nothing of the kind. He accepts the platform in the spirit in which every genuine tariff-reformer accepts it. He believes in a "tariff for revenue only," and that "Republican protection is a fraud"; but, while believing this, he does not propose to do, what Mr. Harrison declares to be the Democratic purpose, viz., "blow up" the entire existing system without delay, and put absolute free trade in its place.

A great many Republican newspapers and stump-speakers are in a state of unconcealed agitation over the financial dangers which would be involved in Democratic success. It is a pity that they are so alarmed by the imagined evils of the future that they cannot stop to discuss the actual evils of the present and point out what party is responsible for them. Perhaps they are content, however, to leave financial journals to do the work for them. The last number of the *Financial Chronicle* has articles upon "The Financial Situation" and "The United States' Position in the World's Gold Movements," both of which, it says, "go to prove the imperative need that exists for the speedy repeal of the 1890 Silver Law." After showing that the "merchandise result" in our foreign trade for August was "about $19,000,000 worse" than for the same month last year, and pointing out the bearing of this fact on gold exports, it speaks of the "respite" afforded during the past week by the falling of foreign exchange, but says: "We call it a respite because all know that so long as that 1890 Silver Law remains on the statute-books, the evil is at work even during these seasons of apparent rest. No doubt under recent experience the country has become more fully convinced of the mistake that law was and is." When conservative financial organs are saying such things as this, it is in order for the Republican party to give a little more thought to its own financial folly, as embodied in Republican legislation, and a little less to the dreadful financial plots of the Democrats, all as yet in the future.

One of the "silver Senators," Mr. Stewart of Nevada, has bolted his party on that issue, having refused to support Harrison and declared for Weaver. This confirms previous indications that so many of the Nevada Republicans are going over to the third party on this issue that Weaver will carry the State. In Colorado the Republicans are trying to "straddle" upon the silver question. The platform adopted at their recent State Convention declares that the portion of the Minneapolis platform which says that "the Republican party demands the use of both gold and silver as standard money, with restrictions and under provisions to be determined by legislation," is to be interpreted to "mean that such wise legislation, if passed by the legislative branch of the Government, which represents the people, would be sanctioned by the executive." This, being interpreted, means that President Harrison, if reëlected, would, in the opinion of the Colorado Republicans, be bound not to veto a free-coinage bill if Congress should pass one. Meanwhile Eastern Republicans are urging his reëlection on the ground that he is the only man running for the Presidency who can be trusted to block free-coinage legislation.

The Ohio Wool-Growers' Association—the well-known *alias* of Messrs. Lawrence and Delano—has been at it again. Its annual session was held at Columbus on September 16, and the "semi-annual address" of President Lawrence contained bad news for the country in general and the Republican party in particular. The fact is that the duties on wool are too low, and have got to be raised at once, or the "80,000 voting wool-growers of Ohio" will know the reason why. The insatiate Lawrence reminds the Republicans that their platform of 1888 declared for "full and adequate protection" for wool. That the McKinley duties do not fill the bill is evident from the fact that the price of wool is lower than before they were put on. Wool-grower Lawrence admits that McKinley meant well, but says that his "purpose has been in part defeated by the decline in foreign prices, which was not expected when the law was passed." There can be no question, of course, what "the remedy" is—namely, "increased protection." Accordingly, "wool-growers should know from every candidate for Congress whether he will aid in securing this, and, if not, then refuse to vote for him."

This declaration of war may in part account for the sudden Republican nervousness over the situation in Ohio. McKinley and Foster are reported to be cancelling their outside engagements in order to take the stump at home in a "sure State," and Senator Sherman is booked for twenty speeches, all in "rock-bound Ohio." Secretary Foster is singled out by Lawrence for especial warning. The latter says that "on June 1, 1891, Mr. Delano and myself addressed an argument to the Secretary of the Treasury, demonstrating, as we believe, that Chinese wools should be dutiable as first-class wools." Sad and strange to say, "as yet no answer has been received." And no later than August 9, he called Mr. Foster's attention to the pernicious importations of "white-flannel cuttings from France" at 10 cents a pound duty, when, "in fact, they are waste, dutiable at 30 cents per pound." He wanted the "dumping" on us of "all the clippings of Asia and Europe" stopped at once, but "as yet I have no answer." This looks ominous for Secretary Foster, but we think he has a perfectly good defence. He ought at once to write Lawrence and Delano that all his time is taken up, in company with all the leading Republican orators, in denouncing any "change' in the tariff. How can he and the rest of them keep on with straight faces demanding that the tariff be "let alone" if every dissatisfied Republican who wants more protection begins already to serve notice that he must have it?

Quay no longer receives from the Republican press tributes, as "a practical politician and statesman, the leader of a great campaign, the admiration of the country," such as were paid him so profusely four years ago; but an interview with him still commands a certain measure of attention. He tells an inquiring reporter that he thinks Harrison will be elected, and he also tells why he thinks so. It is because he believes "Cleveland will be beaten by dissensions in the New York Democracy—nothing else"; "a split in his party, a lack of unity in sentiment for him, is what is going to defeat him." Except for Democratic dissensions, Quay frankly confesses that he has no hope. Other reasons which are alleged for believing in Harrison's election he thus dismisses:

> "I have seen some statements to the effect that, by reason of a fear of the trade disturbances incident to the tariff legislation, which would be inevitable with a Democratic Congress and a Democratic Administration, business men in the New York Democracy favor Harrison's reëlection. But I don't take any stock in this. My belief is that the business people throughout the country would as soon have Cleveland for President as Harrison, as far as their business interests go. The financial interests all over the country swear by Cleveland, especially the bankers."

Quay is a little more frank than some

others, but, when he is pressed, every Republican whose opinion is worth anything will admit that his sole dependence is what is fast proving the broken reed of Democratic dissensions.

Mr. Blaine has written a letter to explain that the reason he did not vote in the recent Maine election was because he found a Democratic friend who was ready to "pair off" with him, and save him the three days' time and 250 miles of travel it would have required for him to go from Bar Harbor to Augusta, get his name on the register, and cast his ballot. This, of course, "lets him out," but it does not explain why so many thousands of Maine Republicans followed Mr. Blaine's example in staying away from the polls without taking the trouble to "pair off" with Democrats. The Lewiston *Journal* publishes full returns of the election, which show a total Republican vote of only 67,870, against 79,398 in the corresponding election of 1888, and 78,912 in September, 1884, while the Democratic vote was 55,390, against 61,350 in 1888 and 59,061 in 1884. This allowed the Republicans a plurality of only 12,480 this year, against 18,048 in 1888 and 19,851 in 1884. In other words, about 6,000 Republicans who turned out in the September elections of the last two Presidential years did not go to the polls this year, and did not "pair off" either.

Mr. Hackett, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, has issued another confidential circular to faithful Republicans, which has a very suspicious look. In his first one he asked all the postmasters of the State for contributions to the Republican campaign fund, and in the second he proposed to them to make their offices branches of the Republican State Committee by sending to him the "names of from eight to twelve of the most active, earnest, discreet, and trustworthy young Republicans who get their mails at your Post-office," adding: "I particularly wish, also, that you keep this request a secret, even from those whose names you furnish me. . . . Your prompt service in this matter will not be forgotten." In the third circular, which was revealed to the public on Saturday, and which is addressed to "active, earnest, and sincere Republicans," who hold "Republican success dear to their hearts," and which is presumably sent to the persons whose names have been furnished by the postmasters, Mr. Hackett says:

"It is the desire of the New York State Republican Committee to be permitted to request you to do some particular service for the Republican cause from time to time during the canvass. Such service will call for the exercise of discretion and the ability to keep a secret. Are you willing to undertake such duty to help secure Republican success? If you are willing to do so, send me the name of a Democrat among your acquaintances whom you believe *can be induced to vote the Republican ticket this fall.* If more than one, give their names and place your letter in the enclosed envelope. Please sign the list with your full name and Post-office address plainly written. You may be sure that any service you may be able to render will not be forgotten."

When questioned about this circular, Mr. Hackett said on Friday that there was "nothing wrong about it," that he is "conducting an educational campaign," and that his "inducements" would consist entirely of documents and campaign literature. If this is the case, why is he so strenuous in all his circulars about the "exercise of discretion" and the "ability to keep a secret"? Does it require great "discretion" to distribute campaign tracts, and is it a business which a man should keep secret lest he be caught and punished for it?

The Question Clubs of Massachusetts have been putting some queries to Senator Dawes in regard to the McKinley tax on wool, reminding him that he was in favor of free wool in 1860, and asking him if it was true, as reported in the Boston *Journal*, that he believed that "whenever raw material entering into manufacturing here cannot be produced here in sufficient quantities and at such cost as to make its use in manufacturing here profitable, it should be admitted free of duty." The Senator answered that he had been correctly quoted, and that "by that test the clause alluded to [the one increasing the duty on carpet wools from 25 to 32 per cent.] must, with me, stand or fall." But he does not think the McKinley Bill can "be best judged by piecemeal, any more than a house can be best judged by testing here and there a brick in it." That is to say, the Senator would be in favor of knocking out the wool brick and many others, in accordance with the demands of his constituents, but thinks the riddled McKinley edifice would still be fair to look upon. At any rate, he is unusually bold and frank for a Republican in a Presidential year, though we fear it must be charged to the fact that he is not seeking reëlection. It is impossible to conceive of the Hon. Henry C. Lodge at this interesting political juncture admitting, with Mr. Dawes, that the "McKinley Law is not perfect."

The greatest living authority on the theory of protection, Prof. (or ex-Prof.) R. E. Thompson, has been called in to the aid of the distressed American Protective Tariff League to explain why protection has not increased wages in accordance with McKinley's promises. He furnishes two articles to the organ of the League on "Wages and Protection," in which he advances some novel views on the subject of the rate of wages and what determines it. After admitting that the tariff does not affect wages "directly or by any prescription of their rate," he boldly attacks the question, "What, then, is it that determines the rate of wages?" and says that the "first of the various forces which coöperate to this is public opinion." He explains his meaning to be that "the country has a certain notion of the way in which its workmen ought to live, and in a thousand ways it emphasizes its demand that they shall do no worse than this. If it be shown that they or any large body of them are away below this standard of living, it makes its disapprobation felt." This shows how great a mistake it was for the Homestead strikers to appeal to cost of production and claim an undiminished share of the increased profits of the Carnegies. What they should have done was to call mass-meetings in various parts of the country, and get Prof. Thompson to threaten Mr. Frick with "disapprobation." That would doubtless have brought him to terms long ago.

The learned professor attaches much importance to trades unions as a means of raising wages, but the one great source of blessing to workingmen, in his mind, is war. He sketches the history of our country, and shows how our various wars acted as providential substitutes for protection, and so blessed the workingmen. "The war for independence served as a protective tariff of the highest rate." When it was over, all was misery and starvation again until "the war of 1814-15 wrought a temporary improvement." But peace "caused a general prostration" as soon as it came, and it was not until our legislators learned at last the wisdom of maintaining war taxes in time of peace that the "cowboy" ceased to be "the typical American industrialist." These profound views of Prof. Thompson make it all the more incomprehensible to us why he was turned out of his chair in the University of Pennsylvania.

The Writing-Paper Manufacturers' Association (please do not say Trust) met at Springfield, Mass., last week and determined to shut down their mills for a month. This would look as if the market must be overstocked and as if paper might be cheaper. On the contrary, these distressed manufacturers announce that "an increase of two cents a pound for paper seems extremely probable." We should say this means it is certain. These same manufacturers have been doing great work in Australia of late. They are boldly meeting English competition in that country and crushing it out. But in their own land they would be ruined were it not for the duty of 25 per cent. by which their product is protected. In Australia they put their prices down. At home they put them up, and it is the duty which enables them to do so. All this throws light upon the assertion of the Democratic platform that "Republican protection is a fraud."

The failure of the attempt to hold the *South Portland* for violation of the neutrality laws, in having shipped a cargo of

arms, presumably for use in the Venezuelan civil war, was foredoomed. There was not a particle of evidence that the steamer was fitted out as a cruiser, or that she was to carry an expeditionary force. She was engaged in nothing but a commercial transaction, so far as our Government had a right to judge. As Prof. Woolsey recently said, and as the courts decided in the *Itata* case to the confusion of the self-made jurists at Washington, it is "lawful for our merchants to sell arms to all the world, at peace or at war." Balmaceda had his rights of capture of contraband articles in the *Itata*, and the Venezuelan Government, in like manner, could have intercepted the *South Portland*, if sailing to a Venezuelan port, and forcibly taken off the munitions of war found on her. But to hold her in New York harbor on the ground of shipping arms was a proceeding which, as the event shows, could not be sanctioned by law.

It is so seldom that courts exercise any proper degree of discrimination in regard to naturalizing foreigners that it is a great satisfaction to find judges who show some sense of their duty in the matter. While Judge Gildersleeve of the Superior Court issued final papers on Thursday last to 154 applicants, Judge Giegerich of the Court of Common Pleas, sitting more hours, admitted only fifty and rejected eighteen. Judge Pryor is still more rigorous, and a few days ago accepted only about 10 per cent. of the applicants who appeared before him. Indeed, the attachés of this court say that an applicant for citizenship has to pass "a regular civil-service examination," five minutes at least being devoted to an investigation of his fitness for citizenship. The judges of the Court of Common Pleas are of opinion that a man cannot be attached to the principles of the Constitution unless he displays some acquaintance with those principles, nor can he be well disposed to the good order and happiness of the country if he be an Anarchist; and the "civil-service examination" is intended to satisfy them upon these points. This is the course which ought to be pursued by all judges who have the power to make citizens of aliens, and it is a reproach to our courts that the policy of Judges Pryor and Giegerich should attract attention by its very novelty.

The only fear of cholera now remaining in the newspapers of this city seems to be a fear that they cannot reverse themselves on the subject fast enough. It is safe to say that if they were now following the methods they adopted one month ago, we should now be, to judge by their "scare" headlines, in the midst of a dreadful epidemic. At that time "Is It Cholera?" or "Is Cholera Here?" was the usual heading for every reported case of cramps; but now we have had actual cases to the number of a dozen or so, and yet they are all brushed aside as merely "suspicious cases," "probably not cholera." Commercial motives have doubtless been stronger than shame in leading to this change, but we believe that shame has had something to do with it. The actual demonstration that cholera can be sporadic in this city without being allowed to become epidemic, makes the insensate shrieking and pitiable cowardice of last month seem so absurd and contemptible that we do not wonder that those who were foremost in it are now saying: "Cholera? We never heard of it. Anyhow, it's nothing to be afraid of."

Nothing is more curious in the home-rule controversy than the extent to which it is carried on by English statesmen in the columns of American periodicals. The Duke of Argyll has just drawn out Mr. Gladstone in the pages of the *North American Review*, and now, we are told, Mr. Balfour is to follow Mr. Gladstone. We presume that about a dozen articles in all have appeared in American reviews from Englishmen prominent in public affairs on this Irish question. Their object in carrying on the debate here is hard to see. American opinion cannot possibly settle the matter, and, if it could, there would be great difficulty in finding out what American opinion on it is, in spite of Mr. Chauncey Depew's attempt to give Mr. Gladstone the exact figures of the American vote on it, if such a vote could be taken. Then, as everybody knows, the interest felt in the subject in this country, except as a question of English politics, by anybody except the Irish, is very small. Moreover, there is no question now before the world which requires so much knowledge of the facts of Irish political and economic history for even a slight comprehension of it, and we doubt if one hundred Americans all told possess any such knowledge or would take the trouble to acquire it.

The opinion of most Americans about home rule in other countries is that home rule is good for those who can secure it, on the principle laid down by George III., that every man was fit for any office he could get. But no American holds the doctrine, which underlies nearly all the addresses made to the American public by English opponents of Irish home rule, that home rule is something in the nature of a Sunday-school prize, only to be given to good boys. When they show us that the Irish are wicked people, or anyhow not "nice" or agreeable, they think they have proved their case, whereas they simply make it ridiculous. Yet this is about all the Duke of Argyll has to say, and will probably be the gist of what Mr. Balfour is going to say by and by. The rest of the world has, however, got far past this kindergarten view of politics. The world, happily or unhappily, has ceased to be governed, if it ever was governed, by truly good and gentlemanly men, who never would abuse their power. The old Liberal view, which has been applied by Englishmen of all parties to every country except Ireland, is that home rule is a cure for bad behavior, and not a reward for good behavior. The expectation in England that Mr. Gladstone was going to reveal his home-rule plan in detail first to the American public has, we are glad to say, been disappointed, for anything of the sort would have been absurd as well as undignified.

Le Temps complains that during August the customs receipts in France fell not only below the amount estimated in the budget, but below those of August, 1891. The deficiency below the budget estimate is more than 7,000,000 francs, and it is 2,000,000 francs as compared with the receipts in the corresponding month of the previous year. A higher tariff has therefore produced a smaller revenue, and the difference must be made up by increased taxation, which will not be paid by the foreigner. The termination of the commercial treaties, if carried out, must result in increasing the cost of many of the raw materials required by French industries and thereby diminish their productiveness. After a severe struggle the protectionists were defeated in the attempt to impose higher duties upon some of the most essential of these materials, but they threaten to overthrow the Government upon this issue. The results of the new tariff, however, are not such as to recommend their plan to public favor.

It is reported in Madrid that the Spanish Prime Minister is about to take a leaf out of French experience, and request the Pope to enjoin upon all the Spanish episcopate frank and full recognition of the boy king, Alfonso XIII., as the only and legitimate heir to the throne. If such directions from Rome should be given to the Spanish bishops, it would be as bitter a pill to some of them as were to many of the French episcopate the Pope's commands to submit to the Republic. The Carlist agitation has had a large part of its strength in the support of some of the stoutest Churchmen in Spain. Limited as it is to day, it is strongest where the Church is most absolute and unites its royal claims with the most extreme ultramontane pretensions of the Church. It would certainly be a great stroke for the pacification of Spain if Cánovas could induce the Holy See to intervene and deprive Carlism of all ecclesiastical sanction. Don Carlos is such a devout son of the Church, and has always been so profuse in his expressions of loyalty to Rome, that, though he might seem to have put himself beyond danger of having his claims disowned by the Pope, he would have no resort left if the Pope's ecclesiastical support were to be withdrawn.

CHANGED CONDUCT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

THE Administration has now two important foreign complications on hand—the controversy with Canada over the canal tolls, and the negotiations with Venezuela over the denial of the right of asylum in an American merchant ship in the harbor of Puerto Cabello. No one can have failed to notice the great gain in sobriety and dignity which has marked the handling of both these cases by the State Department, compared with the methods followed last fall and winter at the time of the Chilian imbroglio. There is a perceptible improvement in the tone of the official papers relating to these disputes, and also in the personal utterances of the officials of our Government who have to do with them; but the greatest gain of all is in the unofficial and newspaper conduct of foreign affairs. Eight months ago we had to deal not alone with State papers and public debate, but with a great mass of "inspired" utterances in the press, and interviews with persons "enjoying the confidence of the President," in all of which the attempt was made to rouse a warlike spirit in the country, to give the impression that the Chief Magistrate was in a state of highly inflamed patriotism, and that the army and navy were fairly aching to get a chance to blow somebody to pieces.

We are very glad to record the passing away of all this. Both the President and the new Secretary of State have been very quiet and free from hectoring in their official correspondence with the Canadian Government, and have either denied themselves entirely to reporters who sought their opinions on the subject, or have contented themselves with regretting the difficulty and hoping for its speedy adjustment. And in the Venezuela affair they have so far refrained from any of that frothing and being "deeply affected" and "striking the Cabinet table with his clenched fist," which were too common in all the weeks when a war with Chili was talked of. But such changes in the spirit of dealing with the foreign relations of the country do not come about without adequate causes, and it is worth while inquiring into them. Why is it that when an American seaman is killed in Genoa in 1892, and the killing is explicitly stated to have been due to hostility to the uniform of the United States which he wore, the event should pass almost unnoticed, whereas, when a similar occurrence took place in Valparaiso in 1891, the country was kept for weeks in uncertainty whether it was not to be hurried into a bloody war?

The first and most obvious reason for the changed spirit is the fact that the foreign policy of a year ago was so evidently unpopular and politically futile. Everything that could be done to kindle a war sentiment in the country was done, and the result was an absolute failure to kindle any whatever. The patriotic note was valorously sounded in Washington, and the President carefully listened for the response of the country, but the only response he got was a distinct rebuke. The religious press was unanimous in disapproving the talk of war, and all the secular press that is not professionally blatherskite and pugilistic took the same position. A similar tone was held by business corporations and commercial bodies. In fact, there was never a more signal demonstration of the truth that a "brilliant" and "aggressive" foreign policy, leading directly to international disputes and probable war, is the most unpopular of all things in this country. It is not strange, then, that there has been no desire on the part of the Administration to repeat an experiment which turned out so disastrously every way.

But we do not believe that a fair account of the change under notice can be given without referring to the retirement from political life of the man who first gave the Republican party the idea that there were votes for it in a pushing and overbearing foreign policy. This was one of the shifts to which Mr. Blaine's fertile mind resorted in order to make good to his party the defections with which it was threatened by his candidacy. The appearance of the "Blaine Irishman" in American politics marked the beginnings of the theory that votes lost by moral decadence and surrender to monopolists at home could be made up for by striking a heroic attitude in all our foreign relations. And the undoubted fact that Mr. Blaine did in a measure succeed in his schemes, although as a whole they miserably failed, has had a malign influence on his party ever since. It has been continually on the watch for some brilliant diversion by which it might somehow get around the good sense of the people, and no diversion has been more in favor than that of glory gained through overriding some foreign nation. But when put to the decisive test in the Chilian business, the theory did not work at all. The "Blaine Irishman" has accompanied the author of his being to political retirement. The advent of a quiet gentleman into the State Department, and the return to the recognized proprieties of diplomatic methods, have been the natural result.

Upon it the country has every reason to congratulate itself. If we have any "destiny" at all, or any "place among the nations of the earth" to be jealous over, it is the destiny and the honor of working out in peace the industrial and social problems that are taking on such vast proportions in our land. As a fighting nation we have nothing to teach the world, and the search for glory and aggrandizement abroad can make us only offensive and ridiculous. What the world looks to the United States to do, is to demonstrate the possibility of maintaining under democratic institutions a stable government without endangering individual liberty; and anything that stands in the way of that, be it a jingo foreign policy or a monopolistic tariff, ought to be got rid of as speedily as possible.

BISHOP POTTER ON SUNDAY OPENING.

THE article which Bishop Potter has contributed to the October *Forum* on "Sunday and the Columbian Exposition" will reopen the discussion of this question, temporarily discontinued with the action of Congress a few weeks ago in making national aid contingent upon the closing of the gates on Sunday. Such a reopening is on all grounds most desirable, for there is a strong feeling among thoughtful people that the decision of Congress did not represent "the sober second thought" of the nation.

Bishop Potter points out that the institution of Sunday as we have it in America consists of two things—the institution itself and "its modern accretions," by which latter phrase he means "all that Sunday has taken on of more precise and more austere restriction in connection with the Puritan movement, whether in England or in America." The Bishop draws this striking contrast between Sunday as it was established by the Founder of Christianity and maintained for some centuries, and the Sabbath introduced by the Puritans:

> "There can be little doubt that while the Christian First Day, or Sunday, took over from the Sabbath its venerable conception of a rest day, with it scarcely less venerable traditions of religious worship, it dismissed on the one hand that earlier strictness that would not on the Sabbath day pull an ox or an ass from the pit into which they had fallen, nor pluck an ear of corn even to satisfy the most urgent demands of hunger, while, on the other, it imported into the day an element of gladness and festivity which made the Sunday of primitive Christianity in many respects not unlike our own Christmas or Thanksgiving Day. What we who are native to America are most of all familiar with—its asceticism of domestic usage, its absolute prohibition not merely of amusement, but of recreation (the two are very different things) on Sunday, its dreary denial even of innocent occupations, its stern rebuke of the gayety and mirthfulness of children, its hard constriction of the domestic affections and of neighborly courtesies—by none of these characteristics were the Sundays of the first Christian centuries distinguished. A true picture of them may by anticipation be found in the pages of the New Testament itself, where Christ is found on one Sabbath day healing a paralytic, much to the disgust of a ruler of the synagogue, who roundly denounces him; or on another dining with a Pharisee and making this kindly intercourse the means of the loftiest teaching, thus expressively proclaiming that humaner law which was to govern men henceforth in their observance of all holy days, whether Sabbaths or Sundays."

Quite apart from the source of this law, Bishop Potter thinks it difficult to see how it could be improved. He refers to the attempts so often made to "reintroduce a rule of prohibitive asceticism which Christ, in his own person, once and for ever dismissed," and the failure of all these attempts to produce "those choicer fruits of conduct which have never ripened save as men have faced life and conquered it—have 'used the world as not abusing it.'" So it will be, in his opinion, whether the question concern the observance of a day, the mastery of the appetites, or the enfran-

chisement of the will. It follows that "we shall get a good Sunday in America when men learn to recognize its meaning and its uses—not when we have closed all the doors which, if open, might help to teach them that lesson." One of those doors, it seems to him, is the door of a library; another, the door of a well-arranged and well equipped museum; still another, the door of a really worthy picture gallery—and he shows how all such opportunities must exercise an enlightening, refining, and instructive influence. The principle is thus applied to the Chicago case:

"And this would seem to indicate that, consistently with the scrupulous observance of Sunday as a day of rest, a great assemblage of the achievements of human art and industry might wisely be made a silent schoolroom of the progress of human civilization. Let the Columbian Exposition proclaim by the hush of all its varied traffic and machinery—no wheel turning, no engine moving, no booth or counter open to buyer or seller, no sign or sound of business through all its long avenues, and, better still, by its doors closed till the morning hours of every Sunday are ended—that the American people believe in a day of rest. But if there be those who would later seek its precincts to look, it may be, more closely at the handiwork of man, to study the progress of the race in the story of its artistic and industrial and mechanical achievements, and to recognize thus, it may easily be, in the study of such achievements, with Job, that 'there is a spirit in man, and that the inspiration of the Almighty giveth him understanding'—that certainly can be no unworthy use of some hours of our America's rest day."

Moreover, the Bishop proceeds, it is not a question of doing the best possible thing, as the all-day Sunday closers seem to think, but of doing the best practicable thing; and therefore one should not leave out of sight the alternative if the crowds of idle strangers in Chicago are kept out of the Exposition grounds, and find the doors to saloons and worse places wide open. This consideration is the more important "in view of facts that are abundantly well known as to the use that people shut out from the Exposition made of their Sunday afternoons in Philadelphia."

There remains the argument that "if you begin to make concessions, you never can tell where you will stop," and what the Bishop says regarding this is the more weighty because he confesses that the argument is one by which he has himself been greatly influenced in considering the question of particular relaxations of a stricter Sunday usage in a great city. He sees two answers to the proposition. The first is found in the question, "Are the concessions demanded intrinsically reasonable and a just reaction from previous over-strictness?"

The Bishop's second answer is, that "what may be called the Christian theory of life as enunciated by Christ himself demands, most of all, as between things tolerable, permissible, and prohibited, what I may call the habit of discrimination"; that "it does not follow, therefore, that where one makes a righteous concession he never can tell where he will stop"; that "to know where to stop is, in one sense, of the very essence of his Christian liberty and responsibility." A man need not wear a Quaker coat in order to observe a decent simplicity in the matter of dress, nor take a monastic vow of celibacy or poverty in order to live a pure and unselfish life. He must deal with every question that arises—the Sunday question of course included—according to the dictates of an enlightened judgment and conscience. This, then, is the conclusion of the whole matter:

"He has not suddenly become a godless and profane person because he differs with other equally honest and conscientious people about Sunday, or because he holds that there are inherited views as to the observance of that day which cannot by any process of ingenuity be read into the pages of the New Testament nor in to any canon by which Christendom is bound either in its interpretation of that book or of the Lord's Day. Those inherited views, however dear to some of us, have just so much weight as can be gained for them from the study of the history of the origin and institution of the Christian Sunday—and no more. And if such a study makes plain to us the value of the day of rest, of worship, and no less of a cheerful and manly exercise of our Christian liberty in things indifferent in the observance of such a day, we may wisely consider whether a Sunday wisely guarded for such uses is not the best Sunday, alike for Exposition times and for all times."

The source of this deliverance, the force of its arguments, and, above all, the admirable spirit which characterizes it, must give it great weight. It is not too much to hope that it may lead to general revision of views and a change of attitude in many cases. The misfortune of the desultory discussion which ended in "Matt" Quay's appearance as the successful champion of the Puritan Sabbath in Congress was the fact that the opposition to Sunday opening was "worked up" most industriously by some zealous fanatics, while its friends made no really effective attempt to present their side of the case. There is still time to develop a more intelligent public sentiment which will sustain Congress in reversing next winter its ill-judged action at the last session.

MR. MORLEY'S TROUBLE.

THE taunt against Mr. Gladstone and the Liberals which produced most effect in the debate which closed the existence of the Salisbury Ministry, was Mr. Balfour's warning to Mr. John Morley that he would not be able to govern Ireland without the aid of the Coercion Act—that is, without the use of extraordinary and arbitrary police powers. There were two reasons why this sent a little tremor through the Liberal ranks. One was the knowledge that the Irish irreconcilables, or "Parnellites," led by Mr. John Redmond, and containing probably all the turbulent element of the population, including whatever remained of the old Fenians, were not well affected towards the Gladstone Ministry. Mr. Redmond did not on their behalf promise any very faithful support, and it was feared that if this element were let loose as the winter approached, and began a course of "outrages," they would plunge Mr. Morley into terrible embarrassment. The other was the knowledge, which might have been called common knowledge, that nearly all the Irish landlords had aided Mr. Balfour to the utmost extent of their power in making the coercive policy seem a success, by refraining from pressure on tenants in arrear, and by the almost total abandonment of evictions for non-payment of rent. The result was, that Mr. Balfour was able to prepare for the general election by announcing that Ireland under his system was at last perfectly peaceful, or, as he boasted on the stump, that "they [the Tory Ministry] had at least shown that they knew how to govern Ireland." His defiance to Mr. Morley in the debate, therefore, was so pointed as to have almost the air of a promise to make trouble for him, and it was so treated by Mr. T. P. O'Connor (better known as "Tay Pay," on account of the richness of his brogue), who followed him in a powerful speech.

These fears were felt by the bulk of the Irish members more seriously than by the English Liberals, and the former have, therefore, been straining every nerve since the election to conciliate the anti-Parnellites and keep them quiet, and apparently with a considerable measure of success. But no influence can be brought to bear on the landlords to induce them to refrain from exercising their rights in the most extreme form, and the latest news is that they are preparing, as politicians would say here, to "put Morley in a hole," by taking out writs of ejectment on a great scale. If these evictions are carried out, Mr. Morley will have to lend the police and troops to assist the Sheriff; and even if there should be no resistance, he will be held responsible in Irish eyes, and in English Radical eyes, too, for some of those clearances of population off the soil on a great scale which no other country in Europe has ever witnessed, and which, as Lord Russell remarked fifty years ago, are one of the greatest scandals of both English and Irish history.

Mr. Morley is likely to have trouble enough without this, in dealing with what has been known during the discussions of the last few years as the case of "the evicted tenants"—that is, of the tenants who, under the "Plan of Campaign," refused to pay more than a certain amount of rent to their landlords, and, when it was refused, turned it over to the Treasurer of the National League. A great many of these men were consequently evicted, and since then the great bulk of the farms thus vacated have been lying idle, few or none having the courage to take them in the teeth of popular hostility. Whether the original tenants were fools or knaves is not now a matter of practical importance. They generally acknowledge their error, but they have no money to pay up their arrears of rent, although they are very eager to reoccupy their farms. In any other country than Ireland a compromise of some kind would ere now have been effected, but in Irish politics every-

body would sooner lose money than an opportunity of making the other side smart. Accordingly, one of the great joys of the landlords and the English Tory politicians during the past five years has been the exhibition of the evicted tenants as the victims of home-rule folly and wickedness, whom it would be almost a sin to restore. At last the tenants, in despair, got into the way of believing that, when Gladstone came back to power, he would in some manner reinstate them; but when he was pressed on this point on coming into office, all he could say, of course, was that he hoped, in the course of the winter, that some means would be found of bringing the landlords and them to terms. This was the language of a humane and rational man, but it was received by his enemies with a howl of delight, as showing that on this point he had no fixed policy, and that in this matter at least there would be found plenty of material for harassing him.

Everything now depends on the ability of the Irish leaders to control the people when exposed to various forms of legal provocation. Whether this ability exists, time only can show. Should there be an outbreak of agrarian disturbance which would compel Mr. Morley to use any of the weapons of his predecessor for the restoration of order, it would give the Ministry, by the time Parliament met, a very serious blow. If it be asked why, after the establishment of judicial rents—that is, rents fixed by judicial appraisers—these rent difficulties should keep constantly recurring whenever there is a bad season, the answer is that hardly any Irish land is really capable of paying rent at all, any more than land in New England or along the Hudson River, after leaving the tiller of the soil a decent living; and that all Irish rents, even "judicial rents," are fixed under traditions concerning the tenant's standard of living to which the latter are less and less willing to submit.

NOVELISTS AND DRAMATISTS.

THE theatrical dry season in London has been enlivened by a discussion of the relations of writers of fiction to the drama. One morning paper set about drawing from a number of well-known novelists their opinions on the general question, and also their explanation of the fact that they had never themselves attempted a play. Mr. William Archer, the dramatic critic, had gone on record with the opinion that novelists not only might be, but ought to be, playwrights as well; as he expressed it: "They owe it to themselves and to literature to make some essay at any rate in dramatic form." He had pointed out, too, how marked was the contrast between the practice of the English and the Continental novelists in this respect. Nearly all the more famous French novelists have written for the stage. Even in Spain, where dramatic writing has been held as a profession by itself more rigidly perhaps than anywhere else, the French example has begun to tell, and the veteran novelist, Galdós, has only this year produced his first play. In Mr. Archer's mind, it is within the power of English novelists to rescue the stage from the inanities to which he thinks it is almost wholly given over, and hence it is something like a call to duty that he addresses to them.

Their replies, however, so far as they have been made public, are not very encouraging. Mr. Hardy thinks he will stick to the novel as the best means of getting his ideas before the people, inasmuch as, in his opinion, "the novel affords scope for getting nearer to the heart and meaning of things than does the play." He has especially in mind "the play as nowadays conditioned, where parts have to be moulded to actors, not actors to parts." A truly original play he thinks no manager would take the risk of bringing out. He also would object to submitting himself to "the exigencies of scene-building," which demand that scenes should be "arranged in a constrained and arbitrary fashion, although spectators are absolutely indifferent to order and succession provided they can have set before them a developing thread of interest." Mr. W. E. Norris, who modestly claims to speak only for the "smaller fry," puts the case as follows:

> "Why should we, who assuredly are not men of genius, and who therefore cannot hope to trample an opposing host of difficulties under foot, expose ourselves not so much to the danger as to the certainty of a fiasco? Let it, for the sake of argument, be boldly assumed that we could, if we chose, produce comedies about equal in merit to the novels which we have written, and which have found acceptance with a portion of the novel-reading public. Well, in Paris there would be a chance for us. In Paris our piece—the piece as we had written it—would be faithfully rend red, and our audience would no more think of demanding from it what was neither in it nor intended to be in it than of searching for peaches in a strawberry bed. In Paris such a play, for instance, as 'L'Ami Fritz,' a play in which there is absolutely no dramatic incident or situation whatsoever, is not only tolerated, but appreciated. But can it be pretended that London would put up with delineations of character, with little *genre* pictures of contemporary life, or gentle satires upon contemporary manners and morals?"

Other novelists whose views were sought objected to the stilted style demanded in dramatic writing and the constant necessity for making "points," and some dwelt upon the inherent distinctions, as they conceived them, between the novelist's art and that of the dramatist. The New York theatre-going public has just now an opportunity to witness a practical demonstration of the difficulty of turning a novel into a drama. The dramatization of 'The Scarlet Letter,' it seems agreed on all hands, presents an entirely inadequate idea of the real dramatic movement of the original. This, of course, makes against the adaptation only, and does not necessarily argue against Hawthorne's power to have written a play, instead of a romance, in the first instance. But who that reflects how great a part of the effect of his book depends upon the subtle suggestion of his description, will believe that it could all have been put into the dialogue and action to which dramatic writing is restricted?

Hawthorne, it is true, is by his peculiar genius an extreme case, and so not a fair test of the kinship of fiction with the drama. But there are real and important differences between the two, and between the powers of the men who do successful work in one and in the other. To speak only of a very obvious matter, what, after all, does "dramatic ability" consist in but a profound acquaintance with the methods of the stage and the limitations under which the ideas of a drama can be expressed? That play-writing is not merely a question of creating characters, but of creating them under the conditions of stage representation, and so requires a separate apprenticeship and mastery of a separate technique, is clearly perceived by one of the English novelists referred to above. He asks why, having painfully flogged himself up the hill of novel-writing, he should begin over again and go through the same unpleasant process in writing for the stage. The same truth is involved in Mr. Hardy's complaints of the artificiality of the stage; to the practised dramatist the conventions of the stage have become second nature, and to write in Mr. Hardy's fashion would be for him the artificial and impossible thing.

Mr. Archer declares the modern English drama to be in a very bad way, and we suppose no one will assert that the American is more fortunate. Yet we do not see how its elevation can be seriously hoped for at the hands of novelists as long as the professional writers for the stage are content to go on as they do. They probably can gauge the public taste and managerial favor better than anybody else. If they perceived a general demand for something more worthy the name of literature than are the wearisome melodrama and more wearisome farce that monopolize the theatres, they would doubtless try to satisfy it; the fact that they do not, would indicate that a novelist who set about elevating the stage would need to be highly disinterested, as he would have to ignore the usual motives of popularity or profit.

FÊTES AND CENTENARIES.

PARIS, September 12, 1892.

DURING the summer months we are now passing through, home politics are in almost complete abeyance: Deputies and Senators are on holiday, and the Ministers, sure of not being turned out of office on the morrow, are giving themselves up to the delights of their rural retreats. The profound calm has nothing to disturb it apart from the festivities of several kinds that are succeeding each other—official visit of the President of the Republic, with its necessary accessories, reviews, fireworks, distributions of decorations; and celebration of centenaries of various events belonging to the first Revolution. Though, to tell the truth, none of these manifestations has

any direct political import, they are none the less interesting to observe, as revealing symptoms and tendencies worthy of note.

It is an old reproach against the French that they are the most frivolous people on the face of the earth. The accusation is doubtless exaggerated. It is certain, however, that our fellow-countrymen have a most pronounced taste for anything in the way of fêtes, demonstrations, and official and pompous manifestations. If they are, as their votes seem to imply, sincerely attached to the Republic, they certainly have no desire for the severe, austere Republic that certain revolutionists acclaim. Their ideal would rather appear to be a republic surrounded with all the pomp and parade of a monarchy. No doubt a minor, but yet a real, cause of the popularity of Gen. Boulanger was the legendary black horse on which he was wont to caracole, and his gay uniform, which, in the chromolithographs that were distributed in the country places, threw into the shade the modest black coat of the President of the Republic. If M. Carnot enjoys throughout the country a popularity that M. Grévy never acquired, he assuredly owes it in a large degree to the attention he has always bestowed on the representative part of his duties—a part absolutely neglected by his predecessor. He has multiplied fêtes and receptions; he inhabits during the summer what was formerly a royal residence; last and not least, he visits in succession every part of France, showing himself to the public from eight o'clock in the morning to midnight, undergoing with exemplary patience in each town at which he stops the interminable receptions of functionaries, the speeches and the banquets, and leaving generous offerings to all the charitable institutions of the neighborhood.

The object of his last journey was, as is known, to visit Savoy. In reference to this journey rumors of all kinds were put in circulation. It was announced, for example, that the visit of M. Carnot to the King of Greece, as he passed through Aix-les-Bains, where also he was to see M. de Giers, would give to this journey a very considerable importance in respect of our relations with Russia. The avowed reason of this journey was to be present at the fêtes celebrated at Chambéry in honor of the centenary of the reunion of Savoy to France. It will be remembered that Savoy was first annexed under the Revolution in 1792. She returned to Piedmont in 1815, and remained in that connection until the campaign of Napoleon III. in Italy restored her to France. Such being the facts of the case, it was difficult to pass over in complete silence the date of 1861, and the official speeches were compelled to recall it. The name, however, of Napoleon was mentioned by no one, and all professed to see in his achievement only the natural crowning of the work undertaken by the Revolution. This is a fact characteristic of a tendency that one sees manifest itself more and more.

The farther we go, the greater transformation do we see in the rôle attributed to the Revolution of 1789 and the public conception of it. It is no longer simply a great political and social movement, to be admired in certain of its actions, to be blamed in others, and one whose consequences have profoundly modified France and Europe throughout. It is becoming the starting-point of all one can consider good and great. It is the unique ancestor of republican and democratic France. Then, in proportion as it is thus exalted, grows the attempt to ignore whatever has been done outside of it, and outside of the Republic, which claims to be the sole outcome of it. And if in past centuries men are found whom the advanced Republicans wish to honor, they are proclaimed, often to the great detriment of historic truth, forerunners of the Revolution. All French Republicans, it is true, do not go so far as this; but a fanaticism of the kind is to be found, more or less accentuated, in a large number of cases.

One natural consequence of the tendency we speak of is to multiply the ceremonies commemorative of the various events of the Revolution. In addition to the fêtes of Chambéry which exhibit, as a matter of course, more of a local character, we had the celebration of the 10th of August; and the anniversary of the proclamation of the first Republic will be celebrated on the 22d of September by an official fête. A certain number of allegoric cars will parade the streets of Paris—the car of the Marseillaise, the car of the Republic, etc.—and choirs will sing hymns composed for the occasion, while persons dressed up in theatrical costume will exhibit in various places a number of appropriate scenes. What the effect of this masquerade will be—whether superb or ridiculous—we cannot beforehand predict. But this conception even of the fête, and the commentaries of some of the newspapers, are curious to remark. This "Sacred Car" of the Republic, this triumph of allegory, this mixture of the religious sentiment and the art of the strolling player, seems a far-off echo of the "Fête of the Supreme Being," with its symbolic decoration, and of the "Fête of Reason," celebrated in Notre Dame with the assistance of the *corps de ballet* from the opera.

The anniversary of the 10th of August did not have any official character. The Town Council of Paris had voted 200,000 francs with a view to its due and proper celebration, but the Government interposed its veto, judging, indeed, rightly that the anniversary of the invasion of the Tuileries by the people, and of the massacre of the Guards, ought not to be fêted, and esteeming quite useless the celebration of an insurrection. The manifestation, therefore, had a strictly private character; it nevertheless managed to surround itself with a certain lustre. Radical and socialist committees had organized a number of reunions and banquets in which orators vaunted, in speeches more or less inflammatory, the glorious day they were called together to celebrate. These men, who thus made the apotheosis of a day of insurrection and massacre, were not, however, anarchists; there were among them good sort of folks, incapable of doing harm to any one—for instance, a former president of the Council. But then, by reason of the tendency we indicated a moment ago, the Revolution is for many Republicans a thing henceforth scarcely to be discussed. In the first place, new legends spring up every day which completely change the aspect of events. Next, the Radicals have now for a long time proclaimed that the Revolution formed an indissoluble whole, a compact block from which nothing could be taken away, to the extent even that one must necessarily come to the point of exalting massacres as glorious feats of arms.

It needs to be remarked, however, that the great events of the Revolution are not all fêtes in the same sense of the word, and the choice made among them is at times significant. The 10th of August is celebrated with noisy demonstration, and the 4th of August—the day on which the clergy and the nobility in 1789 made spontaneous renouncement of their privileges—is passed over in silence. The second of these dates, which recalls an act that no one in France thinks at the present time of censuring, would shock no political party, while the 10th of August is to the taste only of the advanced radicals. It would seem that in this manner of glorifying the Revolution in its errors and in its crimes there is a desire to shock and annoy political opponents. In any case, if it is not intentional, the result is the same.

There are parties in the history of the Revolution which many people cannot admire, less often from political conviction than from their manner of judging, their habit of mind, their moral opinions, or their family traditions. Most Conservatives belong to this class. Many of them are certainly quite willing to come over unreservedly to the Republic, especially, as may be well imagined, to a republic having some of the lustre of a monarchy, and presided over by a chief worthy of respect, respected by all, and knowing how to set off the dignity of his office and to treat with the various crowned heads of Europe. But if the existing Republic fulfils in a measure some of these conditions, the tendency of certain politicians to identify it with the whole of the Revolution, and the particular choice of anniversaries which are solemnized—all this is not calculated to increase and hasten adhesions.

But such, it may be said, are quite subordinate questions, and all these manifestations of a purely outward kind cannot have any great political import. That is so, and we do not pretend that they are of themselves able to bring about a change of the public mind. But with a people whose character is like ours, they may help to create such a change; and this is why it is necessary to reckon with them.

S.

A PLEA FOR THE DISCOURAGEMENT OF ART.

LONDON, September 9, 1892.

THE advantage or drawback—which is it?—of going into retreat for a while in a little French provincial town, is the ease with which you lose touch with the outside world. Your news comes to you so late that either you feel the folly of being interested in it at all, or else you consider it far more seriously than time would allow had it reached you in the ordinary course of events. This was the case with me when, in the August *Atlantic Monthly*, I read Mr. Stillman's article on "The Revival of Art" fully a month after the average magazine-reader had forgotten it. Perhaps it appealed to me the more because it fitted in so admirably with the train of thought which recent experiences in Paris had started. As far as I can gather, the main facts Mr. Stillman desires to point out are that the world to-day does not want art, and that the present theory of art education is all wrong. I have already, in writing about this year's Salons, referred to the former of these facts as an explanation of the deplorable tendency of contemporary painters to resort to any trick or meretricious effect in order to catch the public's eye. No one can know anything of artist life in Paris, of the common talk and gossip of the studios and schools, without being brought face to face with the truth that much of the vaunted art education, supposed to be had in perfection in that capital, is a humbug. Mr. Stillman was chiefly concerned with the latter-day theory of teaching; in detail I disagree as often as I agree with him. But I am not writing to confute his arguments, especially as I find that the present degradation of art—you can call it by no other name—is due chiefly to other causes; causes which it is high time for the sentimentalists who pose as art patrons, to recognize. The art-

ist cannot be destroyed by theory; but the mod rn practice of education can flood and is flooding the world with painters and sculptors, illustrators and designers, who were meant by nature to sell sugar or tape over a counter, or to run up endless columns of figures at an accountant's desk. The philosopher may go on theorizing for ever and no great harm be done; but our new and benevolent system of practical education threatens to make the art of the twentieth century a laughing-stock for all time.

It is not many years since a variety of reasons—it is not worth while to discuss them here—brought about that *renascence* over which so much "yearnestness" has been expended. The old anti-macassar went out and "art muslin" came in; the reign of *bric-à-brac* was inaugurated; and the preacher, lay or clerical, welcomed art as a factor in the regeneration of the human species and the onward march of civilization. All this might have been simply amusing if converts to the new creed had not looked upon it as their appointed mission to create artists. Mr. Stillman hits the nail upon the head when he speaks of the "ignorant and substantially superstitious respect, often amounting to reverence, for the artist," and of the religious fervor with which his patrcns encouraged him. For them he replaced the wicked heathen of the East and the cannibal of the jungle. They devoted themselves to making artists where of old they had made Christians; this was all the difference. Now the worst of it was that while the elect were busy reviving art, the report was spread abroad that there was no easier way to turn an honest penny than to contribute work to this revival; the poor schcolma'am, by beating brass or painting *menus* in her leisure moments, could eke out sumptuously her modest income; the full-fledged artist could hope to rival the speculator in stocks in the princely measure of his profits. There was a fair amount of truth in this report. The art-worshippers, with all the zeal of converts, fell down indiscriminately before everything "done by hand," as promptly as the children of Israel before the golden calf; popular painters could ask any sum for their pictures with the certainty of getting it. This phase, however, could not last. When the millions took to doing things by hand, then art patrons began to look for those which were artistically done; when the thousands took to painting pictures, then only the exceptions could afford *not* to be dependent for popularity on their prices. At this juncture it probably occurred to the creators of art, the would-be Medici of the nineteenth century, that the training given to artists and the uncongenial influences to which they were exposed must be hindrances. For if, despite all that was being written or said about art, they proved themselves no greater than artists born in the Dark Ages, it could only be because opportunity had not been provided them for the full development of their powers. Right and left schools of design, usually modelled after South Kensington, were established; students, supported by private patrons or public bodies, were despatched to Paris, with the result that never have there been so many professional artists (I say nothing of the legion of amateurs) as to-day, never so much bad work turned out. And now comes the inevitable crisis: on the one hand, a public whose art enthusiasm is fast evaporating; on the other, a vast army of art students to whose numbers the thoughtless rich American, for his own glorification, s continually adding. For this crisis the theory of education is far less responsible than the practice. It is easy to show wherein part of the evil lies, and a little plain talk on a subject too often shrouded in sentiment may help to clear the air.

That in leading schools the methods are at fault there can be no doubt. South Kensington, as I say, has been the model for many an English and American school, and yet the failure of South Kensington is proverbial. Manufacturers still cry in vain for good designs; the artists who owe their inspiration to its classes can be counted on the fingers of one hand. Only the other day, one of the official Government Examiners told me that among eighteen hundred students whose designs were submitted to him, but one showed signs of individuality or even the least understanding of what was expected of him. But the root of the evil goes deeper still. Artists cannot be created. A far healthier state of affairs would result from the discouragement than from this form of the encouragement of art. South Kensington has not so far manufactured good designers and decorators, but in its many provincial branches the post of the master depends largely, I am assured, upon the number of students he can muster, though the best service he could render to his country would be to reduce rather than to increase their ranks. However, it is in Paris, because Paris has the reputation of being the centre of art, that this absurd system of encouragement reaches the very lowest stage of demoralization.

One hears much about the advantage of living in an art atmosphere, of the stimulus and facilities to be had by working in the Paris ateliers, being in the midst of French artists, studying the Old Masters, and so on. And now, what is the truth? why mince matters? In the facilities which I know are not indispensable to the production of good work, but which are great aids to it—in light and space and general comfort—Julian's and Colarossi's, where our students mostly flock, cannot be compared to our schools at home. This would be a minor loss if the gain outbalanced it. The stimulus, I suppose, is thought to come from the visit of this or that French master, but what personal interest does he really take in countless pupils whose language he cannot speak, save, now and then, when he recognizes the promise of genius in drawing or study? It is out of all reason that, simply because he makes the rounds of the studio, he is a genuine influence in it. And outside of the studio, how many of the students see or know him? If they did, how many would understand him or be able to talk with him? Indeed, once work is put away for the day, the American might as well be back at home in New York or Chicago. He lives in a little colony of his fellow-countrymen and Englishmen, and into their quarters, whether in Montparnasse or Montmartre, Frenchmen seldom penetrate; a French word is seldom heard in them. And his haunts there he rarely leaves, unless, perhaps, for the parlor of the rich American in the Champs-Élysées. Probably in the old days when English and American students were few, they may really have seen something of French artists, have lived in the French art world. But there are too many of them now. They have made a world of their own, and in it they remain so entirely and so securely that, ten to one, they can tell you less than you know yourself of art in France. The artist, though fresh from New York, if he cares is better posted as to movements and schools and revolutions in Paris than the student who has been at Julian's for a year. And as for the Old Masters, how often has he time to go to the Louvre to study them? And when he does manage it, what do the Old Masters mean to him? I know an artist of years and discretion and sound principles, who, after a first visit to Italy, declared, in the terse speech of the studio, that all the old work there was "rot." If this be the first impression of the average painter of experience, what can be expected of the callow fledgling who has never seen an Old Master before? Besides, the truth is, Paris offers too many distractions. I am no prude; the Bohemia of Mürger and his friends does not terrify me out of all common sense. But I realize that for the American, used at home to utterly different conditions of life, oftener than not the influence to which he is exposed means ruin—artistic as well as moral. There are certain forms of vice fostered—not necessarily—by the atelier life, which eat away the very foundation of intellectual and industrial effort, and send the student home not an artistic wonder, but a moral wreck. These are things to which in polite society one does not refer, but when the mania for sending youths to Paris to study art has attained its present proportions, politeness may profitably be dispensed with.

I do not mean to say that it is useless for students to go to Paris. For the man who has it in him to work, for the man who has already learned what can be learned in the schools at home, for the man who is an artist, the art atmosphere of the place is as unquestionable as it is invaluable. He may be safely left to himself to prefer the world of work and industry to the reunions in Montparnasse, to the dances and afternoon teas in the Champs-Élysées. He may be trusted to find time for the Luxembourg and the Louvre, and, moreover, to repeat his visits thither again and again, until he can appreciate what at first may have puzzled him in the old work, startled him in the new. But it is the despatching of unfledged youths to Paris by rich men who establish scholarships or support individuals, and so seek to shine by reflected glory, it is the same course pursued by art clubs and institutions, which is productive of so much harm. Paris now, in its schools, is but little better than Rome, but we are filling the French capital with our students just when Frenchmen are waking up to the absurdity of sending theirs to the Villa Medici on the Pincian. The "prix de Rome" has degenerated into the veriest mockery, as most French artists will admit. It at least has the warrant of tradition; but we are priding ourselves on the foundation of new scholarships on very similar lines, which, in the long run, cannot but prove an unmixed evil. It is but a few months since I received a circular from the founders of the latest Paris prize, and it seemed but typical of the prevalent folly that of the jury of appointment almost one-half were men knowing nothing of art, the others local artists—none of international, only two of national, reputation.

If there is so much ready money to be spent upon art, if there are so many influential men interested in students, money and interest need not be wasted. I do not believe that, the world over, better schools, in point of construction, could be found than many of ours. Do we need the proper masters? It is a want easily supplied. Bring them from Paris instead of bundling off our students to them there. I doubt if, now the hard times have come, there is a French painter of note (except Puvis de Chavannes, Monet, and one or two others, perhaps) who would not, for a good salary and the promise of commissions,

be willing to teach in an American town for six or seven months of the year. Let Paris lose a little of its artistic and Bohemian glamor, let the hard work be done at home, and I think before long the weeding-out process would begin of itself; fewer men would go in for art, and only artists already trained would find their way to the galleries and studios on the Seine. In a late number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Crosby, in recommending Florence as a residence for the art student, qualified his recommendation by stating that it applied "to the matured artist or student rather than to the mere pupil." He could have made the same assertion with equal truth had he been writing of Paris. To stop the present flow of immature pupils to its studios would be a step in the right direction—a step towards that discouragement of art which must precede its establishment on a rational basis. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE COST OF LIVING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With their usual faculty for looking at but one side of a question, the Republican press and protectionist speakers generally are making much of conclusions drawn from Senator Aldrich's "Report on Retail Prices and Wages," recently published by the Senate Committee on Finance, to the effect that, since the passage of the McKinley Act, wages have increased and the cost of living decreased.

As the report is most carefully and fairly prepared, there is no thought of questioning the accuracy of its figures; but, as the statistician, Dr. Falkner, shows on p. l., the reduction in the relative cost of food from June, 1889, to September 1891, is due entirely to the drop in sugar attendant on the removal of the duty on that item. In figures, the cost of all food necessaries was as 99.39 in 1891 to 100 in 1889; but if sugar be omitted from the group, the cost in 1891 was as 102.32 to 100 in 1889. A comparison of the two dates is also made by omitting seasonable articles, the cost of which varied greatly; though this lessens the difference (101.51 in 1891 to 100 in 1889), a decided increase is still shown.

If it be admitted that wages have increased about three-fourths of 1 per cent., as claimed, the report shows conclusively that the cost of living has advanced at a much greater rate if, as is obviously fair, the item sugar be omitted. The great fall in the price of that article on the removal of the tariff showed who paid the tax; and since the reduction in sugar is all that has saved the average cost of living from a material increase, we must conclude that whatever effect protection has on prices is to raise the cost to the consumer. President Harrison, in his letter of acceptance, gleefully claims the advantage of the protective tariff as proved by the report referred to. Of the kind of protection that makes sugar and other necessaries free, let us have much more!

Respectfully, A. G.

Philadelphia, September 19, 1892.

THE STATE BANK OF INDIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for September 15, you take occasion to defend the plank in the Democratic platform demanding the repeal of that part of the National Bank Act imposing a tax of 10 per cent. on the circulating-notes of State banks, and you point to the old State Bank of Indiana, with its numerous branches, as having been "as sound as the Bank of England." Had you said "sound as a national bank in the matter of circulating-notes," it would have been rather stronger if anything. The successor to this eminently safe financial institution, "The Bank of the State of Indiana," with its numerous branches, was also sound, and it is not of record that any of its depositors suffered any loss by reason of their confidence in it; but some of its note-holders did. Not but that its notes were always redeemed at the counters of the parent bank and all its branches, as long as they existed; but after they had ceased to transact business as banks, and a certain specified time had elapsed, the notes of its issue no longer found a redeemer, except through courtesy, where some former president or cashier would, out of personal pride, redeem the scattering offerings; and within the past year the writer has had personal knowledge of notes, issued by the branch formerly located in this place, returned to senders for redemption unredeemed, as no one could be found who cared to extend the courtesy of redemption to the wandering promises of an institution which left no redemption fund for such as these, and to which accrued as profit all such unredeemed paper. Has any national bank done so badly? Can one do so badly if the republic lives? Have you ever known the note of a national bank to suffer a discount on the score of distance from the place of issue? Yet old merchants will tell you that the notes of even so good a bank as the State Bank of Indiana, while good as gold at home, were usually discounted 5 per cent. or more when they crossed the Allegheny Mountains to pay Western debts.

Not but that State banking laws might be good enough, but the very probable lack of uniformity in the laws to be enacted for this purpose by the different States, as regarding the time and place of redemption of such circulation as might be authorized, would have the tendency to render such notes of unequal value; and in view of the number of wild financial schemes proposed for our people in the not very distant past, it is at least among the possibilities that some one or more of them would find a home in some State or States, to the serious derangement of a financial system better than any yet devised, and good enough to be spared until something better than a variegated system, or lack of system, under State laws, can be found to supplant it. The experience of business men in this Western country does not confirm your "truth," that "the bad banks were the exception, and not the rule." "Theory" is good in some cases, but the financial facts of history constitute a "condition" with which the experienced merchants of the Middle West do not care to be again confronted. J. F. Reeves.

Richmond, Ind., Sept. 20, 1892.

THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter in your paper (No. 1421) from President Abbott of the Boston Public Library is simply astounding, and raises the question what the English language means in his use of it. For years, up to last year, Hartford workers in literature or science have been enabled by the kind services of Mr. F. B. Gay, the present librarian of the Watkinson Library, to supplement the Hartford resources by drawing on those of Boston; I have done so repeatedly, and the service was beyond price. But a year ago, without any notice whatever, the privilege was suddenly withdrawn, an application of Mr. Gay for the customary loan being flatly refused, not only for that occasion but for the future. Is this what Mr. Abbott calls "increasing the facilities for the use of the Library"? The Trustees have a right to do what they will with their own, but why make statements which hundreds of people (to put it moderately) know to be untrue? F. M.

Hartford, Conn., September 22, 1892.

Notes.

The Messrs. Putnam's fall announcements include the fourth and final volume of Prof. Johnston's edition of the 'Writings and Correspondence of John Jay,' the fourteenth and final volume of Mr. W. C. Ford's edition of Washington's Writings, and the first of ten volumes of 'Writings and Correspondence of Thomas Jefferson,' edited by Mr. Paul L. Ford; 'Nullification, Secession, Webster's Argument, and the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions,' by Caleb William Loring; 'The Church in the Roman Empire, A.D. 64-170,' by Prof. W. H. Ramsay; 'Studies of Travel in Greece and Italy,' by the late Edward A. Freeman; Leroy-Beaulieu's 'The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians,' from the third edition; 'A French Ambassador [le Comte de Cominges] at the Court of Charles II.,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'Short Stalks,' an illustrated narrative of hunting trips, by Edward N. Buxton; 'Notes for the Nile,' by Hardwicke D. Rawnsley; 'Japan in Art and Industry,' from the French of Félix Régamey; 'The Genesis of Art Forms,' by Prof. George L. Raymond of Princeton; 'The Customs and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples,' from the French of the Marquis de Nadaillac; 'Scenes from the Life of Christ,' edited by Jessica Cone, with photogravures from celebrated paintings; the "Ariel Edition" of Shakspere's works in 39 volumes of pocket size, with 500 designs by Frank Howard, each volume being sold separately; Irving's 'Conquest of Granada,' in a style companionable to last year's "Darro Edition" of the 'Alhambra'; 'Fairy Tales of India,' collected and edited by Joseph Jacobs and J. D. Batten; 'The Supernatural: its Origin, Nature, and Evolution,' by John H. King; 'The Philosophy of Individuality,' by Antoinette Brown Blackwell; and 'Hygienic Measures in Relation to Infectious Diseases,' by George H. F. Nuttall of Johns Hopkins University and Hospital.

'Essays in Miniature,' by Miss Agnes Repplier, and 'Under Summer Skies,' by Clinton Scollard, illustrated by Margaret Landers Randolph, are in the press of Charles L. Webster & Co.

J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, announce 'Dramas: Comfort in a Corner; The Rogues' Mirror,' by E. J. and A. W. Sanborn; and 'Vagabond Rhymes,' by an Idler.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly 'Early Bibles of America,' by the Rev. John Wright, D.D., in two editions, one on large paper.

To artists the most interesting book in English publishers' announcements for the autumn is Quevedo's 'Pablo de Segovia,' with illustrations by Daniel Vierge. Quevedo is one of the great Spanish humorists, all but forgotten outside of his native land; his story of Pablo, "the Spanish Sharper," is by far the most entertaining and clever of his many productions. It was well enough known a century ago, when it was translated into English. But since then

it has been lost sight of by general readers, and the republication of the old translation is a literary event of some importance. Still, it must be admitted that the chief interest of the book centres in its illustrations. Those who have seen the illustrated French edition, issued in 1882 by Bonhoure, need not be reminded of the little masterpieces with which it was adorned. But in it the reproductions were far too small to do full justice to the work of a man who has been one of the strongest influences in revolutionizing modern illustration in France. Besides, the last few chapters were unillustrated; before the series was finished, Vierge had been stricken with the paralysis that for several years—until he had learned to use his left hand—kept him idle. Now, however, he has completed the work, the greatest he has yet undertaken. Mr. T. Fisher Unwin, his English publisher, is bringing out the new edition on a scale worthy of the illustrations, so that now for the first time Vierge's 'Pablo,' more than a rival to Quevedo's, can be seen adequately and in its entirety.

'Essex: Highways, Byways, and Waterways,' by C. R. B. Barrett (London: Lawrence & Bullen), is a pleasantly written and admirably illustrated volume. It is not a comprehensive survey of Essex, but describes objects of interest along the route from Bradwell Point via Maldon and Witham to Thaxted and Saffron Walden, thence eastward to Layer Marney, Coggeshall, Colchester, and Castle Hedingham—one of the most attractive sections of the county. The work seems to be especially designed for tourists, or for those who know Essex and desire a pleasant memento of its buildings and landscapes. A large part of the book is devoted to objects of antiquarian interest, local legends, the lives of Essex worthies, and historic buildings (old inns, castles, religious houses, etc.). The historical account of the chief towns is somewhat rambling; that of the Borough of Colchester breaks off abruptly with Roman times. The preface says that the gilds of Essex form a subject of consideration, but they are disposed of in a few lines. We do not, however, seek a connected historical narrative of gilds and municipalities in a book of this sort. The illustrations (including nine etchings) and the whole mechanical execution of the work are worthy of much praise. The index is meagre.

The younger Dickens makes a short introduction to the Macmillan reprint of the first edition of his father's 'Barnaby Rudge.' It was a novel which involved a breach with Dickens's former publishers and an engagement with new, and was attended with much trouble in its execution. H. K. Browne's illustrations are here reproduced with the text of 1841.

Cantillon's 'Essai sur le Commerce' has been reprinted for Harvard University (Boston: G. H. Ellis), the edition being as nearly as possible a reproduction of that of 1755, even to the extent of leaving typographical errors and irregularities unchanged. The essay should not be disregarded by those who are curious in the rather juvenile antiquities of economic science, and it may still be found suggestive. An appreciative estimate of Cantillon's work, by Mr. Henry Higgs, appeared in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for July, 1892, which may be advantageously consulted by readers of this volume.

A second edition of Mr. M. M. Trumbull's 'Free-Trade Struggle in England' appears apportunely from the press of the *Open Court* Publishing Company, Chicago. An interesting feature of this book is the parallel exhibited between the arguments of the English protectionists and our own. In Mr. Trumbull's language, "had the English arguments for protection been preserved in Mr. Edison's phonograph, the unwinding of the machine would not have more faithfully reproduced them than they have been reproduced by the American protectionists in the debates in Congress—excepting this one, 'The foreigner pays the tax.' In all the debates in Parliament between 1841 and 1846, I cannot find it of record that any member was foolish enough to think that or daring enough to say it."

A second edition of Mr. James M. Swank's 'History of the Manufacture of Iron in All Ages, and particularly in the United States from Colonial Times to 1891,' is published by the American Iron and Steel Association, Philadelphia. This work demonstrates throughout the vigorous growth of the iron industry, not only without protection, but in the face of legislative discouragement by the mother-country, and concludes with a chapter devoted to maintaining the proposition that this growth is due to protective tariffs.

In Sewen's 'Studien über die Zukunft des Geldwesens' (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot), the main point is the proposal to introduce the "Getreide-note," or grain certificate, as currency, and thus break the "intolerable monopoly" now enjoyed by the precious metals as standards of value. This privilege, which governments have conferred upon gold and silver, our author regards as artificial and conventional, a manifest usurpation founded on no law of nature, and thinks the time has now come for wheat and rye to assert their equal rights. The intrinsic value of these products of the field as measured by their power of ministering to the wants of man being far greater than that of the products of the mine, Herr Sewen cannot conceive why their exchangeable value should be less. Is it not another example of the triumph of superficial brilliancy and glitter over real worth?

The fifth volume of Moltke's "Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten" (Berlin: Mittler) contains a second instalment of letters to members of his family, besides a considerable number addressed to public men and personal friends, the present King Albert (then Crown Prince) of Saxony, and several officers of the army. There is also a long letter written from Copenhagen, October 1, 1891, by the Danish Lieut.-Gen. von Hegermann-Lindencrone to Moltke's nephew and namesake, giving interesting reminiscences of the distinguished strategist. The funeral discourse of the "evangelical field-provost of the army," Dr. Richter, and the admirable eulogy delivered by Prof. Ernst Curtius at a meeting of the Royal Academy of Sciences in Berlin, July 2, 1891, are reprinted. The illustrations consist of portraits drawn by Moltke of his sisters, Auguste and Magdelene. The volume closes with a chronological list of 328 letters written by Moltke between June 5, 1823, and April 13, 1891. There is a full table of contents, but no index.

A new contribution to American quatercentenary literature is Pater Bonaventura Hammer's 'Die Franciscaner in den Vereinigten Staaten Nordamerika's von der Entdeckung durch Columbus bis auf unsere Zeit' (Cologne). It begins with the services rendered to Columbus by Juan Perez, prior of the Franciscan monastery of La Rábida, in 1491, and gives an account of the missionary labors of the Franciscans in America and especially in the United States, down to the present time, with numerous views of the missions themselves. The materials are derived largely from Shea's 'History of the Catholic Church in the United States.'

The first number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* will be issued October 1; the first edition being of 14,000 copies. It will contain 176 pages of reading matter, and an engraved portrait of the late Dr. H. I. Bowditch, with contributions by Dr. A. P. Peabody, Theodore Roosevelt, President Eliot, Wendell P. Garrison, Prof. William J. Tucker, F. W. Thayer, W. C. Lane, Prof. C. E. Norton, and many others. The office of the magazine is at No. 6 Beacon Street, Boston.

Das Jahrhundert der Frau is the title of a new weekly journal to be published at Weimar as an organ of woman's rights in a somewhat conservative sense of the term. It will advocate the extension of woman's sphere, not so much in politics as in education and industrialism, claiming for her equal rights with man to develop her faculties and to use them for her own support.

Our Paris correspondent had lately something to say about Fénelon's relations with Mme. Guyon. In the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for August 15, Prof. Eugène Ritter of the University of Geneva comes to the defence of the genuineness of letters alleged to have passed secretly between the Bishop and the mystic from December, 1688, to December, 1689, and first published by Dutoit, a disciple of Mme. Guyon, in 1767, but discredited as manifestly supposititious by the editor of Fénelon's correspondence from the original MSS. in 1827. Dutoit's compilation is now well forgotten, and it was very carelessly arranged. Prof. Ritter reduces it to order, and begins the printing of all of Fénelon's letters, thirty-eight in number, breaking off at Number 13. He compares Fénelon's discrepant statements as to his first acquaintance with the apostle of quietism, and reminds the reader of Bossuet's charge against him of "hesitations and tergiversations" in the matter of his spiritual union with Mme. Guyon. In the *Revue* for August 15, there is a long article on the French archæological discoveries in Algeria and Tunis, which Renan has pronounced among the glories of France in the present century.

In the August number of *Insect Life*, a monthly bulletin devoted entirely to economic entomology, an especially valuable publication of the U. S. Agricultural Bureau, the Entomologist, Prof. Riley, takes occasion to publish some conclusions of general interest to zoologists in his paper "On some Interrelations of Plants and Insects." Three lines of variation are recognized: (1) the absolutely essential, which are acted upon by natural selection; (2) the non-essential, but secondarily advantageous; and (3) the fortuitous, the unessential and superficial, taking place in all directions of no counteracting resistance. The conviction is asserted that insect life and development give no countenance to those who deny hereditary transmission of functionally acquired characters, but, on the contrary, they furnish the strongest refutation of the views held by Weismann and his followers. To give Prof. Riley's own wording: "I recognize the physical influence of environment; I recognize the effect of the interrelation of organisms; I recognize, even to a degree that few others do, the psychic influence, especially in higher organisms—the power of mind, will, effort, or the action of the individual as contradistinguished from the action of the environment; I recognize the influence of natural selection properly limited, but, above all, as making

effective and as fixing and accumulating the various modifications due to these or whatever other influences, I recognize the power of heredity, without which only the first of the influences mentioned can be permanently operative."

The August issue, No. 6, of the new magazine *Natural Science* (Macmillan) maintains the excellent standard set by the earlier numbers. The publication is a monthly review of scientific progress; it is devoted to condensed articles, such as the busiest find time to read, and notices, news, observations, reviews, criticisms, and correspondence. Among the "notes and comments" of the present number there is a notice of Marcou's pamphlet attack on the U. S. Geological Survey, in the course of which it is stated that such a map as is suggested by Marcou, "in ten or twelve large sheets for the whole United States," prepared in ten or twelve years with three or four additional years for publication, including the reports, descriptive and other, would be entirely inadequate unless a mere sketch map was all that was desired. On the charge of extravagant expense the editor says that in England "the United States has usually been regarded as furnishing a noble example—for surely parsimony is detrimental to the growth of science." The Permanence of the Great Oceanic Basins, by A. R. Wallace; The Climate of Europe during the Glacial Epoch, by Clement Reid; Death, by P. C. Mitchell; The Geology of the Central Himalaya, by H. B. Woodward; The *Albatross* Expedition (on Prof. Agassiz's report), by W. E. Hoyle; Professor Lloyd Morgan on the 'Grammar of Science,' by R. J. Ryle; and Technical Education in Surrey, by J. Percival, are the articles in this number. The reviews are mostly unsigned, which tends to greater freedom of expression. In the list of supporters are included the names of such authorities as Prof. Morgan, F. E. Beddard, R. Lydekker, A. S. Woodward, G. A. Boulenger, J. T. Cunningham, J. W. Davis, P. L. Sclater, and others of the first rank in their special studies. There is a marked absence of a bias in favor of Darwinism.

Within a few weeks the publishers of Worcester's Dictionary have sent out a circular containing the requirements in English for admission to Harvard College, taken from the Harvard Catalogue of 1890-91. They assure us that they give "the exact words of the catalogue," and call special attention to the footnote, "Worcester's Dictionary is the standard." They add: "We take a reasonable pride in being the publishers of a work thus highly distinguished, and feel that we are warranted in quoting the above words as the highest commendation possible." All this is very edifying to most readers, who probably do not ask why the catalogue of 1890-91 is quoted in the summer of 1892, when the catalogue of 1891-92 would seem to be the natural authority for the present position of Harvard College. But the fact is that the last Harvard catalogue omits the footnote relating to Worcester's Dictionary altogether and makes no mention of that work.

—The latest literary venture in England is the *Fagan Review*, the organ, its editor announces, of the "younger generation" (*les jeunes*) of Great Britain. The announcement is useless. Youth, and extreme youth at that, breathes from every page and every line; it reveals itself in the delightfully foolish *noms de guerre* adopted by its unknown supporters; while its would-be shocking motto, "Sic Transit Gloria Grundi," at once gives the keynote to its programme. It is to deal with life stript of the veil of convention; it is to supply literature dominated by the various forces of the sexual emotion; it is, in a word, to be very modern and very French, to be in journalism what the nude is in art—the pet horror of the British Matron. Paganism is a large name for so puny an ambition. Its fulfillment, as set forth by the first number, recently published, falls far short of the programme. The contents are neither strikingly audacious nor promisingly clever. Rather lurid tales and poems, plentifully scattered with sumptuous adjectives, and giving a faint echo of the preciousness of Mr. Wilde, are scarce an improvement upon the literary fare provided by the ordinary magazine. Indeed, to the outsider a suspicion occurs that many represent MSS. which had in vain gone the rounds of Philistine editors. There is no other characteristic to note, unless it be the acceptance of Mr. George Meredith and Mr. Thomas Hardy as the British gods to worship by these Neo-Pagans. The interest attached to their new publication is really negative rather than positive. It reflects the emptiness of the present "younger generation," who are so proud of their own ripe talents. In the last decade or two we have had one such venture after another: the *Hobby-Horse*, the *Dial*, the *Whirlwind*, the *Albemarle Review*. And yet we must go back to the *Germ* for an organ of *les jeunes* who really had something quite their own to say, and who, to borrow a phrase from the Pagan Reviewers, could give artistic expression to the artistic inwardness of their new creed. Among our "younger generation" literature seems as barren as art.

—"Columbus and the Fourth Centenary of his Discovery" is the subject of the principal article in the September Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The author, Mr. Clements R. Markham, wisely avoids a recapitulation of well-known facts, and confines himself to a lucid discussion of certain points in the discoverer's life which are still matters of controversy. These are the place and date of his birth, which he shows from cumulative evidence to have been in Genoa in 1447, and the character of the assembly at Salamanca. This, it has generally been supposed, consisted of representatives of the University, who formally condemned the proposals of Columbus for a western voyage to the Indies. The truth seems to be that he passed a winter at a farm-house three miles from Salamanca, to which were wont to come professors, Dominican monks, and persons attached to the court, to hear his arguments for his scheme; for he was "gifted with a charming manner, simple eloquence, and great powers of clear exposition." The traditional spot of these assemblies is the crest of a small hill near the house, still known as the "teso de Colón" and marked by a stone pyramid surmounted by a globe. At these gatherings and at similar assemblies in the great hall of the Dominican convent in the city, he gained many influential friends, who finally turned the scale in his favor when the matter was brought before Isabella. After a brief reference to the size and equipment of his ships, Mr. Markham proceeds to show from "overwhelming" evidence that the landfall of Columbus must have been Watling Island. Charges of carelessness and inaccuracy have been frequently brought against him, but on the other hand there are abundant proofs of his "great capacity for taking trouble," as well as of the extraordinary accuracy of his observations at sea; while the most serious error attributed to him is now known to be a scribe's blunder. An original portrait of Columbus exists at Como, of which Mr. Markham secured a photograph. An engraving from it is given in the Proceedings, representing him as a "venerable man, with thin gray hair, the forehead high, the eyes pensive and rather melancholy." To the paper, which is an unusually fresh and interesting contribution to a well-worn topic, is appended an elaborate note giving the reasons which lead Mr. Markham to believe that Amerigo Vespucius's alleged first voyage was a fabrication. He "merely wrote to interest his friends at Florence" and to get credit by magnifying his exploits, but without any idea of robbing Columbus of any part of his fame. Still less did he connive at the suggestion of the name America. "It is very unlikely that he ever heard of the suggestion of Waldseemüller."

—The Proceedings, as well as the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September, give the Presidential address by Prof. James Geikie before the geographical section of the British Association. It is a technical discussion of the light thrown by recent deep-sea exploration and geological research upon the geographical development of coast-lines, and appears to be mainly an exposition of the theory of Prof. Suess in his 'Das Antlitz der Erde.' This is, in general terms, that the variations of the sea-level are not wholly or perhaps even largely due to the elevation of the land, but to the subsidence of the oceanic trough and to sedimentation within the continental area. In developing this theory he pictures, at times graphically, the changes in the coast-lines in different geologic ages. Among the curious facts stated in the course of the address is the abruptness with which the continental plateau rises from the oceanic trough. "A depression of the sea-level or an elevation of the plateau for 10,000 feet would add only a narrow belt to the Pacific Coast between Alaska and Cape Horn, while the gain of land on the Atlantic slope of America between 30 degrees N. L. and 40 degrees S. L. would not be much greater." He also refers to the higher level of the sea on the borders of the continents than in the mid-ocean, as well as to the variation of height at different places on the same coast. "The attraction of the Himalaya, for example, suffices to cause a difference of 300 feet between the level of the sea at the delta of the Indus and on the coast of Ceylon." An admirable map of the globe, showing the heights of the land and the depths of the sea, accompanies and well illustrates the paper.

—Mr. Edwin B. Frost contributes to the *Astronomische Nachrichten* his observations on the thermal absorption in the solar atmosphere, made at Potsdam under the direction of Prof. Vogel. Secchi, Langley, Cruls, and others have studied the effect of the sun's own atmosphere in absorbing the heat rays, but the results present very considerable discordances. Mr. Frost, aided by the resources of the Potsdam Observatory, constructed his apparatus himself—a thermopile so modified as to preclude systematic errors. His observations were made in September and October, 1891, and in March, April, and May, 1892, and the original paper must be referred to for the tabular statement of results. While earlier observers had found the heat radiated from the southern hemisphere of the sun to be only three-fourths that from the northern, Mr. Frost's work enables him to conclude that the heat transmitted from points in the neighborhood of the sun's poles is at present practically the same as that from points on the equator equally distant from the centre of the disk, while the difference between northern and southern

hemispheres, if real, is exceedingly small. Of heat radiation emitted from the sun and passing along its radius, about one-fourth part is absorbed in the sun's atmosphere; and the earth would receive from the sun, if the atmosphere of the latter were removed, 1.7 times the present amount.

—Mr. Frost's observations relate not only to the photosphere, but to the sun-spots as well, and a rather surprising result was that occasionally spots were found to be relatively warmer than the surrounding photosphere. These were spots very near the sun's limb, so he attempts to find out whether such dark objects follow the same law of absorption as the photosphere. His data were unfortunately insufficient for absolutely establishing that the spots are subject to a considerably less absorption than the neighboring photosphere, but there is ground at least for the suggestion that they may lie in a higher stratum than the photosphere. Still, the individual character of sun-spots is often so different that it is scarcely allowable to combine them together in taking average thermal effects. Langley's observations on the thermal conditions of sun-spots in 1874-75, with which Mr. Frost compares his own, were made about three years after a solar maximum, while the recent work was done two years after a minimum. Attention is wisely directed to the great importance of further and systematic observations in favorable climates and with adequate instruments, inasmuch as the present state of our knowledge of this subject renders it impossible to assert that the thermal conditions of spots (and perhaps even of the photosphere and atmosphere) are invariable during the eleven-year period of solar activity.

—The noble series of American portraits which we owe to the skill of Mr. G. Kruell, member of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, has just been extended by one of the author of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' The likeness is all that the intimate friends of Mrs. Stowe could desire, while the execution is on a level with Mr. Kruell's finest work. The quality of the flesh, the expression of the eye and mouth, the complex of physical traits which reveal the character of the best-known of the Beecher family, have been rendered with the same sympathy and sureness that so distinguished this artist's portrait of Grant—an admirable study in contrasting technique. Another interesting comparison is afforded by the steel engraving after Richmond's idealized portrait of Mrs. Stowe thirty to forty years ago. Mr. Kruell has taken the plain, strong face of this New England woman and endowed it with an inner, not an outward grace, much as the novelists of her section have beautified their homely types of New England womanhood. The result is the truest portraiture, satisfactory alike to those who demand photographic fidelity of form and feature, and to those who seek a manifestation of the spirit which transcends physiognomy. Mrs. Stowe has indicated her readiness to sign these Japan prints in token of her approval, and this compliment she pays to art and not to flattery.

—In the preface to his new edition of the Letters of Adrienne Lecouvreur, M. Georges Monval, the learned and acute archivist of the Comédie-Française, furnishes more information as to the life, and especially as to the death, of that amiable and ill-fated actress than has hitherto been available. It has long been believed (and MM. Scribe and Legouvé have set it forth on the stage) that she was poisoned by the Duchess de Bouillon through jealousy of Maurice de Saxe. In point of fact, this is a question which it is extremely difficult to settle. M. Monval has unearthed the police reports of the affair in the archives and library of the Arsenal, and finds in them a story more romantic than anything Dumas ever wrote. Leaving out all the details of oaths and masks and midnight meetings, the main facts in the case seem to be these: the Duchess of Bouillon employed a humpbacked abbé named Siméon Bouret to carry to Adrienne Lecouvreur a box of lozenges, probably poisoned. Bouret promised, but afterwards repented and gave warning to the actress. At once a great scandal arose. The Duchess vehemently denied the charge and complained to the lieutenant of police, who promptly shut up the unhappy Bouret in the underground cells of the Bastille. While the scandal was at its height, Adrienne died suddenly, and the public was not slow to connect her death, which was possibly accidental, with the incident of the lozenges. Her hasty and rude burial, in unconsecrated ground, with no funeral rites, in a grave filled with quicklime, confirmed the suspicions of some. But this was only the common burial of a player; even Molière came very near sharing it with her.

HARRISSE'S DISCOVERY OF NORTH AMERICA.—I.

The Discovery of North America: A critical, documentary, and historic investigation, with an essay on the early cartography of the New World, including descriptions of two hundred and fifty maps or globes, existing or lost, constructed before the year 1536. To which are added a Chronology of one hundred voyages westward, projected, attempted, or accomplished between 1431 and 1504; biographical accounts of the three hundred pilots who first crossed the Atlantic; and a copious list of the original names of American regions, caciqueships, mountains, islands, capes, gulfs, rivers, towns, and harbors. By Henry Harrisse. London: H. Stevens & Son. 1892. [380 copies printed in quarto, 815 pp.]

This is in every sense a weighty book, and its scope is a broad one. The title shows that it is by no means confined to North America We begin our notice with a full acknowledgment of its immense importance to the student of the early history and hydrography of the two Americas, and of the peerless rank in this department of knowledge which Mr. Harrisse—an American citizen, by the way, though for twenty-five years a resident of Paris—possesses. We are anxious thus to show in advance our high appreciation of the book, because we propose to question certain qualities of the critic and to discuss some mooted points; and we would not have our estimation of the book deduced from our opinion upon these few points.

Mr. Harrisse has traversed nearly all his present paths in earlier books and papers which were written almost entirely in the French language; but in this summary of his labors now given in the English tongue he has availed himself anew of all these discussions, added a good deal, and revised not a few of his former beliefs. The learning of the book is very great. It would have been too serious a task to verify his numerous citations in our very careful reading for the present notice; but we are bound to say that, observing his discredit of some of the passages which he quotes from a contemporary American writer, and struck ourselves with the apparent inexactness of the statements in these extracts (pp. 579, 646, 647), we were led to compare his citations, and, to our surprise, we find them incorrect and even garbled, and in one place where he had queried (thus [?]) the fact, we were surprised to find the doubt pertained to one of his own interpolations in the extracts. We are loath to believe that there are other instances of like flagrancy, but must confess our confidence has been a trifle shaken.

Referring to his own purpose, Mr. Harrisse says:

"Our sole object has been to investigate anew the exactness of the current allegations, which, by being constantly repeated, are now received as historical truths, and to establish on a solid basis the principal elements of discussion. Some of the results obtained, so far from seeming new, may be considered simply as confirming opinions shared at present by the generality of critics. Others will doubtless create doubt and surprise, although they are here presented with an array of tests and deductions deserving, we think, of the attention of analytical historians."

In one place he recapitulates forty-three mooted points upon which he claims to have thrown new light. We cannot attempt to examine all these points, some of which would be better grouped than differentiated; but a few will engage our attention.

As respects American studies in this field, since they were put on a recognized basis by Dr. Kohl, and have later been pursued with such assiduity by Carson Brevoort and Henry C. Murphy—not to name those among the living—there has been much done to augment the sum of correct knowledge. It must be confessed, however, that the helps to such investigations are not altogether so generally available in this country as in Europe. Still, we are becoming richer and richer every day. That Mr. Harrisse finds as much difficulty in not missing contributions to this knowledge which appear here, as Americans on their part find in making sure of everything which appears in Europe, may be true. The difficulty, however, might well prompt him to qualify some of his frequent assertions that historians have always been in error. Take an instance: Referring to the Cortes map of the Gulf of California, whereon it is said that Cortes discovered that water on May 3, 1535, he says that *all* historians have followed the lead of Gomara and Lorenzana, and have deduced that Cortes went to California in 1536. In this he overlooks a distinguished Spanish scholar, Fernandez Duro, who brought the map before the Congrès des Américanistes, and produced an historical paper upon it, some years ago. Moreover, as early as 1883, Dr. Hale brought a photograph of the map from Spain, and this was reproduced in a well-known American history in 1886.

It would seem that different sections of the present book were written so far apart in time that the author's estimates had changed in the intervals. In one place he deems the existence of the map which Dom Pedro of Portugal is said by Galvano to have brought home in 1428 from his travels, to be impossible (p. 637), and in the next section (pp. 652, 655) he says that Prince Henry sent Cabral in search of the islands which appeared on this very map. In one or two other places he is evidently confused in mind, though this is far from being his habit. He questions (p. 658) a map of the "sixteenth century" because "it can scarcely be of a date prior to 1500." In one place (p. 653) he says that during ten years after the

discovery of America there were 240 "navigations to and fro," not including clandestine and official expeditions; and again he says that he has "succeeded in finding for the same period about eighty transatlantic voyages." It may be that "voyages" mean expeditions of one or several ships, while "navigations" count each vessel. Whichever be the case, so much more is yet to be done in such inquiries that Mr. Harrisse does not think he has discovered more than a quarter of the maritime ventures of that period.

In taking up a few cases, we begin with Columbus. We have never seen so good a chronicle as is here given of the numerous experimental voyages which, for sixty years before 1492, were made towards the west to iscover new islands, and even a *continent*, which some of these adventurers professed a hope of reaching. These were mainly under royal Portuguese auspices. Harrisse jumps perhaps too hastily to his conclusion that Columbus's communication with Toscanelli was in 1479. He argues that when Toscanelli, on sending a copy of the letter which is dated 1474, said that it was originally written before the wars in Castile, he implied that when he sent it to Columbus those wars had ceased, as they did by treaty in 1479. Markham, in a paper published the present month, contends that the interval was but a short one, and that accordingly it must have been in 1474 when Columbus appealed to Toscanelli, this proving, as he thinks, that Columbus had begun to brood over the ocean problem before leaving Savona. Harrisse elucidates more satisfactorily than any one before the problem of the way in which the news of Columbus's return and of his discovery reached Rome. The usual story has been that some Genoese carried it from Spain; but it seems that even before Columbus reached Barcelona, the word had been despatched from Lisbon after Columbus had put into the Tagus, and had reached and was recorded in the Papal city as early as April 11, though it was not officially communicated to the Pope till towards the end of that month, by Bernardino de Carvajal—the first papal bull being issued May 3.

It was the bull of the next day, it will be remembered, which put the line of demarcation a hundred leagues west of the Azores. The prompt sending out of an expedition by Portugal to discover if Columbus had transgressed earlier bulls confirming ocean privileges to Portugal, and the hope of assuring for this rival Power some share of these new lands, led to the diplomatic interchange of views between Spain, Portugal, and the Holy See. It has always seemed to us that Portugal's anxiety may have been stimulated by the Basques, whose fishing voyages were perhaps thus early made to the banks of Newfoundland, over which Portugal would be desirous of securing control. When the library of the Vatican was a few years ago thrown in a certain way open to investigation, it was hoped that this tripartite diplomacy would be explained in more detail than we now have; but we are still in the dark, and students have long ago come to the conclusion that they must know precisely what they want and ask for it by title, before anything can be got from the keepers of that collection. In the absence of anything like a calendar or catalogue, the chance is but small of getting any satisfaction even on presenting definite titles. Harrisse refers in one passage to the way in which an "outsider" is debarred there in making researches, and the present writer knows himself of these obstacles. The result of this three-fold diplomacy was, as is well known, the treaty of Tordesillas, June 7, 1494, by which the line of demarcation was pushed to 370 leagues west of the Cape de Verde Islands. Columbus was then absent on his second voyage, and the treaty was sent to him. It could not have satisfied him, for it was likely to shut off his participancy in the wealth of the easterly parts of that continental land of which he had got a vague suspicion as lying to the south. Harrisse points out how the codicil to his will, which he made eight years later, shows that he did not recognize the treaty as binding on him.

There are two new documents respecting Columbus and his views which Harrisse offers to students here. It seems that while Columbus was still in Spain, after his return from his first voyage, and before the fruits of his discovery had spread outside that small circle of cosmographers and potentates who were interested in it, a learned Doctor Jerome Münzmeister, in Nuremberg, had, on July 14, 1493, written a letter to King John of Portugal, in support of an appeal which the Emperor Maximilian had already made to that monarch, to send out an expedition to discover western lands. Without any reference to Toscanelli or Columbus, and citing precisely the reasons which that Florentine physician had urged upon Columbus, based upon the representations of Aristotle, Seneca, and Pierre d'Ailly, "and many other illustrious persons," this Nuremberg savant rehearsed the old traditional views of western lands, which he thought confirmed by bamboo stalks having at times drifted from the west upon the shores of the Azores. We know that Martin Behaim was in Nuremberg not long before this time, at work upon his famous globe; and so we are not surprised to find that Münzmeister recommends Behaim to the King as a fit commander for the undertaking. The inference is that Maximilian may have been in his imperial city of Nuremberg at about the same time. From a letter of Behaim, March 11, 1494, it seems clear that the confident savant was a friend of his. That Behaim or Münzmeister should not have known of Columbus's persistent urging of just such an expedition and of his successful return from such a one, is surprising; but then it does not seem so strange when we reflect that the *Nuremberg Chronicle*, which aimed to bring down the progress of the world's events to July, 1493, makes no mention of Columbus. This letter goes a good way toward establishing the fact, which has often been in discussion, that Behaim, a courtier, had never known of Columbus, an adventurer. The letter itself is a good example of the impediments to research in an obscure subject which distance of place imposes. We are not aware that any American student ever heard of this letter, and yet it appeared as a *Tractado da Spera do Mundo* at Lisbon before the middle of the sixteenth century, probably. But one copy of the little book is known, and that is in the library at Evora, in Portugal. Further, it was reprinted in a periodical at Evora in 1865, was again printed (but privately) at Coimbra in 1878, and was finally edited by Ernesto do Canto at Ponta-Delgada in the Azores in 1879. The present writer has at times been in correspondence with the Azorean editor, but he never heard of it till he found it in the book before him.

The other new document gives unexpected clearness to one of the most disgraceful acts of Columbus, his forcing his companions, during his second voyage and when on the coast of Cuba, to make oath that they believed themselves on the coast of Asia. Mr. Fiske, in his recent 'Discovery of America,' has made light of the incident in this fashion:

"Nobody seems to have had any dissenting view, and there is no reason for supposing that anybody signed the declaration reluctantly. For the owlish gravity with which some modern writers use this incident in evidence of the Admiral's alleged deceitfulness and weakness of character, the proper answer is a peal of Homeric laughter."

Mr. Olindo Guerrini has lately found in the University Library at Bologna a manuscript account of this second voyage of Columbus, by one Cuneo, who was of the ship's company. We learn from this account, which Harrisse brings to our notice, the interesting fact that Columbus laid down on his sailing chart island after island as he passed them; but of more interest is the fact of which Cuneo also advises us, that a "majority" of those who swore to that oath were forced to perjure themselves by the threats from Columbus of personal violence, while one among them, "a learned cosmographer and an abbot," was so emphatic in his private dissent that Columbus later took steps to prevent his returning to Spain, where the Admiral feared he might prejudice his interests with the sovereigns. It is well known that Columbus took away from his men maps which they made on their own account, and Harrisse points out how Juan de la Cosa, who was one who took the oath, when out of the Admiral's reach recanted, and recorded his true opinions in making Cuba an island in his famous mappemonde of 1500.

We mark, also, some new points about the Cabots. It was never quite evident to the late Dr. Charles Deane—who, since Biddle's time, has been, among our American students, the best versed in the history of the Cabot voyages—that Sebastian Cabot could be unqualifiedly charged with the authorship of the famous Cabot mappemonde of 1544. This map was discovered nearly fifty years ago, and still remains a unique possession of the great library at Paris. Dr. Deane would hardly have sought to unravel the mystery of the inconsistencies of the Cabot story by accounting Sebastian Cabot a mendacious fraud, as seems to be the opinion entertained of him by Harrisse. Cabot's reputation among his English contemporaries was certainly unsavory, and apparently he did not mind selling the same opinions and cartographical data to rival buyers, when he could gain by it. Still, it has never been perfectly manifest that he should be credited with all the deceit which is associated with his career, for we get the story not always at first hand, and know not how the stories of him have been colored in passing through other minds. We have been inclined to give him the benefit of the doubt; Mr. Harrisse has no doubts, and even gives Cabot the credit or discredit of the authorship of the great map, and leaves the reader to understand that whatever in that map is contrary to truth sprang from the inability of Cabot to tell the truth. The map as it now appears has a series of printed legends pasted on its margins, purporting in one of them to emanate from Sebastian Cabot himself. This does not necessarily imply that Cabot did more than furnish the data. Now it turns out that Harrisse has discovered what he thinks the original draft of these legends in the handwriting of Dr. Grajales. A manuscript *Declaratio de Tabla Navigatoria* in the King's Library at Madrid has been considered by Humboldt, and by others who have followed that writer, as a work of Columbus simply because it contained an account of the third voyage of the Admiral; but Harrisse,

by a recent examination, has found that the document which gives the MS. its name is really these well-known legends of the Cabot map, and that the *Carta de Navegar* referred to in it is simply the Cabot map itself. The map was reëngraved in England by Clement Adams, and we have indications of several editions in circulation in England while Sebastian Cabot himself was still in that country—which renders all the more singular the disappearance of all but the single copy now in Paris. We know of various manuscript maps of Cabot—Harrisse enumerates them—but they, too, have disappeared.

The chief interest of the map is that it marks the landfall of Cabot's first voyage at Cape Breton, and this notwithstanding all the authorities from La Cosa (1500) down, some of them clearly deriving their information from Sebastian Cabot himself, had placed the land first seen at various points, as well as one can judge without the help of precise indications of latitude, on the Labrador coast. Harrisse's theory is that Cabot in 1544 marked the landfall at Cape Breton to curry favor with the English authorities—he was now in England—and to give them ground for offsetting the claims to the St. Lawrence which France was just establishing through the explorations of Cartier and Roberval. The supposition is rather violent, especially since Harrisse himself cannot find that any one ever formulated a claim for England based upon Cabot's discovery, before Dr. John Dee did so in 1580, thirty-six years later. Dr. Deane, who had a propensity to stand by an historical document until it was proved dishonest, hesitated to depart from the evidence of the Cabot mappemonde, and he found it distinctly confirmed by Galvano. Some recent investigations by Bishop Hawley of Newfoundland, by Dionne, one of the younger historical students of Canada, and by Prof. Packard, in his scientific studies of Labrador, have agreed in the conclusion that the coast of Newfoundland was the point first seen.

Another of the mysteries of Sebastian Cabot is the discrepancies of his statement respecting his voyage of 1498. Henry Stevens looks upon Cabot's claim to have reached the latitude of Gibraltar on the Florida coast as a simple absurdity, and he bases his distrust mainly on the ground that Cabot, when presiding over the congress of Badajos, would not have recognized the rights of Spain arising from the expedition of Ponce de Leon if he himself had already skirted that coast. It is certainly staggering to find Cabot in 1535 testifying before the Council for the Indies that he did not know if there was a continuous coast between Florida and the Baccalaos. Harrisse, however, believes not only that Cabot was on the Florida coast, but that his ships must have carried to that region the English whom Ojeda was sent, in 1501, to warn off.

CANOES ON THE DANUBE.

The Danube, from the Black Forest to the Black Sea. By F. D. Millet. Illustrated by the author and Alfred Parsons. Harper & Bros. 1892. Pp. 327.

Paddles and Politics: Down the Danube. By Poultney Bigelow. With illustrations by the author. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1892. Pp. 253.

In 1891 three canoeists dedicated the summer to a voyage down the Danube. The start was from Donaueschingen, the official source of the river, and its mouth was reached in seventy-eight days. Twenty-eight days were spent in delays or excursions. The distance, 1,775 miles, was accomplished in fifty days of paddling—an average of thirty-five miles per day. The three canoes were all of the same *Rob Roy* pattern which has been reproduced with small variations for nearly thirty years from the original invented by McGregor in London, and doubtless named *Rob Roy* in honor of his freebooter namesake. McGregor's canoe weighed eighty pounds, those of the latest Danubians not an ounce less. Aluminium will greatly reduce the feather-weight of this egg-shell craft and of its equipment as well.

If the makers of the first book above named had not written any letter-press at all, we should learn much from the pictures, which, half as numerous as the pages, tell their own story. About one-third of them, namely, the rural and urban views, are by Mr. Parsons; the others, showing each change in many-colored human life, are by Mr. Millet. There are no portraits save of the paddling trio and the author of "Die Wacht am Rhein," but we see the physiognomy of many nationalities, all in their own costumes, varying with age, sex, occupation, as well as with working or festal days. Distaff spinning; wooden hay-forks and other tools as primitive; caryatid bearers of hay, or telescopes of half-a-dozen tubs each higher than the carriers; monks, soldiers, porters, fishermen, frontier-guards, all in their own surroundings—are a tithe of the life-scenes depicted. Then we see bulbous domes, towers of more stories than Babel, high-peaked gables, town-walls, castles perched like eagles' nests on topmost crags, modern fortresses, mosques and minarets, cathedrals, monasteries scarcely surpassed by their mother and model, Monte Casino. The river—the longest in Europe save the Volga, and surpassed by only two or three of ours—is given us by instalments in half-a-dozen sectional maps. In the illustrations, thirty-five of which are full-page, it comes before us now as a mirror in which its banks are duplicated, now rushing through the Iron Gates and cañons yet more sublime, now in cascades where the canoe-men, braced among the rocks, are letting their barks at the ends of painters dart down into calm water below. All that time has spared of Roman riverside roads, Trajan's bridge and his commemorative inscription cut in the living rock, is brought before our eyes by the artist's pencil. The engravings have also a special interest since they enable laymen to understand what manner of boat a *Rob Roy* is, as well as how it is worked, and that better than pages of description. We see the adventurer carrying the craft that has carried him. It is all before us—how he shoots a rapid, buoyant as a bladder; how his sail turns to a tent pitched on his deck, with a lantern for evening lucubration, till he wraps the drapery of his couch about him and lies down to pleasant dreams.

But Mr. Millet's narrative is worthy of his pencil sketches, and it may be doubted which of them owes the more to the other. His first sentence, to be sure, seems too long for a short book, and violates a familiar rhetorical rule, but his style is clear and flowing. He tells us so much we like to know that we are loath to lay the book down. He sweeps us along as the river did him. When he talks shop, his chief admirers must be professionals like himself; but we can all share in the ovations which greeted, and sometimes surprised, his party in boat clubs at Ulm, Vienna, and Buda-Pesth.

As the source of the Danube is well-nigh half a mile above the sea-level, the flora near its head-waters is sub-alpine. As it descends to lower levels and latitudes, careering across more than half the continent, it shows a very diversified vegetation. Luckily one of the party was a botanist, assured that he would be as wise as Solomon if he only knew the hyssop, the cedar, and all plants between them. No sooner had two days of the cruise ended than Mr. Millet began to copy in his own work from the botanical notebook of Alfred Parsons. He continued to make such extracts now and then all the way to the sands of the Black Sea. On his last page but one he mentions fifteen plants which Mr. Parsons had thought worth chronicling there. These botanical leaves the general reader will skip, but to the initiated each of them will shine like a Horatian purple patch on Millet's plain homespun.

Along the lower Danube primeval peculiarities were encountered. The guards along shore seemed ignorant of lucifers, and when Mr. Millet begged one for a cigarette, a soldier ran to the camp-fire and brought a live coal in his hand, no doubt protected by ashes. The moment Mr. Millet approached the bank his passport was demanded at the muzzle of a rifle. It was at once taken from him, and he could not embark again till he went to headquarters in search of it. Sometimes he kicked his heels for hours watching and waiting before he could obtain the return of a paper the lack of which held him like a fish on a hook, and which he found a master-key not only for passing gates, but for passing anywhere either on land or water—a veritable *passe-partout*. The passport plague so lately world-wide is now cooped up in a dark corner of Europe.

He who takes up Mr. Bigelow's book after reading that of Mr. Millet will find it hard reading—unless he be a canoeist. Professional brothers will enjoy his talk of a shell "that feels the twist of every eddy, that dances to the music of every rapid, that rushes with impetuous zeal down slopes of pale-green shallows, and that narrowly escapes being sucked into the back current at the river corners," etc. Much of Mr. Bigelow's book is padding. Of this nature is a chapter on priestly miracles, made up largely from a rare volume in the British Museum, and exposing a mediæval fountain of anti-Semitism. He is shocked that a statue of the Virgin is believed to shed real tears; yet the mythical talk concerning this marvel may be analogous to his own language about his canoe, *Caribee*, which he says "*remarked* to him in confidence" this and that. 'Down the Danube' is the title of Mr. Bigelow's book. How far he went he nowhere states, but in many ways would make us think his canoe voyage to have been longer than it was. The truth is that he left his two comrades at the Iron Gates, as Mr. Millet tells us (p. 205), while twenty days of paddling were still before them. This point is about two-thirds of the distance from the Black Forest to the Black Sea, and far above Widin, which, according to Mr. Millet, is the real head of Danubian navigation for sailing vessels (p. 234). Mr. Bigelow, however, paddled his own canoe as far as Widin, having previously at Orsova shipped his luggage up the river (p. 188). He gives us a drawing of *Caribee* borne by Bulgarian porters, but does not tell us of its bearing him a mile further.

Mr. Bigelow's alternative title to Paddles is Politics. Politics, cropping out early in a pilgrim climb of the Hohenzollern Mount Sinai, pervades all his concluding chapters. The oracles he consulted enjoined Jewish expulsion,

but the secret of their inspiration was jealousy. This is clear when we learn that the lucrative sturgeon fishery at the Danube mouth is all in the hands of five Jews, each of whom employs more than 300 fishermen. Mr. Bigelow, when a boy at school, is reported to have sometimes beaten the present Emperor William, but has now become his worshipper, believing that the Kaiser is destined to master the entire Danube, and thus to usher in the millennium. He fills long chapters with bacchanalian revels and all-night dances at an ex-brigand Hungarian's house. He was almost in a fig-leaf paradise, and had never been treated so well—nor so often. His seventh heaven, however, was among gipsies. A sentence will give the keynote of his rhapsody. He says: "Several of the gipsy faces might have been studied from the life and treated as the ideal *Hamlet;* the Christs of Ary Scheffer and Doré were suggested to me as I looked into these interesting faces," etc. (p. 152).

On the whole, our canoeists have overrated their exploit, and remind us of doctors who pronounce an illness dangerous with an eye to doubling their fame and fees. At several points they were warned of danger and called foolhardy by persons who either thus hoped to turn a penny, or who repeated traditional commonplaces, or who had never seen a *Rob Roy.* But the real peril was small. In fifty days of paddling, the only mishap was a momentary capsize of one boat, which the paddler at once set upright again, as he had doubtless done a dozen times in America, and thought nothing of it. The acme of peril for the canoe fleet was thought to be at the Khasan Pass, but here, according to Admiral Bigelow, what capped the climax of difficulty was "the wash of a mail steamer" that was running through the same narrows. Very likely some lady on the deck of that vessel will describe the storm there as so furious that she could scarcely hold up her parasol.

Our canoe trio did nothing that had not been done and outdone many a time. A quarter of a century ago McGregor did more paddling down the Danube to Ulm, a dozen other rivers, and even the Jordan, and that alone. Mansfield did more forty years ago, descending the Danube in a pair-oar boat to Pesth. He visited the Walhalla, which our trio passed by on the other side, "leaving unseen a wonderful piece of work which not to have been blessed withal has wonderfully discredited their travel." Had they not thrown this pearl away they might have been as lucky as Mansfield, who was there invited into a palace to dine with a princess and then brought on his way by her. "Down the Danube" was child's play compared with the doings of our artist Catlin. Sixty years ago Catlin was on the first steamer that ever ascended the Missouri to the Yellowstone. He there made a dugout of a green log, and, with two half-breed paddlers, navigated it all the way to St. Louis, hundreds of miles further than from the Black Forest to the Black Sea; in want of all things save what his rifle could supply, through regions uninhabited unless by wild beasts and wilder men.

Sir Philip Sidney: Type of English Chivalry in the Elizabethan Age. By N. R. Fox Bourne, Author of 'The Life of John Locke,' etc., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

WHEN Shakspere wrote "of the courtier's, scholar's, soldier's eye, tongue, sword," and of the "expectancy and rose of the fair state," he might well have had Philip Sidney in his mind. The expectancy of the state Sidney was, in a marvellous and almost unaccountable degree. He was thirty-one years old when he died. He had performed one or two public missions, not of great importance, with creditable success, and he had stood well at court; but he had never held high office or been a privy councillor. He did not belong to the highest order of the nobility, and he was so far from being rich that his corpse was kept above-ground for three months because creditors were unsatisfied. His writings had brought him reputation in his own circle, but they had hardly brought him general renown. He had fallen gallantly in a cause dear to the nation, but so did many another English officer whose sword was drawn for the Netherlands against Spain. In the maritime or colonizing enterprise of the day, though he had taken an interest, he had not personally shared. Yet his death was felt as a great national calamity. All England went into mourning. "It was accounted a sin for any gentleman of quality for months after to appear at court or city in any light or gaudy apparel." Queen Elizabeth, who was not emotional, on the day when the corpse was landed in England put off a visit to Walsingham for fear of renewing their common grief. The Netherlands wished to retain the body, and promised a monument worth its weight in gold, but England claimed the precious remains. The funeral pomp was royal. It is almost a singular case, apart from the cases of young heirs to thrones, of a nation and the world so fixing their eyes on an "expectancy" and bewailing its cutting off by death. "Indeed," Fulke Greville writes of Sidney, "he was a true model of worth; a man fit for conquest, plantation, reformation, or what action soever is the greatest and hardest among men; withal, such a lover of mankind and goodness that whosoever had any real part in him found comfort, participation, and perfection to the uttermost of his power; like Zephyrus, he giving life where he blew." The gift of winning hearts here indicated was probably a great part of the talisman.

Sidney, as his biographer says, was the type of that Protestant chivalry of which Spenser was the poet and the 'Faerie Queene' is the mirror. Fairfax, the translator of Tasso, was another literary member of the circle, which perhaps lasted long enough to embrace his kinsman, Sir Thomas Fairfax, the Parliamentary General, who was a man of culture and a poet as well as a politician and a soldier. The chivalry of the Elizabethan age, Mr. Fox Bourne says, was in some respects out of date, in others immature. He thinks that it strove to conform to a tradition unsuited to society in England of the sixteenth century, that its ideals were in the mediæval past, but that "all its dignity came from the efforts of its heroes to help on the great change from mediæval to modern ways of thought and action, and to reshape the old ideals in forms proper for the future." This may be true; but all special types of character are fleeting, and this does not prevent them from being interesting or important in their own day. The Protestant chivalry did as good and as indispensable service to humanity in its time by fighting the "Beast" as mediæval chivalry had done by fighting the dragon. The heroism which saved the sepulchre was not more practical or seasonable than the heroism which saved Zutphen.

In another way Sidney belongs to a type of character now bygone. At the present day we are all specialized. A good many of us, working in factories, are specialized to the extent of becoming mere human hammers or spindles, doing mechanically a section of a work which we do not even see as a completed whole. But few or none of us unite "the courtier's, scholar's, soldier's eye, pen, sword." Few or none of us combine high culture with action. Much less can we combine universal culture with action. Scientific culture demands a life by itself. In the days of Philip Sidney and the Admirable Crichton universal perfection did not seem so unattainable. It was the mark at which they aimed. The gentry under the Renaissance had become cultivated, had even been fired with the enthusiasm of culture, without having lost the active and military vigor of their class in the Middle Ages, while the circle of knowledge was still limited enough to be traversed in the leisure hours of a life of action. The great men of the English Commonwealth combined culture and speculation—at least religious and political speculation—with action in council and in the field to an extent at present almost unexampled. Will specialization ever find its limit? Will the world ever see another attempt, by turning out a completely developed, fully equipped, and perfectly balanced man, to fulfil the aspiration of Sidney and Crichton?

We cannot, at this distance of time and with evidence so imperfect, look closely enough into Sidney to say whether his moral perfection was not in some degree marred by a too great consciousness of his own position. He felt himself that he could hardly be a courtier without some detriment to his character; nor do we like to see him asking for a share of the confiscated property of Roman Catholic recusants. His literary style savors, to say the least, of affectation. But there was nothing affected in the battle or in the deathbed at Zutphen.

Mr. Fox Bourne seems to have made the most of his materials, and he has given us a clear outline of the character if he could do no more. As few can now pretend to read the 'Arcadia,' an anthology in the appendix might have been welcome. The illustrations are a very attractive feature of the book, which is tastefully got up in all respects.

Italian Child Life; or, Marietta's Good Times. By Marietta Ambrosi. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

AN honest record of child life in Italy is naturally full of interest, and describes scenes and experiences which American children will delight to read of—vintage time, wine-making, silk culture; all the feasts and processions which are such important factors in the picturesque quality of Italian life; the games and toys of Italian children, their amusements. And Marietta Ambrosi tells her story with all the charm of sincerity and faithful detail. The wandering life her family led, her childhood being spent partly in the Tyrol and then in the towns of Peschiera, Brescia, and Mantua; the stirring times of the war of 1859, and of 1866, when the Garibaldians were quartered in every family; the visitation of the cholera; besides all the small events occurring in every family which take such gigantic proportions in a child's mind—all is naïvely described, with great feeling for local color. It is therefore unfortunate, since Marietta's life was full enough of adventure to make a very interesting book for children, that her editor should not have insisted on its being written in a language entirely comprehensible to the children it is intended for. As it is, there is such a mixture of Italian words quite untranslated, and Italian words ill translated, that there is

much to puzzle the reader who has never lived in Italy. We cite page 86, where "piazza dell' erbe" is called "square of the greens" instead of *vegetable market*. Such mistakes, too numerous to quote, occur all through the book, and the style is essentially that of a foreigner using English with difficulty.

The value of the book would have been increased tenfold had the publishers seen to its having been thoroughly revised. The illustrations are not well executed and seem to have been chosen at random.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. The Snare of the Fowler. Cassell. $1.
Beattie, H. S. Joshua Wray. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Bernard, Rev. T. D. The Central Teaching of Jesus Christ. Macmillan. $1.50.
Berwick y de Alba, La Duquesa de. Autógraphos de Cristóbal Colón, y Papeles de América. Madrid: M. Murillo.
Besant, W. London. Harpers. $3.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Types of Womanhood. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Brugmann, Prof. Karl. Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages. Vol. 3. Morphology. Part II. B. Westermann & Co. $3.25.
Child, Theodore. The Desire of Beauty. Harpers. 75 cents.
Doudney, Sarah. Through Pain to Peace. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Ewing, Mrs. J. H. The Story of a Short Life. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Ford, P. L. Writings of Christopher Columbus. C. L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Garnier, R. M. History of the English Landed Interest. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Greene, Homer. The Riverpark Rebellion, and a Tale of the Tow Path. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Henty, G. A. Beric the Briton. Scribners. $1.50.
Meade, L. F. Four on an Island. Cassell. $1.50.
Melville, Herman. Omoo. U. S. Book Co. $1.50.
Melville, Herman. Typee. U. S. Book Co. $1.50.
Mitford, Bertram. 'Twixt Snow and Fire. Cassell. 50 cents.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. Passing the Love of Women. Appletons.
Philips, F. C. Constance. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Ray, Anna C. The Cadets of Fleming Hall. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Raymond, Mrs. Evelyn. Mixed Pickles. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Scaife, W. B. America: Its Geographical History, 1492–1892. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Smyth, Rev. Newman. Christian Ethics. Scribners. $2.50.
Sneicker, Florence W. A Family Canoe Trip. Harpers. 50 cents.
Springer, W. M. Tariff Reform the Paramount Issue. C. L. Webster & Co.
Stanwood, Edward. A History of Presidential Elections. 3d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
The *Gentleman's Magazine* Library. English Topography. Part II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Tyndall, John. Fragments of Science. 2 vols. Appletons.
Wilder, Mrs. C. F. Polly Button's New Year. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Wright, Rev. John. Early Bibles of America. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1892.

The Week.

THE nomination of William E. Russell as their candidate for Governor by the Democrats of Massachusetts for the fifth time calls national attention once more to a remarkable political career. In four successive campaigns Mr. Russell has been the leader of his party—twice defeated and then twice successful; and each year he has borne himself with such credit that, whether presented to the convention as a private citizen or as the Executive, he has been renominated with entire unanimity and with the greatest enthusiasm. But the hold which Gov. Russell has secured upon his party is less remarkable than the place which he has won in the respect and affection of the people, without distinction of party. There have always been more Republicans than Democrats in Massachusetts, and yet he has twice been elected Governor. Gov. Russell's first success in 1890 was ascribed by the Republicans to "the campaign of misrepresentation regarding McKinley prices," and it was confidently predicted that, after a year's experience of the new tariff and a twelvemonth of reflection upon the folly of voting for Democrats under any circumstances, he would be repudiated in 1891. But election day came, and although the voters turned out in numbers never before equalled in any save a Presidential year, Gov. Russell was reëlected by nearly as large a plurality as in 1890. In each year he owed his success to the votes of thousands of men who were Republicans and who supported the Republican State ticket as to all the minor offices, thus electing Republicans as Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, etc.

Moreover, Gov. Russell has helped his party as much as he has helped himself. He could not carry the rest of the Democratic State ticket into office with him, because there were a good many thousand Republicans who would not support any one else on that ticket; but under his leadership the Democratic party came much nearer carrying Massachusetts last year than ever before happened when there was anything like a full vote. Here are the figures on the Lieutenant-Governorship in the last three elections:

	Dem.	Rep.
1889	112,030	132,821
1890	150,630	137,160
1891	143,865	157,216

The total vote in 1891 fell only about 20,000 short of the Presidential record in 1888, and had never before been approached in a purely State contest, and yet the Republican plurality, which had been above 32,000 for Harrison and as high as 37,000 for several State officials elected on the same day, was less than 12,000 for an exceptionally popular Lieutenant-Governor running for reëlection.

Dr. William Everett of Quincy has again gallantly taken the field against Mr. Cabot Lodge in the Seventh Congressional District of Massachusetts. At the last election in 1890 he cut Lodge's majority down from 5,294 to 1,023. It is not too much to hope that he may this year wipe out this little remnant altogether. In 1890, however, Lodge was preaching the beauties of dearness. The more a man paid for his clothes and furniture, Mr. Lodge intimated, the better off he was, and he spoke scornfully of cheapness as a low foreign invention. Of course this silliness must have hurt him greatly in addressing sane audiences. This year he may possibly preach the beauties of cheapness. In 1890 he was maintaining that the McKinley Bill would raise prices; this year he may maintain that it has lowered prices. Now, although Mr. Lodge would be better off as an apostle of cheapness than he was as an apostle of dearness, he is, nevertheless, just the kind of man to be hunted down by Dr. Everett. Dr. Everett has a keen scent for both humbug and absurdity. Moreover, he is a powerful exponent of the true political gospel, ready, keen, lucid, and sincere. Lodge will not be comfortable when he hears his horn, and Dr. Everett has our heartiest wishes for his success.

Mr. George Ticknor Curtis, "the widely-known constitutional lawyer," has announced to Mr. Wilbur F. Wakeman, the "General Secretary of the American Protective Tariff League," that he is going to leave the Democratic party and vote for Harrison, because of the free-trade plank, he says, in the Democratic platform. But he also tells the unhappy Wakeman that "in future communications he will show that in laying duties on foreign products it is perfectly constitutional for Congress to lay them so as to encourage our American industries, and that a tariff for revenue only would bring ruin on the Government and upon the people." Now we are quite sure that this is far more than Wakeman bargained for or can stand. So we advise Mr. Curtis to have him "shadowed" to prevent his escape till he gets home on him with the "communications." What makes Wakeman's case a sad one is that he is doubtless already satisfied on the constitutional point, or ready to be convinced by a mere wink, whereas Mr. Curtis proposes that, before "owning up," he should submit to a process which may put his life in peril or at all events unhinge his reason.

The *Tribune* continues to derive a great deal of comfort from the sufferings of English operatives thrown out of work by the McKinley Bill. It had on Tuesday a man in Scranton, Pa., telling with great glee how "the town of Saltaire" "is literally dead now," and Sir Titus Salt, "whose cloth and plush manufactures are known the world over, is a ruined man." This is only an instance of the way "the McKinley Bill has crippled English industries." We can recall no parallel for this frame of mind which exults over the distress of others, except Tertullian's conception of the bliss of heaven, a large part of which, he thought, would consist in gloating over the torments of the damned. What a falling off has the baleful spirit of protection wrought in the American spirit, which used to pride itself on sympathy with the "oppressed of all nations"! Now we do our best to bring misery upon thousands of our fellow-beings, and then break out into rejoicings over their wretchedness.

It does not make this heathenish spirit any more Christian to show that it is mistaken as to its facts. The Boston *Journal of Commerce*, which cannot be accused of bias against protection, states in its issue of October 1:

> "One of the reasons for the liquidation of the house of Sir Titus Salt, Bart., Sons & Co., in England, is owing to the unprofitableness of the plush industry. Our tariff laws contributed somewhat to its unprofitableness, no doubt, by cutting off the American market, but the decrees of fashion have proved more potent in this instance."

It explains what it means by saying that the manufacture of seal plushes at Bridgeport, Conn., over which so many McKinley flourishes have been made, "has been given up because of changes in fashion." We read in the same paper that the August statement of the United States Consul at Bradford, Eng., shows that the value of exports to this country of worsteds and woollen goods showed an increase of nearly 48 per cent. over the same month a year ago. It will doubtless turn out to be true, in the long run, that the exultation of leading Republicans over the hunger and want they have caused in other countries, is without any foundation in fact; but that does not at all lessen the discredit which attaches to them for taking delight in what Christianity and civilization have agreed hitherto in asserting is a ground of delight only to devils in hell.

Two Democratic and two Republican judges of the five constituting the Supreme Court of Wisconsin have concurred in a decision annulling the apportionment act passed at the special session of the Legislature a few weeks ago, as a little earlier the same tribunal had overthrown the similar act passed at the regular session of the Legislature. The chief ground of the de-

cision in each case is the evident failure to obey the constitutional requirement that the Legislature shall divide the State into districts as nearly equal in population as possible, one (Democratic) Senate district having barely 30,000 people, while another (Republican) had more than 65,000. This was the same ground upon which the Supreme Court of Michigan, Republican and Democratic judges concurring, annulled the gerrymander passed by the Democratic Legislature of that State at its regular session last year; Chief Justice Morse, who is now the Democratic candidate for Governor, declaring that "there is no higher privilege granted to the citizen of a free country than the right of equal suffrage, and thereby to an equal representation in the making and administration of the laws of the land." The greed of the dominant party in these two States has resulted in causing one special session of the Legislature in Michigan, and two in Wisconsin (as a second must now be convened), with the result of disgusting many doubtful voters with a party capable of such performances.

Outside those Republican managers who are ready to applaud any device which promises to help their party, the people of the United States, without distinction of party, will hope that the scheme to nullify the Australian ballot system in Indiana may fail. Elections in Indiana in Presidential years had become such a national disgrace that the whole country rejoiced over the adoption of the secret-ballot system by the Democratic Legislature of 1889. The Republicans bitterly opposed the reform at the time, and have never become reconciled to it, the President's home organ, the Indianapolis *Journal*, having recently complained that "the Republican loss in Indiana in 1890 was due not a little to the radical change in the method of voting." There is now a plot to have the Supreme Court declare the legislative apportionment of 1885 unconstitutional, and then have the Australian Ballot Law of 1889 set aside on the ground that the Legislature which enacted it was elected under that apportionment, and was therefore an illegal body. That the apportionment of 1885 was a bad gerrymander is notorious enough, but it would seem to be absurd to nullify all acts passed by all Legislatures elected under that apportionment. The Michigan Supreme Court did no such thing when a similar question was recently submitted to it. It decided that the gerrymander of the last Democratic Legislature was unconstitutional, and that the gerrymander of the Republican Legislature of 1885 should be annulled for the same reason; but it did not throw the State into inextricable confusion by declaring that all legislatures elected under that gerrymander were illegal bodies, and all acts passed by them null and void. We can hardly believe that the Indiana judges will do what is expected of them.

But what a commentary it is upon Republican professions in favor of "a free ballot" that the party is everywhere complaining of the Australian system, and is ready to adopt any possible expedient to overthrow it! In his speech at the Cooper Union "rally" last week, the candidate for Vice-President called for "the organized and the individual effort of active Republicans everywhere" to do various things—among them "to have the full Republican vote registered, and then to have it, in spite of the Australian ballot and other new difficulties, fully cast and fairly counted." The *Tribune* on Monday followed up this warning.

We observe that Republican organs in the East always put down North Dakota in the list of "sure Republican States." But candid Republican observers in the Northwest frankly admit that at best it is no better than a doubtful State, and that the chances now are in favor of its being carried against Harrison. The Republican majority sank from 14,071 in 1888 to only 6,535 in 1890, and this year there is an apparently harmonious fusion of all elements of the opposition. South Dakota is another State which is always put down as "sure Republican." It may prove to have been properly so ranked, but it should not be forgotten that in 1890 the Republicans cast only 44 per cent. of the total vote, and would have been beaten by nearly 10,000 majority if the Democrats and Independents had all supported one ticket. Fortunately for the Republicans this year, there is no such harmonious fusion of the opposition in South Dakota as in its northern neighbor. But these new States are unreliable, being more subject to "tidal waves" than older and more conservative commonwealths.

The Prohibitionists certainly have reason to feel encouraged over the full returns of the Maine election, which show that, while the Republican vote fell off from 79,405 in September, 1888, to 67,585, and the Democratic from 61,349 to 55,073, they increased their poll from 3,121 to 3,781, or a trifle more than one-fifth. This gain, it must be kept in mind, was made in a State where the Republican party was openly committed to the maintenance of prohibition. In almost every other State the Republicans have this year abandoned the Prohibitionists, so that this party may reasonably hope to increase its vote far more elsewhere than in Maine. In Iowa the Prohibitionists are greatly encouraged over the accession of ex-Attorney-General Baker, a lifelong Republican, and he says that he is receiving many letters from other old Republicans who approve his course and promise to keep him company. Hitherto the Prohibition party has not amounted to much in Iowa, casting only 1,362 and 962 votes in the last two gubernatorial elections, but this was because the Republicans in each of those campaigns were pledged to the maintenance of the prohibitory law. Now that they refuse longer to endorse the system, it seems reasonable to expect that they must lose heavily.

The decision of the Connecticut Supreme Court in the contested-election matter, which has been dragging along in that State for nearly two years, furnishes fresh evidence that our highest judicial bodies are not exempt from the influence of partisan political considerations. The Court divided on partisan grounds, all the Republican judges taking one side and all the Democratic judges the other, as the Supreme Court of the United States did in the electoral controversy of 1877. We have had an illustration of the same tendency in this State recently in the decision by one department of our General Term that the Apportionment Act of the last Legislature was unconstitutional, and the decision by another department of the same court that it was constitutional. The Connecticut decision seems to be even more partisan than the Republican contestants expected, for it goes to greater extremes than they have been going in their claims. The result ought to be useful in showing the people of the State the folly of adhering to the requirement of a majority over all for the election of a State officer. A plurality is all that is required to give the electoral vote of the State to a Presidential candidate, and it ought to be sufficient to give an election to a State candidate. Mr. Morris, the Democratic candidate in the last election, who received a plurality then, is again the candidate this year, and has announced his purpose to make his canvass on the plurality issue. The majority requirement is in Connecticut, as it is in Rhode Island, a Republican device for keeping the control of the State in Republican hands by making it possible for the Legislature to choose for Governor and other officers candidates whom the voters of the State have declined to elect.

We hope there is some wise purpose concealed in the plan of running a third municipal ticket this month, because there is no such purpose visible on the surface. If anybody sees a chance of success for such a movement, he ought to explain in detail the basis of his hopes. The better the candidate put up, too, the worse it would be for the city, because it would further familiarize the New York public with the helplessness of the respectable element in the voting population. It is not well to make respectability a laughing-stock too often. A great deal of missionary work needs to be done, in our estimation, and a great change needs to take place both in the public mind and in the press, before we can hope to see any real improvement in the city government. As far as appears,

the present municipal government is about what the majority of the voters now desire, and, we were going to add, deserve. The election of 1890 made that point clear. It is common justice to add that Tammany has since then done rather better than was necessary. The improved pavement and the clean streets are more than the citizens had any right to expect. To let Mrs. Kinnicutt and her committee clean the streets was a pure act of grace. It has long been foreseen that no movement against Tammany would have any success this year unless Tammany broke with the party on the Presidential nomination, and this it has taken good care not to do. There is nothing novel in the situation. Tammany is the product of a certain condition of the public mind, and until there is some sign of a great change in this condition, naming third tickets against it is like making a sick man take violent exercise.

The "cholera scare" has, we are glad to say, now entered on the humorous stage with us. It has just reached Central America, where, of course, the people being in a lower state of civilization, it is somewhat worse than it was here. Accordingly, Nicaragua and some other States have "closed their ports on account of the feared invasion of the cholera." It is very diverting to find some of our papers denouncing this as "a needless embargo," and as "vexatious action taken through unreasoning fear of the cholera." The *Tribune's* despatches from Washington say that "in official circles this action of the Central American authorities is regarded as an unwarrantable exercise of authority," but we are pleased to hear that the Department of State "is not disposed to act arrogantly towards our Southern neighbor in the matter, but is rather disposed to adopt methods based on persuasion and reason to secure its object." "Here's richness," as Mr. Squeers observed. We thought the true doctrine was that the people who had the "cholera scare" were a law unto themselves; that persuading them or reasoning with them was an impertinence, and that they were at liberty to resort to any measures of protection for themselves, however desperate, cruel, or selfish, and that the only thing the people who scared them had a right to expect in case they killed them, was prompt cremation; and that their complaints were the growls of "kickers." The very best thing the State Department can do with these scared Central Americans is to send them Jenkins to carry on their quarantine. He is just the man for the place; but do not let us have any violence.

Bishop Potter made a neat and valuable addition to our cholera literature when he said at the close of his charge to the Convention on Thursday, apropos of special prayers against pestilence, "that such prayers are only an act of presumption unless along with them there goes that use of every approved method for the preservation of life and health which is the dictate of sound reason." He might have added that furious quarantine is not a proper supplement of such prayers. The history of quarantines shows that no pestilence has ever been kept out by them; but they have furnished in too many cases an excuse to semi-barbarous peoples for neglecting their drains, and their water supply, and their streets and alleys, and for failing to wash their filthy bodies and change their filthy clothing, all of which are "the approved methods for the preservation of life and health." Nobody who has not tried them—we speak under the correction of theologians—need flatter himself that praying against pestilence will do him any good.

The arrest of all the members of the Advisory Board of the Carnegie Mills strikers on the charge of high treason to the State of Pennsylvania is a novel and extremely interesting development. The warrant of arrest is issued by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, and the basis of it is information afforded by a detective that the members of the Advisory Board are guilty of violating their duty and allegiance as citizens by moving and inciting insurrection and rebellion against the commonwealth. The maximum penalty for this offence is imprisonment for twelve years. The strikers claim that the arrest is simply a new move on the part of Mr. Carnegie's manager, Mr. Frick, to break down the strike and get the men back; his hope being that, by getting the members of the Advisory Board lodged in jail pending trial, he may be able to induce their followers to return to work. Whatever Mr. Frick's motive, the movement is a very interesting one, and we trust that the cases will be pushed to a trial in order that the courts may pass on the question involved. If the acts committed by the strikers at Homestead did not constitute insurrection and rebellion against the peace and welfare of the State, it would be difficult to say what would.

The new Sunday laws in Germany went partly into effect on July 1, and do not appear to be giving satisfaction. Their intention was to reduce the hours of labor on Sunday to a minimum and to secure a larger church attendance of working-people. They provided that in no case should Sunday work extend beyond five hours, while from ten to twelve in the morning and after two o'clock in the afternoon there should be no work whatever. In actual operation the effect seems to be to keep those workingmen who used to do a half-day's work on Sunday in their shops until two o'clock, instead of merely until noon as before, while they spend the time from ten to twelve not in church, but in beer-gardens and cabarets, till the embargoed hours pass and they can finish their work and go home. The church authorities in Berlin are already admitting that the laws have not increased the number of Sunday worshippers, though they have the number of Sunday tipplers.

Mr. Morley has come out with a letter indicating the way in which he intends to deal with the case of the "evicted tenants." He proposes to appoint a commission to inquire into the matter. This will doubtless keep the tenants quiet for the present, or at all events till Parliament meets, and give the Ministry at least breathing time. The figures he gives about the cost of extra police assistance at the evictions are very curious. The annual cost alone of this assistance is $225,000, or, during five years of Tory administration, $1,225,000—probably more than the total rental of all the estates on which the evictions occurred; and this does not include the legal expenses. One estate, probably the Clanricarde, has cost the country $65,000 since 1881 for assistance given to the landlord in rows with his tenants. If it be the Clanricarde estate, every newspaper in both England and Ireland was all the while denouncing the landlord for his inhumanity and injustice while he was living snugly in London and snapping his fingers at them and abusing Gladstone.

Renan's death is that of a man who had survived a good part of his own fame. The renown which the audacious heresies of his 'Life of Jesus' brought him thirty years ago was more expansive and penetrating than any he could win by mere learning, varied as his was, or style, charming as his came invariably to be. But the world, even the religious world, long since got over being shocked by the 'Vie de Jésus,' having to do with much more serious problems relating to primitive Christianity; and as soon as Renan's name ceased to be that of the *scandalum magnum* of his time, his peculiar fame began to decline. Nor can it be denied that his purely historical work has fallen under some discredit, when compared with the severer methods of his later contemporaries. One need but compare his Hibbert Lectures with Pfleiderer's to see the difference between his rhetorical treatment of antiquity and the German's patient reconstruction of the past. Moreover, the philosophical and dramatic and reminiscential writings of Renan's later years revealed an almost sensual element in his character that will not enhance his fame. What he will chiefly be remembered for is his long life of devotion to serious research, his boldness in attacking the religious prejudice, most of which he outlived, and the demonstration which he once more gave the world of the possibilities of the French language as an instrument of precision and beauty.

THE GREATEST POLITICAL NECESSITY.

MORE than a year ago, in discussing the address printed in July, 1891, by the Philadelphia Independents, touching Quay's record as a politician, we took the liberty of controverting their assertion that "the fundamental fallacy" of the Quay theory of politics was "that public offices are spoils, the lawful property of the politicians who capture them, and by whom they are dispensed in their turn to their underlings as prizes of war." We said then:

"There is, however, another fallacy which lies lower still, to which the roots of Quayism run down, and from which it draws a large part of its sap and vitality. To mention it in Pennsylvania is, however, to discredit one's authority on all subjects as effectively as the authority of a philosopher would have been discredited in the Middle Ages by a denial of the existence of witches. But the truth must be spoken, nevertheless, even if here and there, and now and then, it produces a little nausea. This particular truth, too, is not so much an economic as a political truth. It affirms nothing as to the value of a tariff in building up industries or accumulating wealth. There is nothing in it inconsistent with the Pennsylvania industrial gospel. What it affirms is simply that you cannot, in a country of universal suffrage, have pure politics as long as prices are raised and lowered by legislation at every session of the Legislature. This system would eventually corrupt a community of angels. As long as the business man looks to Congress to provide a good market for his goods he will inevitably invest money in the high-tariff party, just as he would invest in a mill or in a coal mine, and he will give the money to the man who, he thinks, will put it where 'it will do most good.' That man will always be a Quay, and nothing but a Quay. The Quay will have under him a swarm of Delamaters, Wanamakers, Bardsleys, and Marshes to do his bidding, and blow his trumpet, and defend his methods. Politics, in short, will, under such conditions, inevitably become 'business' in the very lowest sense of that term. The party having won the Government by promising to enable everybody who gave money for the canvass to make a handsome profit on what they gave, the underlings who gave not money but work will claim the salaries of the public offices as *their* reward, and they will get them. They will not listen to the 'trust' doctrine from people who openly acknowledge that they themselves are in politics mainly and solely to increase their own incomes. And gradually the whole machinery of government will come to be looked on simply as the machinery of a mill is looked on, as investment of capital to be returned with interest, profit, and something for superintendence and wear and tear. Everything will be considered marketable and divisible among the stockholders—treasury funds, offices, contracts, pensions, subsidies; and the work of the Quays will be mainly the work of deciding who got in on 'the ground floor' and who on upper stories."

There is nothing, we affirm, which it now in this canvass behooves patriotic men to bear in mind so much as this. Nobody is more impressed than we are with the evil economic effects of the high tariff. Nobody sees more clearly than we do the importance of a sound currency, wholly delivered from party politics. But no thoughtful person can shut his eyes to the fact that nations might be both great and free and long-lived under a high tariff. More than this, nearly every great nation of modern times has experienced and has survived some sort of currency folly or absurdity. Currency madness always runs a certain short course, very like that of an individual spendthrift. The day of reckoning comes at last in the shape of a crisis in which everybody who thought himself rich suddenly finds himself poor, in which credit perishes, and the poor are thrown out of employment, and industry seems to go to rack and ruin. But such crises soon pass over, and the community which has gone through one of them goes to work again, fortified by its bitter experience, to repair its broken fortunes. Such experiences do not affect *character*. In fact, they often strengthen and purify it.

The greatest danger in American politics to-day, therefore, is not the tariff as an economic agency, nor the currency as "a craze"; the greatest danger is the venality in politics which the tariff steadily promotes, and by which the present Administration obtained power and is trying to keep it. One hears with astonishment every now and then upright and serious men console themselves with the reflection that President Harrison will, if reëlected, veto a free-coinage bill, and that the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, in case of President Harrison's death, would do the same thing. They forget that President Harrison's election was secured, undoubtedly with his knowledge, and certainly without his disapproval, by the purchase of votes, on an immense scale, through the instrumentality of a man of notoriously bad character, who made no secret of his methods, and that a seat in the Cabinet was given to one of Quay's agents as a reward for his activity in raising money for purposes of corruption. They forget, too, that venality is for a democracy a mortal disease. It bears about the same relation to a poor system of taxation and a shifting standard of value that malignant typhus bears to typhoid fever or measles. The deaths from it are about ninety per cent. of the cases. As soon as offices and legislation are put up for sale, and the money is used to open a market for votes, the *débâcle* in a popular government has begun.

We do not deny that there has always been, and that there probably always will be, more or less bribery at elections. The total abolition of the practice will never come until there is some great change in human nature. Every nation governed by universal suffrage will have to struggle against it, and be on its guard against it, just as every man, however sound his constitution, has to struggle and guard against disease. But this is an overwhelming reason why we should not only not tolerate any system of taxation which puts a premium on corruption, but inflict condign punishment on any highly placed man who has used corruption for his political advancement. President Harrison is such a man. He is the first American President who has obtained his office by open venality, just as Quay is the first Chairman of the National Committee of a great party who has figured as an open and successful distributor of a corruption fund, and Wanamaker the first American who has been honored with a seat in the Cabinet for raising the money which constituted the fund. The public has long been reprobating the practice of rewarding "work" with offices, but we are, in the case of the present Administration, asked to condone the bestowal of the offices for cash.

It will be observed, too, that there is no sign as yet in the present canvass of any repentance over the great scandal of 1888. The only sign of atonement to the public conscience is the withdrawal of Quay from the Chairmanship of the National Committee and from the supervision of the Republican canvass in this city. In the latter business, however, a more obscure rascal has been substituted for him in the person of "Dave" Martin, of the nature of whose skill and activity both the President and Mr. Wanamaker, and we fear also the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, are well aware. The only explanation they offer of "Dave's" presence in this city is that he is a free man, and can go where he pleases, which is exactly the plea offered by burglars in defence of loitering about premises in a suspicious manner. Honest men give a clearer account of their movements when their intentions are called in question.

If the tide of corruption which the tariff has set going, and which is now sweeping away the political virtue of the voters even in the remotest country districts, continues to grow in volume, we must not throw the whole blame on the manufacturers and others who make money out of the tariff. In resisting any change in it they are, in their eyes, defending their property, and in defending property the best men are apt to become unscrupulous. Property, although the source of many virtues, is also at times a serious obscurer of the moral vision. To the manufacturer, the free-trader or tariff-reformer often has the cut of a burglar or footpad, and he uses against him without hesitation any weapon that comes to hand, including wholesale bribery. The Norwich manufacturer who said he would "beat Wells if he had to mortgage his mill," simply meant that he would not let his money go without a fight. The real culprits at this great crisis are the men who sell the offices and the legislation of the nation to these men to enable them to levy toll on the community, and those who vote for President Harrison at this election will not only stamp this system with their approval, but reward its very worst offenders.

A "STABLE" PROTECTIVE TARIFF IMPOSSIBLE.

THE resolutions adopted at the Republican mass-meeting in this city on Wednesday week are in line with the main argument of the party in this campaign in reiterating the cry of the lotus-eaters, "Let us alone." They recite that "the business of the country has adjusted itself" to the McKinley tariff, and that now "no patriotic American who is not blinded by partisan prejudice

can wish to imperil" the general prosperity by voting for any further tariff changes. The implication is, that the Republican party is perfectly satisfied with the McKinley Bill, and will insist upon continuing it unchanged for many years. But all this is in the face of the tariff history of the past thirty years, is in conflict with the actual facts of the situation, and is contradicted by the unavoidable nature and effects of any protective tariff.

So far from having a record for having "let the tariff alone," the Republican party is the one that has caused all the disturbing and violent shocks to business wrought by successive tariff changes from the Morrill tariff down. It has done this under the constant pressure of the beneficiaries of the tariff within its own ranks. From the nature of the case it is bound to satisfy these beneficiaries, and from *their* nature it is not able to do so. They demand the impossible. They would have law permanently alter the general conditions of business. No law can do this. After a temporary upheaval, things fall back into the old courses again, and then the horse-leech demand for new laws to set nature at defiance recurs. The Corning Iron Works at Albany, in which $1,000,000 had been invested all told, were lately sold for $35,000. Protection had striven for years to get interest on $1,000,000 out of property worth only $35,000. Nature was too much for it. Pittsburgh and Birmingham made a mockery of the laws designed to give money to Albany. But is it possible to conceive of the Albany iron-masters as ever willing to "let the tariff alone" as long as it did not make good to them their natural disadvantage in the production of iron?

Moreover, it is perfectly evident that there is a growing demand already forcing itself upon the Republicans for a serious revision of the McKinley Bill, and that it is a demand with which they will be bound to comply if successful in the election. The Ohio Wool-Growers' Association is one of the most powerful instruments known in this country for the making and unmaking of tariffs, and it is now in the field demanding increased protection, and threatening to vote against any Congressman who will not pledge himself in its favor. McKinley himself is on record with the opinion that the duty on binding-twine is inadequate, and is openly pledged to the Cordage Trust to increase that duty whenever he finds himself able to do so. The recent decision of the courts putting all kinds of goat's hair on the dutiable list involves an immense derangement of important manufacturing interests, and they are already giving notice that Congress must come to their rescue with a revision of the tariff. In the face of these facts it is the sheerest pretence for the Republican party to pose as the champion of "stability" in tariff laws. Nothing is more certain than that their now much dreaded "disturbance of the tariff" will be one of the first things they will set their hands to if they control the next Congress.

In addition to all this, the infernal activity and ingenuity of the foreigner are already finding innumerable joints in the McKinley armor. The past few weeks have witnessed enormous and unprecedented importations of manufactured goods from Europe. The Chemnitz and Bradford mills are reported to be very busily at work on large American orders. This is due in part to the exhaustion at last of the large stocks of goods imported in the early part of 1890 in anticipation of McKinley's masterpiece, and the consequent brisker demand. But it is also partly due to the fact that the foreign manufacturers, having had two years to think the thing over, have devised a great many ways of getting around the tariff. Elaborate as are the tariff classifications, they could not forestall all the new combinations of material and finish and markings that were possible, and the result is that by slight changes in these particulars the malignant foreigner is again able to afflict our unhappy land with a great abundance, at low prices, of the things we want. Surely this cannot be allowed to go on. Unless the Republican party is to prove false to itself, it is bound to correct this monstrous evil. It would doubtless like to be "stable," but it must be consistent and keep on in the holy work of spreading hunger and want in European factory towns.

The truth is, that it is not within the wit of man to make a "stable" protective tariff. Senator Aldrich, in the current *Forum*, defends the McKinley Bill by asserting that it was made necessary by the great changes in methods of manufacturing and in cost of production which had taken place since the last tariff. But are these changes to come to an end in the present year of grace? Are new machines and improved processes no more to be invented? On Mr. Aldrich's own theory, a fresh revision of the tariff will be imperative within the next Presidential term. Protection has to run a race with the progress of invention and the mechanic arts, and it can never hope to keep up. A new application of force, a revolutionizing discovery in a chemical laboratory, undoes at a stroke the work of the wisest and most far-sighted protective legislation, and Sisyphus has to start rolling his stone up the hill again.

To make a protective tariff that might really hope to be stable, what would be needed, in the first place, would be a McKinley endowed with omniscience and the spirit of prophecy, able to grasp all the details of all industries and to forecast the whole future of civilization, and so to make sure provision that his fellow-countrymen should never be contaminated by the sight of anything foreign. Then the nature of the foreign manufacturer would have to be radically changed. His diabolical desire to furnish the world with cheap goods, which he now shows no intention whatever of abandoning, would have to give way to the habit of marking up his products to the top notch and being perfectly content to make and sell nothing. Finally, the nature of Americans would have to be as radically changed. They would have to be made to like being swindled, to crave paying the highest prices possible for everything, and to enjoy being taxed for the benefit of a small class. With these few simple conditions met, a stable protective tariff would be possible; without them it is the dream of a fevered brain, and in indulging in it the Republican leaders are deceiving both themselves and the people.

CONGRESSMAN HARTER ON STATE BANKS.

It was probably as much at Congressman Harter's suggestion as any one's that the proposal to repeal the tax on State banks was put into the Democratic platform. This lends especial importance to his exposition of what it is intended to accomplish. Such an exposition he gave in a paper read before the American Bankers' Association at San Francisco on September 8, and it will have to be reckoned with by all those who wish to discuss the question honestly. Mr. Harter is the last man in the world to be accused of desiring an unsafe currency. To him more than to any other man, except Mr. Cleveland, is due the defeat of the Free-Coinage Bill in the House last March, and his record has been one of intelligent and undeviating opposition to all kinds of fiat money and unsound financial measures. That any plan he favors must at least be intended to secure a perfectly safe and uniform currency, will be admitted by all but blind partisans; that it would actually secure it, must be considered as highly probable by any one who studies his propositions in detail.

The starting-point of the whole discussion is the necessity of doing something. The volume of our national bank-notes is steadily diminishing and is destined to complete extinction. Some form of safe paper currency must be devised to take their place. This is admitted by Senator Sherman. In his speech in Mr. Harter's district last Friday, he took it for granted that "the national banks will have to retire their circulation when the bonds of the United States are paid off," and also that the people of the country "are not willing to delay the payment of the public debt merely to enable the banks to issue circulating notes." But he went on, in perfect keeping with his reputation as the public man whose financial knowledge is the best, but whose practice is the worst, to advocate nothing more nor less than a return to fiat money and unlimited greenbacks. The very financial madness that he fought from 1873 to 1879, when the Democrats were taking it up, he now takes up himself when the Democrats are fighting it. What else is meant by his advocacy of "money

issued directly by the United States, promising to pay coin, and resting upon the honor, wealth, and resources of 65,000,000 people"? If such a plan would not be an invitation to the most reckless inflation and unsettling of values, then all that experience has taught us, all that Senator Sherman has taught us, is given the lie to.

Contrast this return to discarded financial folly with the conservative plan detailed by Mr. Harter. He begins with a method for securing an indefinite extension of a national-bank currency. This is a vital part of the whole plan, since the continuance of national bank-notes side by side with the issues of State banks would, as he shows, automatically regulate and insure the exchangeability of the latter with gold. This extension of a national paper currency Mr. Harter would effect by allowing other than national bonds to be deposited with the Comptroller of the Currency to secure the circulation. How carefully he would guard the character and value of such bonds may be seen from the following terms of the bill he has drawn:

"(1.) The principal and interest of all such bonds shall, in expressed terms, be payable in gold coin of the United States.

"(2.) All such bonds must have been continuously listed upon some regular stock exchange, located in a city in the United States having a population of not less than 500,000, for at least five years.

"(3.) No bond shall be accepted upon which payment of interest has at any time been in default, or which at any time within three years prior to the date of its offer for acceptance has sold publicly upon any stock exchange where it was listed for less than 105 cents on the dollar of its face value.

"(4.) No bond shall be accepted if the total tax levy of the city issuing it exceeds two per centum per annum.

"(5.) No railroad bond, not regularly secured by mortgage upon the road-bed and track, shall be accepted.

"(6.) No association shall be permitted to have more than twenty per centum of its bonds on deposit of the issue of any one railroad corporation or city.

"(7.) Whenever any class of bonds on deposit has been publicly sold below par for a period of thirty days upon any stock exchange where listed, the Comptroller shall require a bond to be substituted which will in all respects meet the requirements of this act.

"(8.) Whenever any railroad corporation which was paying dividends upon its stock when its bonds were accepted by the Comptroller ceases to pay dividends, the substitution of other and proper bonds shall be required."

With such provision for the continuance of national bank-notes, and with our present gold and silver currency, Congressman Harter argues that the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State bank-notes and the issuing of such notes will be attended with perfect safety. The reason is that they can never secure or retain circulation if they are so much as open to the suspicion of inferior quality or deficient value. He shows this with absolute clearness. These State notes are not, and cannot be made, legal tender. To get into circulation beside notes that are legal tender and equal in value to gold, they must be fully as good. If they were not immediately and continuously exchangeable on demand with national bank-notes or gold, nobody would touch one of them. Their security under the State laws that might be enacted to permit their issue would have to be as good as that of national notes, or they could never get out of the bank vaults. As Mr. Harter says, this proposition "is self-evident to any mind familiar with the theory and practice of banking"; and he backs up his opinion by saying that not only has it now the unhesitating support of all those bankers who have really studied the matter, but it also meets the unqualified approval of the *Financial Chronicle* and of the New York *Journal of Commerce*. These cautious and conservative authorities are, according to the distressed Republicans, favoring a "wild-cat" and "red-dog" currency!

Mr. Harter takes up and answers the various objections to his plan, as they have been made in the public prints and in his correspondence with bankers and financiers. The "stump-tail" currency objection he meets as shown above. A State bank-note "would have to be as good and subject to as prompt and perfect redemption as a national bank-note to circulate at all." It is also objected that notes not current in one State would find their way to another. "Practically this would never happen, for a note to have any local circulation whatever would have to be promptly redeemable at home," and, without a local circulation, could never get a distant one. The danger of counterfeiting is also brought forward as an objection. But this is no greater than exists now with national notes, and could be met, as in their case, by using the best quality of engraving. Finally, it is alleged that the circulation would be exposed to "the vagaries of State legislation controlled by over forty different sets of lawmakers, many of them ignorant and goaded to reckless and loose legislation by an impatient local demand for more money." But the correction of such evils would be automatic. What Mr. Harter has to say on this point is of great force:

"You must remember constantly that none of these notes would be a legal tender in any State, and their sole chance for securing credit and circulation would be through actual merit. Let us suppose a case. Say that Mississippi should pass a law authorizing banks to issue money inadequately secured. It could not even get a circulation in the town in which it was issued, for it would be constantly returned to the bank for redemption. It follows surely that it would not circulate or be accepted anywhere else. Such a law, when passed in these days of the telegraph, of daily and weekly papers, and of general and widely diffused financial information and intelligence, would be condemned and every note issued under it would be refused. It is true that a generation ago, when we had little gold and less silver, no government legal-tender notes and no national bank-notes; when railroads were very few and extremely far between; when express offices were almost unknown, telegraph facilities practically unused, country roads far worse even than now, it was possible to secure an uncertain and limited circulation for inferior paper money issued by local banks; but such a thing would be utterly impossible now, as it would cost the banks to keep such money out at least one hundred dollars where it would make them one dollar of profit. It is no more to be dreaded than the return to the flint, the seamstress's needle, the grain-cradle, the canal-boat, the stage coach, or the wagon-freighters of the past."

TWO ENGLISH MYSTERIES.

THE political situation in England is to-day probably the most puzzling in the history of the country, and one in which hardly any one's prognostications are of much value. Whoever attempts to analyze it with a view to prophecy soon finds that all the clues or solvents on which he has hitherto relied utterly fail him. For example, Gladstone is the central figure on the stage, and the anxious observer finds that he is detested by the middle and upper classes with an extraordinary approach to unanimity. In polite society in England to-day, courtesy almost requires the assumption, if you are unknown, that you are anti-Gladstonian. In fact, it has become the fashion, in the strict sense of the term, to denounce Gladstone; and fashion now governs, or at all events influences, a far larger circle of the well-to-do people than it used to do. People denounce Gladstone, just as they put on mourning when the court does, to show that they move in good society and share its joys and sorrows.

The state of things in this respect strongly resembles that which prevailed in English society during the earlier years of our civil war. It was "the thing" in 1861–1864 to sympathize with the South, and believe all the stories of Lincoln's coarseness and Northern brutality; and Americans who were met in good houses were presumed, as a bit of common politeness, to be Southerners. The Northern armies were the objects of nearly as much social horror as the Irish Home-Rulers. The *Times* in 1863 had an article wondering how gentlemen like the Orleans princes could remain in contact with such boors as Northern officers. In matters of this sort the English struggle to rise in the social scale has immense influence in determining the opinions of those who begin to see, either for themselves or their children, the possibility of "arriving," as the French say.

It seems at first sight as if this fashionable hatred of Gladstone would furnish the philosophical observer with the key to the situation of which he was in search. "If I can get these people," he will say to himself, "to tell me why they hate Gladstone, it will make everything plain; I shall know what is coming." But he speedily finds that he is now no better off than ever. When one asks an anti-Gladstonian for specifications, they are rarely to be had, or, if produced, are not explanatory. If one fastens on the theory that Gladstone is odious because he is the leader of the democratic movement, one is soon thrown out by finding that the two most democratic measures of the last half century, the measures most likely to work in the near future a total change in the governing class in England—the extension of the suffrage and the establishment of the County Councils—were passed by the Tories. If he concludes that it is because of Gladstone's interference with the obligation of contracts in Ireland,

he finds that the most serious and flagrant case of such interference was allowing leaseholders to come in and have their rents also judicially fixed—something on which Mr. Gladstone had not ventured; his legislation was confined to tenants at will. If he concludes that it is because Gladstone is trying to give Ireland home rule, he is foiled by finding that the fashion of detesting him came in before 1885. The commonest excuse for it is that he has frequently in his speeches changed his ground on a variety of public questions; but all English statesmen who have been long in public life have done the same thing. There has been no such *volte-face* in Gladstone's career as Peel's on the Corn Laws in 1847.

The most plausible explanation is, that Gladstone is not so much the author of disagreeable things as that he is associated in the upper and middle-class mind with a very slow but very palpable change in the relation of classes in England, because he preaches about it and openly approves of it, whereas the Tories denounce it and ridicule it while steadily promoting it. That change consists mainly in the self-assertion of the working classes, and it embitters the middle class, who come into immediate contact with it, more than it does the aristocracy. For the middle class, who were the bone and sinew of the first uprising against Tory government in 1882, got all they wanted in the Reform Bill and the subsequent reforms in taxation and administration. Since the triumph of free trade and the emancipation of the boroughs, they have been becoming more and more conservative, and Gladstone is now the old reprobate who will not let things alone.

The second inscrutable, or nearly inscrutable, mystery of British politics is the Irish question. No one can assist at a debate in the House of Commons without being extremely puzzled by the frantic desire of the English people to keep the Irish representatives there. What purpose is served by their presence nobody, from simply listening to the discussion about Ireland, could possibly make out. Not only are they not allowed to frame Irish legislation, but their advice about it is not taken, and one of the most serious charges brought against Mr. Gladstone is that he consults them on Irish matters. In addition to this, hardly any one speaks on the Conservative side on any polemical subject without insulting them. The extent to which this is done, unconsciously in most instances, is a very curious feature of the debates, and so is the patient way in which the Irish submit to it. Every or nearly every Tory speaker either sneers at their poverty as revealed by their receiving pay from their constituents, or at their bad manners as exhibited in the House, and treats their love of crime and association with criminals as facts of common knowledge. This has lasted so long now that few Englishmen notice it, unless their attention is called to it. Yet the character of the Irish members is said, by those who know them, to be very good, and their ability in debate and in committee-work much above the average of the rest of the House; but this makes no difference.

Their principal business is, however, impeding legislation not bearing on the question of home rule, and, in spite of the closure, their success in this is very great, and must be great, unless they are made the object of special restrictions, which is, of course, impossible. As matters stand, they give an air of farce to representative government, and yet any proposal to take them away from Westminster fills most Englishmen with horror. The excitement into which an Englishman is thrown by the suggestion that there should be no Irish members in Parliament would at first suggest to a foreigner that he was passionately attached to them, and considered their presence a condition of national safety; but this is speedily dissipated, for in the next breath he describes them as the scum of creation, and assures you that if they had a Parliament of their own, their favorite occupations would be robbery and murder.

The dislike of Ireland as a country is manifested in the same anomalous way. All allusions to it are of the most melancholy and contemptuous character, but any proposal to let it go lets loose a flood of patriotic feeling, as if English associations with it were of the tenderest and most endearing kind. As a matter of fact it is held by 40,000 men as against a foreign enemy, just as it would be in time of war, and is avoided by the English court as if it were a pest-house, and it is impossible to get from Englishmen any description of its value to the Empire. The usual last resource is to describe it as a place in which in time of war a foreign enemy could get a footing if the natives owned it; but how the foreign enemy would get there unless England lost the command of the sea, and why the enemy in that case would stay in Ireland instead of coming to England, where he would enjoy himself far more, is never explained.

INNOVATIONS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

In a recent examination of the circulars of the new University of Chicago, we called attention to some interesting departures from the traditions of the American college. In some of its innovations, it is true, Chicago has taken hints from recent educational experiments at other colleges, but even in these cases it has modified what it has borrowed, so that the general effect of its programme is decidedly original.

A good example of this modified imitation is found in the organization of the Chicago faculties. During the last few years Columbia has given an independent organization to the faculties charged with senior and graduate work, separating them from the old college faculty. At Chicago we find that separate faculties have been formed for "academic" and "university" instruction. At both institutions the distinction corresponds approximately to that drawn in Germany between gymnasium and university, and the faculty or faculties charged with the more advanced instruction represent roughly the German faculty of philosophy. But there is more than one interesting difference between the Columbia and the Chicago plan. At Columbia the line is drawn between the junior and senior years; at Chicago between the sophomore and junior years. At Chicago the duties of the German faculty of philosophy are discharged by a single "faculty of arts, literature, and science"; at Columbia this work is divided between three faculties—a faculty of political science, a faculty of "pure" natural science, and a narrower faculty of philosophy. A similar differentiation of the older faculty of philosophy is beginning to appear in Germany. At Columbia, finally, the senior may study not only under any of the three faculties just mentioned, but also under the faculties of law, medicine, and applied science; *i.e.*, he may begin his professional work before completing his college course, and this work is counted as a part of the requirements for the baccalaureate degree. At Chicago none of these professional schools is yet established, but there is a divinity school, and it does not appear from the Calendar that juniors or seniors are to be permitted to take courses in that school. At the same time, the courses offered by the Faculty of Arts, Literature, and Science include much that is ordinarily taught in our theological seminaries, and it seems probable that the college student who takes courses in comparative religion, church history, the Semitic languages and literature, and New Testament Greek, will require less time subsequently to complete his divinity course.

Among the professional schools which Chicago hopes to establish, we find not only schools of law, medicine, fine arts, and engineering, but also a "school of pedagogy." There are precedents for the institution of such a school, but we are nevertheless of the opinion that it is unnecessary. In no scheme for training teachers is the intending pedagogue taught simply how to teach; he is taught things to teach as well. But the things he is to teach are best taught him in the regular university courses. Give such a student free access to the courses in philosophy, philology, literature, history, political science, mathematics, and natural science, and all that he can ask from the university in addition is instruction in the history and theory of teaching. For this purpose proper courses in pedagogics are sufficient; a special professional school is not required.

As regards professional degrees we can only applaud the intention of the University to abolish all honorary degrees, and to provide, ultimately, for the attainment of the degrees of D.D. and LL.D. in course. This is a logical result of the transformation of the Ph.D. from an honorary to a regular degree—a transformation accomplished within the last twenty years by the Eastern universities. It is justified by educational precedent and the practice of foreign universities. Chicago is right, again, in declaring that every candidate for the doctor's degree in law or divinity shall be held to pursue a part of his studies under the direction of the Faculty of Arts and Letters. Our professional schools are so purely professional—in fact, so technical—that the highest university degrees should not be awarded to their graduates unless these have broadened and humanized their education with more liberal studies.

Turning our attention again to the "academic" and "university colleges," *i. e.*, to the college and graduate school, we are at first glance startled by the number and range of the courses offered. It may be said, however, without intending to undervalue the really rich curriculum, that the goods are cleverly displayed. The division of the year into terms of only six weeks each greatly multiplies the number of courses. Further, a very large number are only projected, no instructors having as yet been secured to conduct them. This policy of first announcing courses and then looking for persons qualified to give them may be proper in the earlier and disciplinary years of the college curriculum, but we think it wrong in principle in the "university" years. There is no way to build up a true university except to form the faculties of original investigators in every field of knowledge, and leave each professor free to teach what he knows best in the way that is most natural to him. That is what "academic freedom" means as regards the teacher.

There are lacunæ, and some serious ones, in the list of courses offered; but the University does itself injustice in declaring that the work of the "Department of Political Science" will not begin this year. In connection with this announcement, reference is made to a dozen courses in historical and comparative politics and constitutional and international law (all of which are grouped under history), but no reference is made to the numerous courses in political economy and social science. On careful examination of the entire list of lectures, we find no important branch of political science neglected except administrative law. The question suggests itself, whether at Chicago administration is regarded as the only political science, or whether the University has discovered or is searching for a new political science.

We are very sorry to see figuring in the announcements the delusive proffer of a course in journalism. We do not say that a course in English may not be so shaped as to be of especial value to an embryo journalist; but the announcement of such a course leads some students to expect more than can be given them in the lecture-room. The proffer in question is particularly objectionable because, in the space of six weeks, the class is not only to study and practise "the art of journalism," but also "periodical literature, literary editorship, and book-making."

The most peculiar feature of the Chicago plan is that the University is to be kept running all the year through, including the summer months. The calendar year is divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each, beginning respectively on the first days of October, January, April, and July; and at the end of each quarter there is to be a recess of one week. Each quarter consists of two terms of six weeks. No student is to be held to an attendance of more than three quarters, or six terms, in each year, so that the normal academic year is no longer than at other colleges. Each student is to begin his academic year whenever he is ready, and to take his quarter's vacation whenever it suits his convenience. He may even take his two terms of vacation in different quarters.

The opportunity of entering the University at the beginning of any quarter will obviously be of advantage to many students. Secondary instruction is very imperfectly organized in our country, and our fitting-schools send their students to college with very diverse equipments. Under the customary American plan, a student who is imperfectly prepared for the freshman class is either admitted with conditions or compelled to wait a full year. In the former case he has to make up his deficiencies while pursuing the regular course—which means that he has too much to do. But if, as often happens, his deficiencies can be made good in four or five months, and he is obliged to delay his entrance for a full year, he has too little to do. Not only is his time wasted, but the habit of serious work may be impaired. Under the Chicago plan, both evils are avoided.

Under the ordinary American system, again, a student who is overfitted for the freshman class and inadequately prepared for the sophomore class, is confronted with a similar alternative. He either enters as a sophomore with conditions, and has to do too much, or he enters the freshman class and does too little. Under the Chicago plan each student who enters the college receives credit for what he has done before entrance, and is held to do only what he has not done. As there is no regular time for graduation, any more than for entrance, the student who has anticipated any considerable portion of the college curriculum will complete it so much sooner. If, for example, he has anticipated one quarter's work, he will complete his baccalaureate course in eleven quarters instead of twelve. This seems fairer than the Harvard plan, by which such a student is indeed admitted to advanced standing and given advanced studies, but, unless he has anticipated a full year's work, is held subsequently for the same length of time as the students who have barely satisfied the entrance requirements.

All these advantages, however, might be substantially attained without a summer quarter. This innovation, as far as we can see, will be serviceable to but two classes of students, viz., the very poor and the very ambitious. Those students who have to "work their way" through college, and who can best earn the funds they need by teaching country schools in winter, will be able, under the Chicago arrangement of terms, to teach through the winter and study through the summer. In the older colleges provision has always been made for this most deserving class, either by a winter vacation of some six weeks or by leave to study *in absentia*. The former solution, of which the Chicago plan is only a further development, has gradually been discarded in our Eastern colleges. The winter vacation has grown steadily shorter and the summer vacation longer. The latter solution seems to be possible under the Chicago rules; for in the "General Regulations," section 10, provision is made for non-resident study. The summer quarter, therefore, does not seem necessary to meet the wants of this class of students.

The only others who will be likely to use the privilege of summer attendance are those who desire to shorten their college course by crowding twelve quarters of study into three years. That the University intends to make this possible is shown in the section on admission to advanced standing, where it is pointed out that the student who has anticipated one-fourth of the required course may obtain his degree in two years and three months, by working four quarters in the year. In the "General Regulations," section 17, it is declared that "a student will not be permitted to study in the University four consecutive quarters without a physician's certificate that he may do the work of the fourth quarter without injury to his health."

We think it a grave question whether the policy here indicated is a wise one. We do not think that students ought to be encouraged to crowd a four years' course into three years. We do not think that many young men will be able to do this without injury; and Chicago, which is a coeducational institution, encourages young women to do it. The requirement of a medical certificate is a confession, on the part of the University authorities, that such an attempt is fraught with danger. But the safeguard of a "physician's" (*i.e.*, any physician's) certificate is quite inadequate. In the same section (17) we find mention of a "University physician" and of a "director of the department of physical education," and we were a little puzzled, at first, to understand why the approval of one or both of these authorities should not be required. But upon further examination of the Calendar, we discover that there is no University physician, and that the director of physical education is a Yale athlete, who holds no medical degree. There is, however, a female tutor in this department, who is M.D. of the University of Buffalo. Considering that the danger of overwork is greatest in the case of the female students, who are notoriously more ambitious than the young men and less able to stand the strain of a college course, it seems only right that Dr. Alice Bertha Foster should be consulted. Some competent medical authority should certainly be designated for whose decision in so grave a matter the University could be held responsible. The present arrangement is better adapted to shield the University than to protect the students.

The proposed summer quarter has another side. If there are students, there must be teachers; and it appears from the Calendar that a considerable number of instructors will be held in Chicago through the hottest months of the year. It is apparently to be a serious thing, this summer quarter: "the courses of instruction," the Calendar says, "will in general be so arranged that a student may enter a college or school at the beginning of any quarter." The University is not to play at summer schooling; it is to be run under full pressure. What that pressure is, we have pointed out in our preceding notice. The most important courses of the "academic colleges" are crowded into single terms of six weeks, by devoting ten hours a week to a single subject. Throughout the University, courses of less than five hours are exceptional. It is a system of "cram quizzes," and every college man will appreciate the strain upon students and instructors. These long courses in short terms, the attempt to keep the University under full steam through the moist heat of a Chicago summer, the encouragement given to the student to compress four years' work into three years—the whole scheme breathes that nervous, restless haste which is one of the most deplorable features of American life; and when our universities come to forget that "school" means leisure, and that high-thinking cannot be hurried, one of the last safeguards against the national vice of over-pressure will be lost.

RESTORATIONS IN VENICE.

VENICE, September 1, 1892.

FROM time to time the restorations going on (or neglected) at Venice have called out from various foreign sources remonstrances sometimes just and needed, and at times exaggerated and requiring a defence or explanation. But the critics, unaware of the antagonisms developed among those responsible for the care and restoration of the monuments and

the internal difficulties which the restorers have had to contend with beyond the technical ones, have never done entire justice to them. There have always been two schools of restorers in Venice—one for preservation and the other for renovation; and the rancor of their antagonism has been carried to a point only short of physical collision. The renovators, whose ideal of restoration was the removal of all marks of time, had always with them, as in every Italian city, the municipal authorities, and, since the organization of the Provincial Council for the preservation of ancient monuments, have formed the majority of that body. The arbiter of all disputes is the Ministry of Public Instruction, which presides over the interests of archæology and art, as well as literature. In the beginning the renovators had it all their own way, at Florence as well as at Venice; and the great outbreak of indignation in England about fifteen years ago had a large basis of justification and did an immense deal of good, but would have done more had the denunciations taken account of the fight that some of the Italians were making against the crudities then perpetrated.

The restoration of the Fondaco dei Turchi, the noblest of all the early palaces of Venice, had been effected by the municipality through its architect, Berchet, and resulted in simple reconstruction, with the difference between the original and the restored buildings that all the splendid columns of the original, brought from the East and (after the manner of the Venice of that time) simply introduced in their original condition and patina, and the bits of early sculpture worked in as decoration, either borrowed from earlier buildings or made *ad hoc*, were entirely recut, and the former reduced to the uniform standard and symmetry of modern design and construction—the latter so as to remove every trace of the original art. This made the Fondaco no longer an ancient building, but a modern and grossly inaccurate copy of the old, with not a single element of antiquity remaining; but it was to the intense satisfaction of the municipality, which conferred a pension on the architect in token of its content. To all people of taste the palace is utterly ruined. The Church of St. Mark had its own architect, who had been in charge during the greater part of the Austrian dominion, Cav. Meduna, a man who died past ninety years of age, and was succeeded by his younger brother. Both had been trained under the Austrian authority, which, whatever it may have deserved of detestation politically, showed a reverence and tenderness for the antiquities of Venice that its Italian local authorities have never had. They carried out the restorations on the church, if not with the feeling for the picturesque which the English critics demanded, at least with the respect for everything old that the stability of the building permitted, and the north façade remains as evidence of Austrian good taste. The younger Meduna retained his position after Venice became Italian, and at the time of the English protests I was in Venice and wrote in his defence, in the main, drawing on myself a great deal of English indignation. I am free, therefore, to say that the architectural authority now responsible for the condition of the church has much less than the Medunas' reverence for it, and his new restorations of the pavement, painfully in discord with the original work, and his introduction of the electric light for the illumination of the interior (!), show what we must expect from his superintendence of the church in the future.

Fortunately, at the same time that the great controversy broke out, the restorations of the Duomo at Florence were going on, on the system of Berchet, by washing the marble incrustation of the church with acids to remove the patina and then recutting the sculptured surfaces. This was the municipal ideal, at Florence as at Venice; but there the English outcry was in time to attract the attention of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which immediately ordered the suspension of the renovation, and the whole subject came up for examination, with the result that all similar attempts throughout the kingdom were forbidden. In Venice, however, the war of the sects went on, and the apple of discord was the Ducal Palace. The direction here belonged entirely to the Ministry, and there was no chance for the municipality to renovate after the manner of the Fondaco; but there was a strong competition between the two schools for the execution of the work. Happily the plans of the chief of the school of preservation, the architect Forcellini, involved an expense so slight in comparison with that of the rival project of substantial reconstruction, that it was awarded the preference; for the external indications of decay were so marked that it seemed to superficial observers that the building must come down. The practical execution of the plans of Forcellini was placed in the hands of a capomaestro of the Ministry of Public Works, a worthy descendant of the builders of Orvieto, Siena, Pisa, etc. (for the profession of architect as distinguished from the builder did not then exist, and Niccolo Pisano, Arnolfo, and their colleagues were simply the head-foremen of the masons and builders). Forcellini died some years ago, without seeing the realization of his plans, and the control of the works devolved on the capomaestro, Vendrasco, who had to meet a redoubled energy of attack from the united forces of the Chapter of St. Mark's, the Provincial Council, and the body of architects, who reclaimed for an architect the control of the work. The Provincial Council is clerical, as is naturally the Chapter and its architect, and the advent of the Ministry of Rudini, strongly clerical, or of the old Right, strengthened the hands of the clerical element in the Council. Berchet, the renovator of the Fondaco dei Turchi, was made President of it, his acceptation being conditional on the dismissal of Vendrasco, which, after a protracted contest between the opposing influences, was finally decided upon.

Nothing can give a better idea of the character of certain tendencies of official Italy than the career of this Provincial Council. Its existence, like that of all its kind, is due to the passion for official position; for the efficiency and competence of its members have generally nothing to do with their appointment, which becomes a question of partisan or personal influence. The fitness of its constituents for their position may be judged from the selection of the restorer of the Fondaco for its president. The manner in which it performs its duty of supervision of the preservation of monuments may be inferred from the following facts lately observed, and which have been in my knowledge for several years. Peremptory orders have issued from the Ministry for the removing of all combustible matter, and everything foreign to the building itself, from the Ducal Palace, but the Institute of Venice still occupies, with its mass of books, documents, and papers of all kinds, the principal rooms along the Piazzetta side; and while the Council replies to all remonstrances that it cannot find a fitting place for the library, it has let as a café the Zecca, which was, in every sense of the term, admirably adapted for the purpose, but as such offered no speculation. *En passant*, I may add that it was due to the persistent denunciation of English and American residents that the families living in the palace, and the carpenter's shop in one of its principal rooms, were removed. The rooms underneath the galleries containing the great collection of Venetian art at the Accademia, are occupied as a winter school of design, with heating arrangement of a primitive kind, for the comfort of the models and pupils, with lights, etc., etc., as requisite. They are, besides, stored with pictures for which no place on the walls can be made, canvases not worth hanging, etc.; and a chance spark or a defective flue may destroy the entire collection in an hour. The great Titian in S. Salvatore, with its proud inscription, "Titianus fecit," is spattered all over its lower part with the wax of the altar candles; the superb Bellini at Murano was, when I saw it, as it has been for years, exposed to the full blaze of the sun at certain hours of the day, and two of the finest Tintorets still in the churches I found in the same state. The finest Lorenzo Lotto in Venice, and perhaps the best there is, is in a dark chapel in S. Bartolomeo, where it cannot be seen under any circumstances, and where the only compensation for its neglected state is that the cleaners who have ruined some of the best pictures in the Accademia cannot get at it. The roof of S. Pietro di Castello, the original cathedral church of Venice, is a complete wreck and does not keep out the weather. The late Ministry issued an order of the most imperative character, that no pictures in the churches were to be kept under curtains in order that the custodians might make the exhibition of them a pretext for asking fees, and that no custodian should be allowed to accept fees; but the Council has taken no step to procure obedience to the order in a single case.

The letting of the Zecca for a café is a most luminous illustration of the efficiency of the Council. Three arches of the façade which were built up by the Republic, under circumstances of historical interest, and have remained closed ever since, were an obstacle to its utilization as café, and the reopening of them was opposed by all the lovers of old Venice as an offence against history, apart from the degradation of the building for the proposed use. The fight was hot over it, the municipal authorities regarding the rent to be received as the principal consideration, while Vendrasco, our capomaestro, took part in the discussion, and published a pamphlet opposing the decision of the Council which approved the letting. This settled the question of his dismissal from the works on the palace, which, though demanded by the Council, and thereupon taken into favorable consideration by the Ministry, had never been carried into effect, on account of the numerous remonstrances the measure had called out. The insubordination shown by the employee of the Government in publicly protesting against the decision of the superior authority provoked the order for his dismissal, and he was formally dismissed; but the immediate pressure from influential quarters on the new Ministry, with the influence of the new Prefect, Basile, an intelligent lover of old Venice—perhaps, also, a review of all the facts by the new Minister Martini—reversed the decision, and the old man was reinstated in his former position.

Italians are very sensitive to foreign criticisms of their way of treating their artistic treasures, and at times very voluble in their

abuse of a critic who ventures to say that they do not appreciate them; but the conduct of the Provincial Council for the Venetian provinces, the most important in Italy, is an undeniable proof of the insufficiency of the machinery of the Government and the utter incompetence of the local authorities to protect them. We have the Fondaco dei Turchi utterly ruined, the Zecca let as a café, the finest collection of Venetian art in the world in danger of conflagration, to say nothing of the destruction by restoration, and by only less destructive neglect, of some of the finest pictures in Venice. All over the kingdom we have ancient churches, most important in the history of art, allowed to be transformed by the Church authorities into the most vulgar modern structures; the Duomo of Florence about to be reduced to the state of a building of the nineteenth century—an end only stopped by a timely article in the *Cornhill Magazine* (which called out the most intense indignation of the Florentines), as the worst of the intended desecrations in Venice were prevented by the outcry of the English correspondents when they had not called out an alarm from any Italian authority. We have an awakening of the royal authorities, due mainly to the foreign protests, and yet the Italian journals will go on abusing the foreigner for his impertinent meddling with Italian archæological questions.

The late Minister of Public Instruction, Prof. Villari, had the highest interest in these questions, and did his best to promote the artistic interests of the country; but his efforts were continually thwarted by the indifference of the public and the Legislature, and the conflict of authorities, local and central, which made an entanglement of red tape such as no one not an experienced bureaucrat and politician, neither of which he was, could struggle against. Italians may like it or not, they may prevent remedies being taken, but they cannot prevent the art-loving traveller from criticising ever so savagely their neglect of works which belong to the history of the world's art as well as to Italy. And I will do the Italian Ministry the justice to say that I have never known a case of its attention being called in the most private manner, even, to an injury being done to any monument, without the notice receiving instant attention. Nothing could be more liberal and cordial than was the action of Prof. Villari in all cases where the interests of art were concerned; but he was not long enough in office to learn to see through all the intrigues which involved even the peaceful department of Public Instruction. I hope it will be found that his successor will have no less liberality in his views.

W. J. S.

MARCEAU.

PARIS, September 16, 1892.

THE extraordinary and well-deserved success of the Memoirs of Gen. Marbot has given a great impetus to the publication of military memoirs. Most of them are hardly readable, as they are purely technical. Attention has been turned to the military characters of the great Revolution. Whatever may be said about this great social event and its consequences, it cannot be denied that the civil representatives of the Revolution are generally very repulsive; it is difficult to feel any enthusiasm for such men as Danton, Robespierre, Saint-Just, Hébert, even for Mirabeau. Republican writers find more sympathetic characters in such men as Kléber, Kellermann, Marceau. M. Noël Parfait, a Republican deputy of Eure-et-Loir, has just published a volume on Marceau. This young general, who died at the age of twenty-seven, is one of the poetical figures of the Revolution. It is now the fashion to place portraits at the beginning of all historical works, and when I saw the fine and youthful head of Marceau, in his hussar uniform, with his slight moustache tracing a thin curve on his upper lip, his shako, with a long plume, slightly inclined on his head, his long, flowing hair, his loose black cravat, leaving full liberty to the movements of the neck, his breast covered with *brandebourgs* (the portrait is by Sergent), I was seduced, and stopped and bought the volume. I do not regret it, for I have taken more pleasure in the book than in Zola's sad 'Débâcle.'

Marceau, if the ancients spoke the truth, was beloved by the gods, as he died very young. He was born at Chartres on the 1st of March, 1769, the first-born of a second marriage of his father, Marceau-Desgraviers, who had a small office in the bailiwick of Chartres. His mother did not nurse him, but put him out in a neighboring village; he was brought up among peasants. Marceau left a short journal of his youth. He exhibited very early a great taste for military life, and, as his parents would not give the money necessary to make him an officer, he enlisted as a private, on the 2d of December, 1784, at the age of fifteen. This engagement was annulled, but as soon as he attained the required age, on the 1st of March, 1785, he entered the regiment of Savoie-Carignan (infantry), commanded by the Comte de Sérent. He went to Metz, where his regiment was in garrison. He regretted at first having left his parents, though he had never received any kindness from their hands; he felt discouraged and disgusted when he perceived that no advancement was possible except for noblemen. The Revolution soon gave him the means of advancement. He was in Paris at the time of the taking of the Bastille, and shared in the storming of the old fortress; his name, on account of his coöperation in the revolutionary movement, was struck off the list of his regiment. He became acquainted with Pétion and Brissot, and was presented by them to Lafayette, who took him as a supernumerary aide-de-camp. He remained five months with Lafayette, and wrote by his orders "Instructions for the National Guard."

Marceau received his appointment as lieutenant in the Thirty-fourth Infantry and at the same moment was elected commander of a battalion of volunteers in his department. He left for Reims with this battalion, and instructed his soldiers for five months. He was next sent to Montmédy, and appointed lieutenant-colonel. The situation of the army of the Ardennes was critical. Lafayette had fled across the frontier and become a prisoner of the Austrians; on the 23d of August, Longwy surrendered, and the Duke of Brunswick marched on Verdun. Marceau had been called in haste to Verdun, which had Beaurepaire for its commander; the unfortunate Beaurepaire shot himself, and Marceau, as the youngest officer of the garrison, was obliged to carry to the King of Prussia the letter which announced the capitulation of the place. After the surrender of Verdun, Marceau, with the men who had not deserted, joined the army and reorganized his battalion. Dillon took him for his aide-de-camp, and Marceau had a brilliant part in the battle of Valmy, which saved France from an invasion.

The moral effect of this victory was immense. Dumouriez, with Kellermann and Dillon, had inflicted a crushing defeat on 86,000 Prussians. After the battle Dillon and Marceau went to Paris. Dillon was hostile to the Government; Marceau left him and entered the cavalry, as captain in the cuirassiers of the Germanic Legion, which was composed chiefly of German deserters. The soldiers wrote petitions to the Chamber against their chiefs, and, for a month, Marceau was imprisoned. He was acquitted and immediately replaced in the army, and sent to La Vendée. He shared with his cuirassiers in the battle of Saumur, and saved the life of Citizen Bourbotte, a "representative of the people" who was with the republican army. The Germanic Legion was disbanded and Marceau was sent to Niort under Biron. He did not remain long with him, as Biron lost his command soon afterwards and was recalled by the Convention. "They recall me," said the General to his aide-de-camp; "it is the beginning. Well! I will go on to the end!" The end was the scaffold.

The French garrison of Mayence, which had made an heroic defence, could not, by the terms of the capitulation, serve any more against the enemy during the rest of the campaign. The Convention sent it to Brittany, and Marceau thus became a companion and friend of Gen. Kléber. The "Mayençais," as they were at first called, fell into the ambuscades of the Vendeans, as they did not understand the new style of warfare initiated by the Bretons. Kléber was not long in repairing their first defeats; he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Army of the West, and Marceau general-of-brigade. It would take too long to give the painful details of the war in La Vendée. Kléber had to fight not only against the Bretons, but against the deputies of the Convention, who were crossing his plans all the time, and against the patriots, like Rossignol, who knew nothing about war and who had nevertheless received commands. He as well as Marceau was constantly denounced to the Convention. After the battle of Le Mans, a young lady fled after the defeat of the Royalists and was fortunate enough to meet Marceau in the midst of his staff. He saved her and sent her to his headquarters. Mlle. des Mesliers accompanied the republican army to Laval, and Marceau left her there in the house of one of her aunts. She was unfortunately discovered by the Revolutionary authorities, and was thrown into prison. She appeared before the Revolutionary Tribunal with seven other Vendean women, and they were all, without distinction of age, executed on the guillotine—"seeing," said the judgment, "that it is proved that the accused were all among the brigands of La Vendée." Marceau had fallen ill and was obliged to leave the army. He spent some time at Chartres, where he became engaged to Mlle. de Châteaugiron (the Châteaugirons momentarily called themselves Leprêtre). One day Mme. Leprêtre de Châteaugiron, the mother, her daughter Agathe, Emisa, the sister of Marceau, and Marceau himself were together, when the executioner of Rennes asked to say a word to the general; he had a little package to give him. Marceau at first refused to see him, but after a moment allowed the executioner to come in, and received from his hands a little box which contained a small gold watch which Angélique des Mesliers had left him. "Poor girl!" said Marceau, in tears; "I had promised her that she should live."

Marceau, after a visit made in Paris to the Committee of Public Safety—a visit which became an ovation as soon as his name was known—rejoined the army of the Ardennes and found himself again with his friend

Kléber. At Fleurus he commanded the right wing of the army; he took several places in Belgium, participated in many combats, and finally took Coblentz. His chivalrous courage had made him the idol of the army. The whole of the left bank of the Rhine was now in the hands of the French, from Wesel to Bâle. Marceau showed the greatest activity at Coblentz. He was isolated, and had only ten thousand men; he built an entrenched camp for Coblentz, and besieged the citadel of Ehrenbreitstein on the right bank of the Rhine. He was obliged to raise the siege when the French army fell back on the Rhine and crossed the bridge at Neuwied. The army of Sambre-et-Meuse was retreating, and, in this retreat, Marceau had to fight with one division against twenty-six thousand men.

In the operations of the retreat, Marceau was in constant danger. One day, when he was ascending a hill with two soldiers and an officer to examine a position, an Austrian hussar was seen on the road, who tried to draw the attention of the French. A Tyrolean jäger was concealed in a bush on the road from Höchstenbach to Vallerod. These jägers were good shots, and generally fired at the gilt uniforms and epaulets. Marceau was struck by a bullet, and felt at once that he was mortally wounded; he was carried on guns covered with cloaks to the village of Vallerod. The ball had entered the right arm and lodged under the ribs. As Marceau could no longer follow the army, Gen. Jourdan, the commander-in-chief, left him with the Austrians, with two officers, two surgeons, and two soldiers. The Austrians showed much sympathy for Marceau, and treated him with the greatest kindness. He became delirious, spoke constantly of battles, of his mother, of the young woman to whom he was engaged. The Archduke Charles came in person to see him, but found him dead, knelt and prayed before the death-bed, and ordered that the body should be conducted to the French lines with all military honors. The scene of this removal was an imposing one; it has been reproduced several times by French painters. The funeral took place on the 24th of September, and was a sort of apotheosis. The body was carried with great pomp to Petersberg, and the guns of the two armies were fired on both sides of the Rhine in honor of the young hero.

There was a second funeral after the first, by the desire of Kléber. Marceau's remains were cremated and a pyramid of stone was placed over them. On the marble urn which contained the ashes was inscribed this device: "Hic cineres, ubique nomen." Lord Byron, on passing before the tomb, composed verses which will do more for the memory of Marceau than all the biographies.

Correspondence.

CITY GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interesting letter of Mr. Rowe from Berlin tempts me to recur to this fruitful subject. Having read Mr. Shaw's essays and a good deal of similar literature, I am led to the conclusion that we have very little to gain from foreign methods of city government, probably owing to differences of social condition, and that we shall have to work out the problem for ourselves.

I have had from the start an utter disbelief in the London County Council. The attempt to govern a large city by means of a numerous elected body, precisely in principle like our City Councils or Boards of Aldermen, without any executive head or authority of any kind, and working by means of committees, must either end in total failure—of which signs are not wanting—or else, for some reason, the population of London offers very different material to govern from that of New York or Boston. The "Magistrat" of Berlin, reported by Mr. Rowe as a sort of committee evolved from a large council by second election, may work well there, but imagine such a committee elected for six or twelve years by the Board of Aldermen to govern New York! The reign of Tammany would appear a blessing in comparison. We have no "King of Prussia" to keep them in order, and I think there are few Americans, especially among those who have visited Berlin, who would not prefer to bear the ills we have rather than look to any such remedy as that. So of Paris. We have not and cannot have anything like the "Prefect of the Seine."

What is the fundamental principle upon which our city as well as all our governments rest? It is, in theory at least, that they shall be carried on in accordance with the wish of the majority of the people. I say in theory, because we neutralize it from the start by basing elections upon plurality, which of itself is fatal to the hope of good government. We then proceed to diffuse power and responsibility so that the majority of the voters cannot understand how the Government is carried on—who deserves praise and who blame—or how to apply their efforts so as to obtain good results. And so, in spite of the kicking and shaking administered to them with about as much logic as would be implied in beating a steam-engine, they grow more and more indifferent and apathetic, and leave politics to the small minority who do understand the subject and how to apply their efforts so as to produce results beneficial to themselves. The simplification of the machinery is the prime necessity of our politics as much as in any operation of mechanics.

I should like to quote in italics the whole of the last three paragraphs of Mr. Rowe's letter, but can only express my unqualified commendation. They are doubly valuable as coming from one who has the much-vaunted government of Berlin before his eyes. One point, however, it seems worth while to reinforce, and that is where he shows that our city governments are no different in principle from the State and national, the one being no more a business corporation than the others. The same voters, as far as they go, elect a mayor and a city council, a governor and a legislature, a president and congress, and the failure of results and the causes of that failure are throughout the same. The real difference is in the fact that the State and Federal governments are carried on under constitutions supposed to be established by the people, while city government is under a charter granted by the State. The superiority of foreign cities, such as it is and so far as I can make out, depends less upon their local organization than upon the fact that there is more or less a strong Government over them, backed by the habits and traditions of centuries. The lesson we need to learn, therefore, is the necessity of strengthening the State, not by resorting to either monarchy or aristocracy, but by making its Government really responsive to the wishes of the mass of the people instead of abandoning it to the schemes of wire-pulling politicians and the lobby. G. B.

Boston, September 30, 1892.

THE SECRET BALLOT IN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While reading your recent editorial on "Party Value of a Secret Ballot," I was forcibly reminded of an incident occurring at the polls here during our last Congressional election, when we elected our Democratic candidate in the Sixth District of Maryland, which was then supposed to be the Gibraltar of Republicanism in this State. I had just deposited my secret ballot, and lingered a few moments in conversation with the inspectors of election, when a venerable looking colored man came from the stall adjoining the one I had occupied while marking my ticket; he held his hat in his hand, and, after depositing his ballot, made a most courteous bow to those present, saying: "Good day, gentlemen. I thank God I have lived to see the day that I cast my first respectable vote without interference from any man!"

In connection with the secret ballot in Maryland it seems an interesting coincidence that our successful candidate for Congress, Gen. W. McM. McKaig, was the original introducer of the secret-ballot system in our Legislature. He was then our State Senator. He was also the first beneficiary of this act, as he was elected Mayor of the city of Cumberland at the first election held under the new system in this State. J. P. G.

Cumberland, Md., September 26, 1892.

THE NAMING OF AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is to be regretted that so interesting and timely an article, and one destined to so wide a reading as Mr. Mason's "The Baptismal Font of America," in the October *Harper's*, should be marred by an unhappy misprint or blunder in its most critical passage, the translation of Waldseemüller's suggestion of the name. The original reads:

"Nunc vero et hae partes sunt latius lustratae et alia quarta pars per Americum Vesputium (ut in sequentibus audietur) inventa est quam non video cur quis jure vetet ab Americo inventore sagacis ingenii viro Amerigen, quasi Americi terram, sive Americam dicendam, cum et Europa et Asia a mulieribus sua sortita sint nomina."

The important part of this passage Mr. Mason translates:

"I do not see why we may justly refuse to name it America, namely, the land of Americus or America, after its discoverer Americus, a man of sagacious mind, since both Europe and Asia derived their names from women."

The correct rendering is: "I do not see why any one may justly forbid it to be named Amerige, that is, Americ's Land, from Americus the discoverer, a man of sagacious mind, or America, since both Europe and Asia chanced to receive names of women."

The important point, which does not appear in the first version, is that Waldseemüller suggested *two* names for the New World. The first, Amerige, is made up from the Greek word *ge* and a genitive form of the Latin name Americus with the last part cut off for euphony. This piece of pedantry came naturally enough to the man who, in accordance with the fashion of the time, devised the Græco-Latin compound Hylacomylus as an equivalent of his own name. The thought, however, that Europe and Asia received names from women leads him to make the much happier suggestion of the feminine of Americus.

That Waldseemüller suggested *two* names,

and that we might possibly be living in *Amerige* to-day had his fellow-geographers all had the same weakness for classical compounds, is not even hinted at in most of the books. As Mr. Mason has given a photographic copy of the original text, it is perhaps superfluous to call attention to two mistakes in transcription, viz., *haec* for *hae*, and *fortita* for *sortita*. EDWARD G. BOURNE.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND,
September 25, 1892.

THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The hopes of one student were mightily raised when Mr. Samuel A. B. Abbott averred that there was "*not a particle* of foundation" for the statement that the Boston Public Library "no longer grants to persons actually engaged in authorship the privilege of drawing books, though non-residents." Certainly I knew there were several particles of foundation, at least, for the statement, but I inferred that the Trustees were not aware of such facts, and were determined they should not exist. I therefore ventured to address the President of the Board, saying this, and asking, for the reason that I am writing a course of lectures for the Lowell Institute, on the History of Science, that I be allowed to borrow Gilbert's treatise, 'De Magnete.' I offered, at the same time, if desired, to deposit $50 as security for the book, which usually fetches about $35 in the market. My letter was returned to me by Mr. Abbott unanswered. I wonder how the kingdoms of this world appear when viewed from that awful pinnacle, the Presidency of the Board of Trustees of the Public Library of the City of Boston. What funny little creatures ordinary men must seem! Such a situation would be quite enough to render many a poor gentleman so dizzy that he would not know whether he was telling the truth or not. C. S. PEIRCE.

Notes.

MR. WHITTIER'S literary executor, Mr. Samuel T. Pickard, who has been charged with the preparation of the poet's Life, desires the loan of any autograph letters that may be serviceable to that end. Mr. Pickard's address is No. 44 Exchange Street, Portland, Me.

Additional announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are, 'An American Missionary in Japan,' by Dr. Gordon; 'Children's Rights,' by Mrs. Wiggin; 'Zachary Phips,' an historical novel by E. L. Bynner; and a holiday edition of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' with Darley's illustrations reduced.

Mr. Edward Eggleston, Elizabeth Eggleston Seelye, and Allegra Eggleston will collaborate in a series of popular historical works, called "Delights of History," beginning with 'The Story of Columbus.' D. Appleton & Co. will be the publishers.

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'The Place of the Story in Early Education, and Other Essays,' by Sara E. Wiltse, with an introductory note by President G. Stanley Hall.

We have referred more than once to the effect of the new copyright legislation in making the publication of plays again profitable. Mr. W. S. Gilbert had already printed the most of his plays, and Mr. Bronson Howard had put two or three of his into print. Mr. Pinero is now engaged in publishing regularly all his more successful plays. It is this state of affairs, perhaps, which has helped to bring about the discussion now raging in London as to the reason why the British novelists do not write for the theatre. Some of them do, notably Mr. Robert Buchanan and Mr. Hall Caine. Now it is announced that there will shortly be published a volume containing three plays written by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson in collaboration with Mr. W. E. Henley. One of these plays, "Deacon Brodie," has been acted in New York and elsewhere in America. Another, "Beau Austin," has had a few experimental performances in London. The third, "Admiral Guinea," has not as yet been produced anywhere. None of them is of recent writing; indeed, all three of them were privately printed at least six or seven years ago.

The revived interest in the South Sea marked by recent English fiction and by the republication of Mr. Stoddard's 'South Sea Idylls' is fanned afresh by the U. S. Book Co.'s reprint of Herman Melville's works, beginning with 'Typee' and its sequel 'Omoo.' Mr. Arthur Stedman prefixes to the first-named narrative a biographical sketch of the author, whose portrait also accompanies the same volume.

We have already noticed that portion of the "*Gentleman's Magazine* Library" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) which relates to English Topography. This series is compiled by George L. Gomme, and the second volume, recently issued, covers the notes relating to the counties of Cambridge, Cheshire, Cornwall, and Cumberland. Its 328 pages, however, do not contain anything very interesting; the only article of any literary merit being that on Morwenstow in Cornwall, written by its vicar, the late brilliant and eccentric poet, R. S. Hawker. As a supplement to a good gazetteer of England, these volumes have a certain value, though the contributions to the old *Gentleman's Magazine* were of course fragmentary and incomplete. The old engravings were the most valuable part, and these are omitted in the reprint. We should have preferred the illustrations without the text, if either was to be dropped.

The twelfth edition of Hoblyn's 'Dictionary of Terms Used in Medicine and the Collateral Sciences' (London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan) is chiefly, as the editor, Dr. Price, advertises in the preface, changed by way of additions, and among these he specifies the newer words and phrases relating to bacteriology (though we observe that *microbe* is not introduced), and the indication of the period in which celebrated physicians lived. Public opinion, it appears, has not sanctioned the reformatory attempt to substitute *k* for *c* as the equivalent of the Greek *k*, so the *kako-*, *kephal-*, and *kerato-* of the tenth edition have been restored to their place among the *c*'s. The Greek of the Dictionary, by the way, is not to be judged for its accuracy by the unfortunate κήλμ (for κήλη) which still disfigures the preface to the tenth edition, here repeated.

Although since the foundation of the Grolier Club in New York there are fewer writers who refer to the famous collector as though he were a binder—a blunder made by the London *Daily Telegraph* more than once—yet the facts of Grolier's life are little known. The standard book on the subject is M. Leroux de Lincy's 'Recherches,' published in Paris twenty-six years ago. Mr. W. L. Andrews has now prepared a brief biography, 'Jean Grolier de Servier, Viscount d'Aguisy. Some Account of his Life and of his famous Library.' This is a pleasantly but carelessly written booklet, of interest chiefly from its illustrations, some of them in colors, reproducing the Grolier bindings now in New York. These plates, prepared by Mr. Bierstadt's artotype process, are excellent, but it is to be regretted that they represent almost the same bindings as were admirably reproduced in the *Century*, two or three years ago, to illustrate an account of the Grolier Club. The typography of Mr. Andrews's little book is such as we expect from the DeVinne Press.

Prof. Charles Letourneau contributes to the Contemporary Science Series (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) a treatise entitled 'Property: Its Origin and Development.' He begins with an account of property among animals, and, following the institution down through savage and barbarous times, leaves it at the end of the feudal system. While he has shown great industry in collecting all sorts of information, much of which is not without interest, his work is wholly uncritical. The tales of all travellers are listened to by him with the credulity of an Herodotus, and it makes little difference whether they concern the institution of property or not. The whole of Plutarch's account of the legislation of Lycurgus is accepted as if it were the testimony of an eye-witness. Of course much that is cited by Prof. Letourneau is from trustworthy informants, but the book is not of a kind to be admitted into any really scientific series.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. publish a little volume, entitled 'Equitable Taxation,' which is made up of seven essays by different authors. The appearance of such a book indicates that the subject is attracting the attention of students, but we find nothing in these essays that shows any originality of thought; and they are too slight to contain many of the lessons of experience.

Of somewhat more importance is a book entitled 'Who Pays Your Taxes?' compiled by Mr. Bolton Hall, issued by the authority of the New York Tax Reform Association, and published by Putnams in their "Questions of the Day" series. Its chief interest lies in the fact that it shows the existence of an aggressive movement to abolish taxation of personal property and concentrate it upon real estate.

'English Social Reformers' is the title of a work by H. de B. Gibbins (London: Methuen & Co.) which reviews the life and deeds of a number of men who have sought to improve the condition of their fellows. The selection ranges from 'Piers the Plowman' to Carlyle and Ruskin. Its spirit may be judged from the statement that Lord Shaftesbury incurred "opprobrium, contempt, and misrepresentation from interested people like the late John Bright."

Social questions have aroused such intensity of feeling in England of late years that it is difficult for a foreigner to obtain information as to matters of fact that is not distorted by the prejudices of the informant. 'The Rural Exodus,' however, by P. Anderson Graham (London: Methuen & Co.), is an impartial discussion of the circumstances of the agricultural laborer in England, and, as it is based upon the personal observation of the author, continued through many years in most of the English shires, it is a really valuable contribution to our knowledge of a problem—the movement of population from the country to the towns—which is not less perplexing in the New World than in the Old.

The return of the cholera has brought down from the booksellers' shelves two works, both written in 1885 and both especially designed for professional readers. One, 'A Treatise on

Asiatic Cholera' (William Wood & Co.), edited and prepared by Dr. E. C. Wendt and others, is practically an encyclopædia of the history and, as far as known, of the cause, course, treatment, and prevention of the disease. It is too voluminous to assist in an emergency, and too professional, except in the historical division, to interest the inquisitive layman; but it well represents the state of knowledge seven years ago, and the student who masters it will have an easy task to acquire the small gain made since.

The other, 'A Treatise on Epidemic Cholera,' by Prof. A. B. Palmer, M.D., etc. (Ann Arbor, Michigan: *Register* Publishing House), goes over similar ground, but with the exclusion of much matter. The section on treatment, which is the vital one in both, is eminently wise and practical, and is based on an extensive personal experience which was manifestly guided by cool thought and energetic action. By virtue of what he has seen and done, this writer breathes into the subject a life that is unattainable by those whose descriptions come from the library and not from the bedside. The novice will find marked out a judicious course for all the sudden phases of this frightful and swift disease. The practitioner who has treated cholera will study with pleasure and advantage the career of so intelligent an observer under similar conditions.

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin has just published the twelfth octavo of its collections. This volume of five hundred pages opens with a memoir of Dr. Draper, who died a year ago after a long life dedicated to building up the Society, and who made it sole heir of his fortune. More than a hundred pages are filled with papers relating to the early Northwest, gleaned from Canadian archives. Papers of two early Indian agents, and a remarkable roster of employees in the service of the American Fur Company, are also here preserved. A specially noteworthy article is the journal of a commissioner sent by the Secretary of War as recently as 1830 into Wisconsin "to provide a country and a home there for 2,240 New York Indians among Menomonees and Winnebagoes." This was two years before the first land-sale in Chicago, and while it was still thought that the region beyond the lakes was too far off for agricultural settlement. Among other monographs are the story of the Black Hawk War, by Mr. Thwaites, Dr. Draper's successor; "Early Schools in Green Bay," the oldest town in the State; "How Wisconsin Came by its Large German Element"—a percentage larger than in any other State; and "The Planting of the Swiss Colony at New Glarus," by one of the first comers in 1845. The rise, progress, and influence of this unique establishment were set forth in the *Nation* as long ago as No. 944. There is also an article by a veteran missionary among the Chippewas, explaining the significance of geographical names in and near Wisconsin derived from the Chippewa dialect.

A. Lovell & Co. have begun bi-monthly publication of a series of "American History Leaflets, Colonial and Constitutional," edited by Profs. A. B. Hart and Edward Channing of Harvard. Four of these consist of the letter of Columbus to Santangel announcing his discovery, with an extract from his journal; the Ostend Manifesto of 1854; extracts from the sagas describing the voyages to Vinland; and extracts from official declarations of the United States embodying the Monroe Doctrine. These valuable little tracts, for which the editors bespeak suggestions as to subjects, are sold at five or ten cents each, or can be had by the year for thirty cents.

Mr. Roland Trimen, F.R.S., Curator of the South African Museum at Cape Town, makes his report to the Trustees for 1891, from which it appears that his time, together with that of the Assistant Curator, Mr. L. Péringuey, has been largely occupied with researches in South African entomology, which it is hoped will soon be published. Numerous and varied specimens have been acquired by the museum during the year, but insect pests are the source of much difficulty in the permanent preservation of the skins of the larger animals, of which the museum possesses a goodly representation. The unfortunate loss by theft of a number of valuable diamonds and nuggets is recorded. The museum is soon to receive an important acquisition, no less than a plaster cast of the skeleton of the great extinct reptile *Pariasaurus baini*, from the South African Karoo, discovered by Prof. H. G. Seeley, and now in the British Museum, whose Trustees have forwarded the cast to the exhibition now in progress at Kimberley, South Africa, on the conclusion of which the model is to be removed to Cape Town. The old museum building adjoining the Parliament House has long furnished quarters wholly unsuitable for its important collections, but the extension of the premises has hitherto been delayed by the unfavorable condition of the revenue, together with the prospect that the new museum might form part of the projected University Buildings. A further effort, however, is making to erect an independent institution at an early date.

In a recent number of the London *Times* a page is given to a facsimile reproduction of a leaf of the newly discovered papyrus of the Septuagint shown at the Oriental Congress held in that city. The whole manuscript consists of sixteen leaves, written on both sides, each about 10 inches by 7 inches, and is bound in a book form "in a primitive but very careful manner." It contains the greater part of Zechariah and parts of Malachi, the text differing somewhat from that used by the translators of our English Bible. Its age can only be conjectured, though the uncial characters in which it is written and the absence of divisions between the words indicate an antiquity as great as, if not greater than, that of the oldest manuscripts of the New Testament—that is, as early as the fourth century. Prof. Hechler of Vienna, in concluding his description of the papyrus, urged upon the British Government its "pressing duty" to institute an organized and scientific search for papyri in Egypt. "It was impossible to forecast what surprises might be in store for us, or what treasures might be placed at the disposal of modern scholarship."

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, issues three fine panel portraits, half life-size—one of the late George William Curtis and two front views of James Russell Lowell, between which there is considerable choice, though each is desirable as a memorandum. The series to which they belong is a notable one, as our readers are well aware.

—Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has just edited a convenient little volume containing those writings of Columbus which illustrate his discoveries (C. L. Webster & Co.). He makes use of English versions heretofore published, but he has not always selected the best, and new translations would have been an improvement in some cases. The editor's introduction is a curious specimen of hero-worship, through thick and thin. He acknowledges the truth of all the charges which have been brought against the Admiral for incontinency, desertion of wife, treachery, deceit, cruelty, oppression, craziness, and all else, but argues that any delineation of the personal character of a man of the fifteenth century which uncovers these qualities is a projection backward of the nineteenth, and is therefore "not critical." It seems to weigh nothing with him that the intellectual and moral mentors of all ages, civilized and even barbaric, have denounced these traits as unworthy of countenance. He seems to be unaware that there are no so severe defamers of the personal character of Columbus as those accusers of the Admiral, in respect to one and all of these characteristics, who should have been born, to suit Mr. Ford's views, in the nineteenth century, but who happened to see the light as contemporaries of the man they contemned.

—The latest fruit of the present revival of interest in the mysterious foundling of Nuremberg is Max Schütte's 'Kaspar Hauser: Das Rätsel ist nicht gelöst' (Hagen: Risel). The pamphlet is a reply to Baron von Artin's recently noticed brochure. As regards the enigma in question, Herr Schütte confesses at the outset that he has no solution to offer, and doubts whether it ever will be cleared up. He is inclined to regard Kaspar Hauser as a swindler, admits that he must have been a long time in close confinement, and assumes that he was a common jail-bird, forgetting that on this supposition there ought not to have been the slightest difficulty in ascertaining why and where he had been imprisoned. The most important proof adduced by Von Artin, namely, the letter of Grand-Duke Ludwig to Von Berstett, is passed over very lightly. Its genuineness is questioned on the ground that such documents have often been forged and people deceived thereby. Even if genuine, our author thinks it does not necessarily refer to Kaspar Hauser, but may have been called forth by "eine Attake auf ein Weib"; for "old Ludwig was a great sinner" and led a scandalous life. The Grand-Duke, although an inveterate libertine, is not known to have had any liaison in Nuremberg, nor is it customary for a sovereign, however shameless, to write to a minister of state beseeching him to see to it that the peace of the realm is not disturbed simply because he has failed in an intrigue with a woman. On the whole, Herr Schütte's arguments are so weak, and his interpretations of the facts so unsatisfactory, that they tend to confirm in the minds of his readers the theory which he endeavors to refute.

—Still another of the European universities has announced its decision that in the opportunity for university education and university degrees there shall be, as in religion, "neither male nor female." This time it is the University of Glasgow that speaks. During the past summer the Universities Commissioners have empowered the courts of the several Universities of Scotland to admit women to graduation in such faculty or faculties as each court may think fit, and to provide for the education of candidates either in mixed classes of men and women or in separate classes. Almost immediately after this ordinance was issued, an offer was made by the Council of Queen Margaret College to hand over to the University of Glasgow the government, the endowments present and prospective, and the buildings of the College—"the endowments and buildings to be reserved for the exclusive education of women, and the College to be-

come incorporated with the University as its department for women." The College, which, by the acceptance of this offer, has become an integral part of the University of Glasgow, began its existence in 1877 as an association for the higher education of women. In 1883, with the help and encouragement of some of the University professors who had been active in teaching and organizing, the Association incorporated itself as a college. In 1884, large and handsome buildings, about ten minutes' walk from the University, were bought for the College by Mrs. Elder. These buildings have, with the consent of the generous donor, now passed into the control of the Court and Senate of the University, and Queen Margaret College has, at a single step, passed over the ambiguous stage of "affiliation" into the unequivocal dignity of corporate membership.

—Dr. and Mrs. William Huggins of London have contributed to the Proceedings of the Royal Society during recent months a series of papers on that remarkable new star which the astronomers call Nova Aurigæ. This star's striking increase in magnitude of late renders it worthy of special note, and the spectroscopic observations and deductions will not be found of less interest. Throughout February and early March the star's light fluctuated continually, declining very slowly the while from easy naked-eye visibility at the 4½ magnitude down to the 6th magnitude, when the eye could just detect it. In the second week in March, the strange vibrations of light-intensity probably due to commotions attendant upon the cause of this stellar outburst, calmed down; and the star fell rapidly and regularly to the 11th magnitude, March 24, and then again down to the 14½ magnitude April 1, when a telescope of large dimension would have been required in order to see it at all. In this condition of inactivity it remained until August, when there was a sudden outburst which is reported to have carried it back to the 9th magnitude. Altogether, the fluctuations of its brightness have been apparently lawless, and the complex character of its spectrum has given rise to much discussion.

—We have no knowledge of the distance of Nova Aurigæ, but the assumption is not an improbable one that its distance was of the same order of greatness as that of the Nova of 1876, for which Sir Robert Ball failed to detect any parallax whatever. In this case the light emission so suddenly set up, certainly within two days and possibly within a few hours, was probably much greater than that of our sun; yet within fifty days after it had been discovered, at the end of January, its light had fallen to about one-three-hundredth part, and in some three months to nearly the one-ten-thousandth part. As long as the Nova's spectrum was observable, the chief lines remained without material alteration of relative brightness. Under what conditions could we suppose the sun to cool down sufficiently for its light to decrease to a similar extent in so short a time, and without the oncoming of material changes in its spectrum? It seems scarcely conceivable that such phenomena can be due to the conversion of gravitational energy (*e.g.*, from collision with bodies already possessed of considerable motion) into light and heat. The hypothesis of prodigious tidal disturbances caused by a near approach without collision, on the other hand, appears to explain the facts so well that Dr. Huggins is disposed to abandon the view advanced by Dr. Miller and himself, in the case of the Nova of 1866, that possibly chemical actions between the erupted gases and the outer atmosphere of the star may have contributed to its sudden and transient splendor—a view not at all impossible, but rendered less probable by the advance of our knowledge of the light-changes of stars.

—An official report has been published in the Pekin *Gazette* of the investigation ordered by the Chinese Government in respect to the anti-foreign literature which was the chief incitement to the recent massacres. This consisted of leaflets, pamphlets, placards, ballads, and pictures, many of them horribly indecent, which were circulated by millions in the interior of the empire. Their authorship was traced to one Chou Han, a high official in the Province of Hunan, and it was to secure his punishment that the investigation was made at the urgent demand of the foreign representatives in Pekin. The report is singularly characteristic of the Chinese. It alleges that Chou Han was not the writer of the placards, but that his name was used as that of a person in high position, in order to attract more attention; furthermore, that he is a madman, who has "spiritualistic fancies, being a great believer in divination by the planchette," and that he has disappeared, It is proposed, nevertheless, that, although innocent of the charge, he should be temporarily cashiered and kept at home under surveillance for enabling his name to be used for bad purposes through his conduct. The punishment of two booksellers, by a flogging of eighty blows and three months' wooden collars, is recommended, as well as that a strict search should be instituted for the real authors of the placards. The main purpose of the report, which at the end affirms the freedom of any to become Christians, is apparently to shield Chou Han and to defeat the foreign ministers. In regard to the accusations made in these publications against Europeans of murder and mutilation, Dr. Macgowan, long a resident in the country, has published a statement to show that from the point of view of Chinese medicine they are far from preposterous. He refers to a Materia Medica, "the only authoritative work of the kind in the Chinese language, which gives 37 anthropophagous remedies of native medicine." Among other things, "human muscles are supposed to be a good medicament in consumption, and cases are constantly recorded of children who mutilate themselves to administer their flesh to sick parents." It is essential in all these cases that the recipient should be kept in profound ignorance of the nature of the potion administered, and in no case is the mutilation to be performed for an inferior, "as by a husband for a wife, or a parent for a child." This method of treating diseases is apparently on the increase, far more than is indicated by the occasional imperial decrees authorizing honorary portals to be erected in honor of men, and particularly of women, for these flesh offerings, as only the higher classes can obtain such a distinction.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Spoil of Office: A Story of the Modern West. By Hamlin Garland. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.

A Little Norsk, or Ol' Pap's Flaxen. By Hamlin Garland. D. Appleton & Co.

Silhouettes of American Life. By Rebecca Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Naulahka: A Story of West and East. By Rudyard Kipling and Wolcott Balestier. Macmillan & Co.

The Average Woman. By Wolcott Balestier. With a preface by Henry James. U. S. Book Co.

The Wrecker. By R. L. Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Beggars All. By L. Dougall. Longmans, Green & Co.

Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon: A Manx Yarn. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

THE flavor of the soil which Mr. Garland unquestionably succeeds in giving to his stories of Western life is so palpably due to the bludgeon-like quality of his realism that what little charm might be got from the commonplace histories of his Bradley Talcotts and Bert Gearhearts is entirely lost. Neither his story of 'A Little Norsk,' which, under the name of its sub-title, 'Ol' Pap's Flaxen,' has lately ended as a serial in the *Century*, nor 'A Spoil of Office,' is deeply interesting. There is a directness about the telling, however, and an evidence in them that they are true to the facts as the author has seen them, which makes them readable. But being true to facts is not, necessarily, being true to nature. Facts do not make art, nor do they make literature; and if the novelist—who, in telling a story which is a fiction, acknowledges to a certain extent this truism—insists upon furnishing that story with but a setting of bare facts, he must not be disappointed if even their completeness and accuracy fail to entitle his work to be called literature. One notices, too, a certain carelessness in Mr. Garland's workmanship which might lead one to distrust the accuracy of his observations without shaking one's faith in his honesty. And, on the whole, if a book does not show genius, perhaps honesty is the next best thing.

Mrs. Davis has gathered, under the suggestive title, 'Silhouettes of American Life,' a baker's dozen of short stories—sketches rather—which, in spite of their lightness, their briefness both of matter and interest, are worth the reading. The great poets, as Lowell says, have found man more interesting than nature; have considered nature as no more than the necessary scenery, artistically harmful if too pompous or obtrusive, before which man acts his tragi-comedy of life. And so, as extremes meet, the average reader usually finds his liking following in similar lines. Long and labored descriptions bore him, or, more often, merely serve as an opportunity for indulging in the art of skipping. Mrs. Davis is always ready to place her mountains and her woods in due prominence, and is evidently a lover of the out-door world; but it is the human interest, after all, which is first with her and which gives the best value to her work. It helps to make the tales natural as well; for in a short story which has a genuine bit of human interest to start with, there is no need for striving after effects, either scenic or dramatic. "A Wayside Episode" is perhaps the poorest, because the most artificial, of the collection. The situation seems impossible, and that is enough to spoil it, even had the incidents actually happened. Among the rest, where there is such an even range of excellence, it would be hard to pick.

After a somewhat lengthy preamble, the key-note of 'The Naulahka' is struck sharply, in the sentence—"So, leaving strife and desolation behind him, rode out into the desert of Rajputana Nicholas Tarvin of Topaz, Colorado." Imagination instantly prefigures the intended contrast of newness and freedom with age and acquiescent servitude, and warms to the coming combat between the West and East—Nich-

olas Tarvin against all India. But very soon it becomes clear that there is something wrong with 'The Naulahka,' that its fine promise is not being sustained, and that both faith and hope are to be severely tried in following Tarvin's quest for the necklace worth an exceptionally good king's ransom, supposed to be lying about in the Province of Gokral Seetarum, Rajputana, India. Chapter after chapter of dull talk and incidents irrelevant to the chief situation tempts the hasty judgment that Mr. Kipling has written himself and India out, and that the time has come for him to rest awhile on his laurels. It is natural that he should have to shoulder the onus of failure, for his collaborator was unknown to the public, and, besides, died before the completion of the book. Yet, confronted by the inferiority of 'The Naulahka' to his previously published work, it would be unfair not to take for granted a heavy handicap either in the effort to collaborate, from the beginning, in the loss of Mr. Balestier, or both.

Mr. Kipling's vivid, hit-or-miss style flashes out only at rare intervals in a short dialogue or phrase; it is never sustained through a long scene or description. His amusing, cocksure dicta are noticeably scarce, and, in the untidy "make-up," there is no hint that his natural method is almost rudely direct. Mr. Balestier was probably responsible for Tarvin in the beginning, when that strange mortal shows that he possesses in excess the initiative force attributed to him. His development may have been left on Mr. Kipling's hands and proved too much for him. Certain it is that, after reaching the city of Rhatore, Tarvin does nothing beyond seizing flagrantly favorable opportunities, either to find the necklace or to win his sweetheart away from devotion to the oppressed women of India. He wastes his time in dancing before the King, who is consumed with mirth beholding his antics, and whose translators confess themselves baffled by Tarvin Sahib's phrases. Well they may be, for his talk has generally the air of a compilation from a dictionary of American slang which has been arranged and explained by an Englishman. His manners make a wild caricature of the free-and-easy ways of the West, and, for the figure of a romantic adventurer, he has no qualification except physical courage.

The probable future of Kate, with her mania for morality, after she has intrusted herself to such a conscienceless monkey, is a dark subject for speculation. Kate's experiments in civilizing India form the moral of the tale. Mr. Kipling of course could not permit anything but defeat to come to a slip of a girl arraying her frail enthusiasms against "thousands of years of tradition and training and habits of life." Nevertheless, girls in their generous, ignorant youth will probably continue to wage unequal war against the devil, and may at last cause him some discomfort in even so inaccessible a fastness as an Eastern harem.

Mr. Balestier's three short stories of Western American life, published under the title, 'The Average Woman,' show greater ability and promise than anything in 'The Naulahka' that may be with probability attributed to him. Each incident is well chosen to display some of the apparent irrelevancies and queer contradictions of human character, and the interest is closely confined to one issue. It is doubtful whether the women justify the pretension implied by the title to a profound and exhaustive study of that sex which, if it may include such a savage bully as "Reffey," can be called the "gentler" one only by a painful deference to convention. A clever young man easily makes the mistake of supposing that he could have given Solomon points about women, and Mr. Balestier seems to have been slightly in thrall to that delusion. Berna, the heroine of "Captain, My Captain!" and the lady who, in "A Common Story," confides the sting and sorrow of unrequited love, are typical of classes of women whose intelligence is not dazzling; but "Reffey" is that flashy, noisy creature, spectacular and infinitely vicious, whom theatrical people have in mind when they talk about a strong creation. Mr. James's prefatory essay is only a tribute to friendship. His sincere admiration and affection for Mr. Balestier are not expressed with his customary literary fluency and grace, but he makes us feel all the more, perhaps, that the world is the poorer through the loss of his friend.

It is an excellent rule for a novel-writer to sustain the facts bearing on his case, no matter what the cost in repression of great ideas. A rigid observance of the rule will not make his novel more like the whole of any life, most of whose incidents are totally irrelevant to the main facts, but it will make more satisfactory and agreeable reading, besides what we call, perhaps for want of a more definite phrase, a better work of art. As there are occasional people born with such a store of vitality that they continue to live exultantly, almost for ever, in insolent defiance of every rule laid down by the wise for the preservation of health, so there are, though even more rarely, people born with such an astounding literary gift that they can afford to fling to the winds the best of rules and every conceivable theory of art. Of these *were* Sir Walter and Victor Hugo and Thackeray, and of these (*pace*, idolaters of the splendid past!) *is* the author of 'The Wrecker.' 'The Wrecker,' it is true, owns two authors, but, however valuable Mr. Osbourne's collaboration may have been, the long yarn as it is spun in print is Mr. Stevenson's. It is a curious fact, and not specially comforting to Mr. Kipling, that the very same faults which irritate and exasperate the reader of 'The Naulahka' appear in aggravated form in 'The Wrecker,' where their effect is to inspire deep and lasting joy. The first shift of the scene, from the Marquesas to the "Muskegon Commercial Academy," rudely shocks the sense for literary propriety; but, at this point, the office of literary critic is promptly vacated by a person of feelings and given over to Dryasdust, with his *flair* for faulty articulation. We pass from Muskegon to the Latin Quarter in Paris, back to San Francisco by way of Uncle Adam's respectable household in Edinburgh, and have recovered from the agitating auction of the *Flying Scud* before we reflect that we have been invited to read the tale of a wrecker, and have only now, after two hundred pages, got fairly on his trail.

The extraordinary bidding for the wreck on Midway Island is the first hint that we are approaching the knot of the story, and, when the wreckers have inspected their purchase, driven hard over a coral reef and stuck head down in the sand, we perceive that the knot is a very tight one. Leisurely and rambling is the process of untying, dooming to hopeless confusion the mind that insists on placing the hero of each startling adventure and attaching him definitely to the *Nora Creina*, or the *Flying Scud*, or the *Currency Lass*. The author's skill in investing whatever he chooses to tell with absorbing interest is more noticeable in the last half of the book even than in the first, for the consciousness that there is a mystery of abysmal depths naturally rouses an intolerance of digressions. Here the only digression which is not diverting is the account of the journey undertaken by Dodd and the shyster, Bellairs, to find Carthew, the man who could tell all if he would. A great many men of widely different nature and character appear in the story (there is no woman worth mentioning), and this Bellairs is the only unreal one among them. Pinkerton shows exaggeration and a superficial acquaintance with the model, yet he is, on the whole, impressively real. But Bellairs is a tiresome wretch, no more like any one you might happen to meet than are Uriah Heep and similarly objectionable persons. Dodd could have found Carthew quite easily without Bellairs, and he was of no sort of use in forcing Carthew's hand. Carthew parts with his secret perhaps a trifle too readily, but the temptation to tell his wonderful tale once in a while must have been irresistible. In his climax he positively revels in carnage and drenches all hands with gore. But supposing that mercy had been shown to the crew of the *Flying Scud*, and that even Brown had not "gone the same way," what would have become of Carthew and the rest of the mild-mannered castaways? In such a desperate strait there was only one way out—the way which the author foresaw when he contrived the situation. There is no doubt that, for a person of uniformly gentle sentiment, Mr. Stevenson takes a strange delight in a fight to the death, and that he would not experience a qualm at the sight of the whole Pacific turned red with human blood.

The author of 'Beggars All' has done three rather difficult things well: she has so deeply considered and clearly expressed one character that his highly improbable crime loses most of its improbability and all of its sensationalism; she has shown how a group of perfectly commonplace women may be charming in every relation of life; and she has proved that broad views about life are not incompatible with rigid religious orthodoxy. Hubert Kent's history illustrates some of the worst results of modern philanthropy, applied to the upbringing of nobody's children. It is not a condemnation of philanthropic effort, but a shrewd and instructed criticism, pointing out that nobody's child, even as somebody's, may have an individuality, and that better results might be obtained through some slight recognition of that possibility by those in authority in orphan asylums and other receptacles for superfluous children. Kent's intelligence raised him socially above his wretched beginnings, but his scant native morality was reduced or distorted by the system of the Croom Orphanage, out of which he issued with only one idea, a cynical belief in his right to get a share of power and luxury in the quickest and easiest way. The means he adopted make the story; and though the author carefully avoids comment on his arguments in his own favor, she can never be taken to believe them sound or exculpatory. Her feeling and judgment are expressed through the women who become closely involved in Kent's life, and are therefore the great sufferers from his crimes. Through the women, too, her religious faith is developed, and her position maintained that we are beggars all for human love and still more for God's help and mercy. The author's method and style are remarkably good and distinctly modern. Though she has been hitherto unknown, at least in America, she has the practised touch. Her unadorned, strong phrases reflect a clear intelligence and

a thorough appreciation of what is now demanded of those who would make themselves felt in literature.

Mr. Hall Caine's story, 'Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon,' echoes a favorite device of the Elizabethan and Restoration comedy. A silly quarrel between man and wife is adjusted by the intervention of a friend of each working in collusion. In the old dramas, not excluding Shakspere's, there is something artificial and mechanical about this stratagem which jars on modern sense for reality. It is a wholly objectionable situation in comedy unhallowed by age and the tradition of respect. Mr. Caine's use of it results in a particularly uninteresting and wooden performance. To believe in the story for a moment, you have also to believe that Capt'n Davy and his wife were utter idiots, and then ensues indignation at being supposed willing to occupy yourself with their idiocy. Everybody knows that there are Manx cats—grotesque and abnormal pussies, but still pussies. Perhaps Capt'n Davy is a real Manx man—few are in a position absolutely to deny it, with proof; but all who read the story of his honeymoon may perceive that he is a departure from the normal type, and that his points of difference make him no less absurd an animal than is his compatriot cat. What has become of Mr. Caine's literary discretion? Has he lost it in his wanderings among the pictorial heathen, or is he really unconscious of anything ridiculous in filling the mouth of a more or less drunken Manx sailor with the poetic phrase of the flowery-tongued East?

HARRISSE'S DISCOVERY OF NORTH AMERICA.—II.

The Discovery of North America, etc. By Henry Harrisse. London: H. Stevens & Son. 1892.

We come now to Vespucius and the disputed voyage of 1497, in which Mr. Fiske has revived interest by the energetic way in which he has reënforced the Varnhagen theory of its authenticity, and his disdainful references to the opponents of that belief. He has depended largely upon what Harrisse had done in his earlier work on the Cortereals in relation to the Cantino map to substantiate the earlier efforts of Varnhagen. Harrisse at that time acknowledged that we must look to the voyage of 1497 as the source in large part of the delineation of the coast which corresponds to Florida in that early map which has become closely associated with Harrisse's name, though he was not the first to make it known. "The evidence set forth in connection with the Cantino map," says Mr. Fiske in his preface, "is especially significant." But Harrisse, in the present work, has quite as significantly, in vulgar parlance, "gone back on him"; for he devotes a special chapter to show why we need not resort to the Vespucian voyage to find a source for the Cantino Florida. It may be remarked, in passing, that Mr. Markham has within a month claimed that this coast is not Florida at all, except in the minds of those "who are not used to the examination of maps," but that it is merely some American coast which the maker of the map borrowed inexpertly from the cards of the Cortereals, as showing some part of their discoveries. In his list of voyages Harrisse mentions the Vespucian one of 1497, but doubts its authenticity, and while he is evidently inclined to avoid explicit denial, he leaves the matter, in his biographical sketch of Vespucius, just as many others have left it, a chronological puzzle. This is the dilemma as Harrisse puts it: Vespucius returned in October, 1498, as the Italian text of his letter avers, or in October, 1499, as the Latin text says. Harrisse accepts the latter date, for not very evident reasons. If 1499 was the year, Vespucius could not have started on a second voyage in the previous May, as he says he did. Moreover, good testimony says that Vespucius started on a voyage with Ojeda in the summer of 1499, so that he could hardly have done this and have got home from his first voyage in the following October. So the puzzle stands in Harrisse's figuring. Humboldt saw the difficulty, and preferred to think the dates were wrong rather than impugn Vespucius's integrity.

We now need to take up a few points of the controversy in detail. As respects the alibi which Navarrete, Muñoz, Humboldt, and very recently Markham claim to make out for Vespucius, and the evidence for which is discarded by Varnhagen and Fiske, Harrisse says that a careful search of the records in the Casa de Contratacion fails to establish it, for there is no trace of the Florentine navigator in the Spanish archives between January, 1496, and May, 1499; so that on present evidence, if Harrisse's search is not at fault, no alibi can be made out against the voyage. To account for the Floridian coast in the Cantino map, the judgment of Harrisse, revised since he published his 'Cortereals,' allows evidence enough to warrant the belief that numerous explorers had already been along this coast. Some of them were under the authority which Ferdinand and Isabella began to give on April 10, 1495, in defiance of Columbus's exclusive privileges; others were under patents granted by Henry VII. of England to English and Portuguese adventurers; and still others were the Normans and Bretons, who are reported as early as 1500 bringing home dyewood and monkeys from the American tropics, and of whom DeGonneville speaks in 1505 as mariners of Dieppe and St. Malo who "for some years past" have been in the habit of going to these regions. Therefore Harrisse's present decision is that these voyages are independent sources, which might have inspired the Cantino Florida without help from Vespucius. Again, Vespucius says he kept in sight of land all the way. If he did and his data were used in the Cantino map, why do we have gaps in the coast line of the Gulf of Mexico? It is only in the Stobnicza and Waldseemüller maps that we find such a continuity, and not in the Cantino nor in the Canerio map—to which Harrisse now introduces us, as being of but a little later date than the Cantino. It may be added that the Ruysch map and the Schöner globes have the same lack of continuity. Harrisse is of the opinion that Vespucius must have seen and approved the Cantino map, showing this break where he professed to know there was none. Further, there is no indisputable evidence that the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico was coursed by any one before the Spaniards followed it in 1519.

Mr. Fiske makes a great deal of a rather curious typo-topographical discrepancy instanced first by Varnhagen, to which he constantly reverts, to show that so small a cause was at the bottom in large part of the discredit which has been heaped upon this voyage. The Italian text of Vespucius's letter gives "Lariab" as the place of his observations on the western coast of the Gulf of Mexico. The Latin text printed at St. Dié by the geographer of that cosmographical centre gives "Parias." Here is apparently bad proof-reading somewhere, either in one text or the other, and Mr. Fiske assumes it to be in the Latin text, because that was the text better known, and could more widely influence opinion by making it appear that Vespucius claimed to have been in the Gulf of Paria (Parias) in 1497, when everybody knew that Columbus had first visited those waters in 1498. Mr. Fiske prefers to account thus for the opprobrium under which Vespucius rests with most critics, rather than to strengthen the Varnhagen theory by ascribing the bad proof-reading to the Italian text—a mongrel Italian rendering, that had no critical editing. It is known that Columbus endeavored to prevent his way of reaching the Gulf of Paria from being known; but the track he had marked on a map sent back to Spain was disclosed by unfriendly authority to Ojeda. There is no evidence, however, that it was generally known, and the contemporary writers and cartographers were so much at a loss about the position of Paria that a school of learned students attached it to just that place where Vespucius claims to have been, and which there is quite as good reason for believing he called "Parias" as that he called it "Lariab." The similarity of the names, Parias and Paria, would easily have further misled the map-makers if they desired to locate the visit of Columbus in 1498. Even such a calumniator of Vespucius as Mr. Fiske would deem Herrera to be, seems to have perpetuated the error at a later day, when he says that before 1505 many voyagers had coursed the continent lying "towards the north" from Labrador to Paria. The fact is, that this Parias region on the Gulf of Mexico was recognized by certain cartographers for some time afterwards. We find it in the Hauslab gores of 1513-15, in the Schöner globes of 1515 and 1520; and it is noteworthy that in elucidation of his globe, wherein Parias is made a part of the northern continent, Schöner says in his 'Luculentissima Descriptio' that Parias is "a large *special* portion of the earth in that fourth part of the world." We find it again in the same region in the Nordenskiöld gores of 1517-18; in the Apianus map of 1520; in the Ptolemy of 1522; and in the MS. map of Glareanus in the University library at Munich which Harrisse assigns to 1528. It is also on the northern continent in the same way in several maps of an original portolano of that century which is in the Carter-Brown library in Providence.

We must here indulge in a little counter hypothesis to offset Mr. Fiske's assumption that the printed Italian text preceded the St.-Dié text, for his arguments do not wholly satisfy us against the opinion of Major and others, and his further belief that the printed Italian text was the one used by Giocondo in Paris in making the French version from which the St.-Dié translator prepared the Latin text of 1507. Waldseemüller does not tell us that the Italian text used was the printed one, and there is not the slightest evidence to show that it was. On the whole, it seems probable, in view of all the circumstances and the family acquaintance of Giocondo with Vespucius, that this Italian architect in Paris had instead a manuscript copy of Vespucius's letter, and in that event there is no evidence that he had the word "Lariab" before him at all. This is a point which we find, as we are writing it, that Mr. Markham has also made. Lariab is an unknown name. Harrisse, in the present volume, gives a copious list of all the geographical names which he has found in the early narratives and maps, and he encounters the name of Lariab nowhere else.

It may be added that Markham, the President of the Hakluyt Society and a geographer of high reputation, has just (September,

1892) reëxamined the problem, and unreservedly places himself among those whom Mr. Fiske calls the critics of "mingled dulness and flippancy," who reject the Varnhagen theory. Mr. Markham probably too confidently accepts the alibi theory; but to sustain his denial of the voyage, he says the courses and distances given by Vespucius would have taken him to British Columbia—an error too great to be accounted for by a false reckoning, which is honest. Further he contends, as others have done, that the close counterparting of Ojeda's voyage of 1499 in the Vespucian details is very suspicious. Varnhagen failed to account for this and Fiske ignores it, as he does other proofs against the voyage.

There is one point more. Las Casas has asserted, Herrera and others following, that Pinzon and Solis in 1506 discovered the Honduras coast, prompted to the act by the results of Columbus's fourth voyage. There being no mention besides his own that Vespucius made this 1497 voyage, supporters of it are forced to find some expedition of that year in which he might have sailed in a subordinate capacity. Such a voyage Varnhagen has found in this alleged voyage of 1506, but as the date is in the way, they carry it back to 1497, by connecting it with the second rather than with the fourth voyage of Columbus. Harrisse says there is no evidence of any such voyage, either in 1497 or in 1506, and makes the rather rash assertion that *all* historians have followed Las Casas in assigning it to 1506. He does find proof, however, that it took place in 1508-9, and that the track was eastward from Honduras, instead of westward, citing Navarrete and Ferdinand Columbus in the 'Historie,' which citation gives rather more credit to this last book than Harrisse has been heretofore inclined to bestow upon it. Markham has recently undertaken to show that the Pinzon voyage was really in 1506, as one of his arguments to confront the Varnhagen claim that it took place in 1497.

There is no one of his averments upon which Harrisse lays more stress than upon the very early conception that some continental land had been found which was not Asia. The question is how long a belief in the neighboring coast being Asia lasted when, in the conception of navigators and map-makers, its lines began to be disentangled from the shores of Asia which Marco Polo had described. As was natural, some geographers went ahead of demonstration and some held back. It seems pretty evident that in La Cosa (1500) and in Ruysch (1508) the newly discovered lands were insular or uncertain appendages of Asia. Between 1501 and 1503 the cartographical idea began to develop that there was a chance of the new regions of continental proportions being independent of Asia, but with more or less uncertainty attached, as shown in cut-offs by the edge of the map or in overlying latitudinal scales. We can trace this growth through numerous maps like the Cantino, Canerio, Sylvanus, Waldseemüller, Boulenger or Tross gores, Reisch, the Ptolemy of 1522, Maiolo, and (even beyond the reaction initiated by Franciscus Monarchus) in Bordone and others. Emancipated from this uncertainty and with much bolder drafting of a new continent, we find a series of maps, beginning ten years later and exemplified in the Stobnicza (1512) map, and supported later in the Portuguese chart of the Pacific (1513), the Lenox globe, the alleged Da Vinci map, the Nordenskiöld gores, the Hauslab globe, the globes of Schöner and the Archipelago of Coppo (1528). We might come down farther. This is about the variety of view and corresponding data that circumspect historians have long recognized. With such conditions no critical student of these earlier days can dare to say with confidence that at any time there had been a general belief one way or the other. Nevertheless, Varnhagen contends that in 1497 Vespucius believed he had found a new continent—a belief in which Fiske does not follow him, for he represents that nobody so late as 1504, and after the Cantino and Canerio (first described in the bulletin of the Geographical Society at Lyons in 1890) maps had been made, believed that any continent had been found but Asia. Henry Stevens claimed that what passes for a new continent in the Cantino map (1502) was but a "bogus Cuba," and that the rudimentary Gulf of Mexico, as others see it in the Ptolemy map of 1513, was the Gulf of Ganges.

But Harrisse would go back even of the Cantino map for the first indication of a belief in a new continent distinct from Asia. He cites the authority given, July 20, 1500, to Mendoza to go west with four ships to discover islands and *continent*, and he is even inclined to think that La Cosa did not intend to recall the Asiatic coast by the continental land west and northwest of the West Indies. He contends that the natural geographical instinct of the time imagined the new land to have a coast which went in a rude way parallel to that of Asia, just as we find later that South America towards the pole is given an apex because Africa had one. He also says that the Spanish Government by 1501 had adopted some such notions, and thinks they prevailed in official circles in Portugal and England. We cannot allow that Harrisse's demonstration satisfies us in assigning so early a date to the birth of the continental idea. Nor can we accept his belief that Columbus in his last voyage knew that he was not on the coast of Asia, simply because he was in search of a strait, for it does not necessarily follow because he had not found all that Marco Polo pictured of Asia, that there might not be contiguous parts of that continent which barred his way to Cathay.

We had hoped that Harrisse would have found something more imposing than the insignificant little map of Franciscus Monarchus to form a cardinal point in the reaction which set in about 1526 to make North America and Asia one and the same, for as early as 1514 there were indications of it in the Portuguese portolano of that year, which bears Mahometan flags on the Atlantic Coast, and in the map of Ayllon's explorations about the Carolina shore in 1520, which depicts a Chinaman and elephants on the Atlantic watershed. Franciscus says he was induced to adopt this Asiatic view by the reports of Cortes's first expedition. Before we saw the facsimile of the Franciscus map here given by Harrisse, we had depended on the modern sketch of it given by Lelewel, for the little 'De Orbis Situ' which contains the map is very rare. There is good reason for believing, as Harrisse points out, that the lost globe of Schöner dated 1523 (in which he departed from the configuration so familiar in his globes of 1515 and 1520) had given just such a blending of Asia and America as Franciscus portrayed three years later, for Harrisse somewhat gloatingly discards, as Nordenskiöld has done, the gores which Henry Stevens and C. H. Coote have put forth as that missing globe. It is curious that Schöner's reasons for the reaction are quite different from those acknowledged by Franciscus, for he says that it was the results of Magellan's voyage which induced him to revise his opinions. It is further striking that one of our informants about that Magellanic voyage, Maximilianus Transylvanus, drew just the opposite conclusions, as Franciscus lets us know.

Schöner's globe of 1533, which reënforces his new views, is given in the present work in facsimile, as well as two other globes which we have not seen depicted before; and both support Schöner's new theory. One is the De Bure, or *Globe doré*, of about 1528, preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, which is apparently of German origin; and the other is a wooden globe in the same collection, found about ten or eleven years ago in Italy and supposed to have been made in 1535. The Finæus maps of 1531 and 1536 are perhaps the best known of this group of maps, which consists of a large number of examples coming down quite to the beginning of the seventeenth century; but after Mercator's time the notion began to fade. Students have only recently been placed under obligations to a Berlin society which has caused the great Mercator map of 1569 to be reproduced of the original size. This is only another instance of the way in which American scholars have of late years been put more nearly on a par for facilities in these studies with European students. The great Ribero map of the Propaganda (1529) has recently been made accessible. Harrisse has given us an admirable full-size reproduction of the Cantino map. Photography has placed the great Cabot mappemonde in ten of our principal American libraries. We are expecting to receive before long from Madrid an undiminished reproduction of the great oxhide map of La Cosa, which the present writer saw in 1853 at a Paris sale, when it was knocked down to an agent of the Queen of Spain.

We need not say anything of the atlases of Kohl, Kunstmann, Santarem, Jomard, and Nordenskiöld, which are indispensable in these cartographical studies, or of the various reproductions of a smaller size, which have frequently been made in this country and in Europe, several of which besides those already mentioned will be found in the work under review. Such is the great map at Turin and the polar-projected map of Juan Vespucius. Another new map here given is one illustrating the march of De Soto through our Southern States, and it will very likely go a good way in solving the problem which Dr. Scaife of the Johns Hopkins University has lately been discussing, as to whether the Rio del Spiritu Santo of the early maps was really our Mississippi. The American student owes much to the good work which Dr. Kohl did in making that collection of copies of the older maps which is now preserved at Washington, though, from the general advance in these studies and the increase of published reproductions, the collection has lost something of its value. In original maps of the earlier period our libraries are very deficient. We do not know of a single one of importance, and the portolano of about 1550—very likely by Baptista Agnese, or of his school—which was acquired in 1885 by the Carter-Brown Library at Providence, is the only atlas of the kind in this country which has come to our knowledge.

One more point and we have finished, having said but a small part of what the present book deserves. When the Mercator map of 1541 was first reproduced by the Royal Library at Brussels, it was thought to be unique, but five copies are now known. It has given rise to the opinion, which has been widely accepted, that it was the first map in which the name America, so long applied to the Southern

Continent, was made to cover also the North American regions. Harrisse now brings to notice a wooden globe, with manuscript delineations, which was brought from Venice to the great library at Paris in 1879, and which from the calligraphy he places in the first quarter of the sixteenth century. This test, in view of the archaic tendencies of some scribes, is not always trustworthy; but the interesting fact is that this globe bears the word America on the Northern as well as on the Southern Continents, and may thus be a still earlier instance of such a comprehensive application. The fact, however, remains, that the published globe of Mercator, in 1541, earliest influenced popular opinion in making America to mean the entire New World, instead of a part of it.

DARWIN EXPOUNDED BY ROMANES.

Darwin and After Darwin. I. The Darwinian Theory. By George John Romanes. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co. 1892.

THERE was probably no one better fitted than Mr. Romanes to undertake a popular work such as this upon the Darwinian and post-Darwinian periods in the history of the evolution theory. The volume before us is mainly devoted to Natural Selection. The later period will be treated in a second volume covering the modern problems of Heredity, the controversy raised by Weismann's brilliant essays, and the discussion of the recent revival of the views of Lamarck by the American and English "Neo-Lamarckians." In these ten chapters upon the earlier period, closing with 1882, the year of Darwin's death, the author sustains his well-established reputation as a philosophical biologist; and although there is comparatively little controversial matter to be handled, he is in the main both fair and clear. The book shows these qualities in the author's attitude towards theism, in his very decided opposition to those who would make Darwin's "natural selection" the sole factor in organic evolution, and especially, throughout all the earlier chapters, in the temperate and convincing manner in which a running contrast is maintained between the inadequacy of the "special-creation hypothesis" and the adequacy of the "evolution hypothesis" in rendering organic creation intelligible and purposeful. He clearly establishes the new teleology.

A discussion of the truth of the evolution theory now appears somewhat superfluous, but it belongs very properly to a work upon the Darwinian period, and the author has wisely thought it best not to ignore certain classes in France and Germany, and a surprisingly large number in some sections of this country, who are still unconverted. (The work is already being translated into French and German.) In the earlier chapters he therefore carefully restates all the familiar proofs of evolution from classification, comparative anatomy, embryology, palæontology, and the distribution of animals and plants. Many recent discoveries unknown to Darwin are also brought forward. One charm of this part of the book is the wealth of original illustration, the author rightly claiming in the preface that figures are often more convincing than language. These are particularly novel in the section upon man, where numerous woodcuts illustrate the very amusing vestiges of arboreal habits in the feet and hands of infants—showing that every nursery may become a centre of scientific research. The section upon "Artificial Selection" is also cleverly illustrated with the remarkable extremes of type produced by breeding and domestication. In palæontology the choice is not quite as good, and we notice as a minor error that Scott's deer-skull series (fig. 88) is credited to Heilprin. All this historical section is in fact admirably done, and cannot fail to be attractive and valuable "as a merely educational exposition of Darwinian teaching." We trust it will carry the general reader into the more serious pages of volume ii.

The general reader, however, above all others, is entitled to a full exposition of Darwin's most mature opinions, and not merely of his "selection theory." We cannot find that at any point Mr. Romanes clearly brings out the great revolution in Darwin's ideas unfolded in his 'Animals and Plants under Domestication' (1875). The gist of chapter 24, vol. ii., of this work is that evolution has been by Natural Selection, *aided in an important manner by the inherited effects of use and disuse.* This committed Darwin to the very Lamarckian theory which had been wholly rejected by him in 1858. Moreover, the author (p. 255) appears to share the inability, which seems to be constitutional among English writers, to distinguish between the relative merits of Buffon, Erasmus Darwin, and Lamarck, as to the introduction of the theory which now bears the name of Lamarck. Upon strict laws of priority, the credit belongs not to the elder Darwin, as the author intimates, but to Buffon, as recently shown by M. Lanessan in the *Revue Scientifique.* The facts are, that Buffon largely originated these Lamarckian ideas, but he recanted or "hedged" as an evolutionist under ecclesiastical pressure. Erasmus Darwin later expanded the ideas of this distinguished zoölogist in a suggestive but very tentative manner. Lamarck formulated them into a definite theory of the causes of evolution, and boldly combated the special-creationists through a long period of social and scientific ostracism, ending in his death. With the others, the theory was a matter of passing speculation, with him it was a profound conviction; his name, therefore, should stand.

The four closing chapters of the book include a very clear account of the nature and limits of the powers of natural and sexual selection, and a reconsideration of the older and newer criticisms. Here the author takes the position, which has exposed him to much assault in England, that, after his prolonged studies, he is *par excellence* the interpreter of Darwin's actual views, and that others who have made the subject less of a direct study have misunderstood and misstated the great naturalist. There is much truth in this; one recalls some of Lankester's letters in *Nature* as cases in point. On p. 276 he expands the perfectly legitimate distinction that natural selection is primarily a theory of the origin of adaptations, and thus, secondarily, explains the origin of the species which present them. He considers selection as having passed the theoretic stage; hereafter it is to be ranked as one of the natural causes of evolution. This opinion is supported by a complete résumé of all the strongest arguments for the survival of the fittest adaptations, and we are brought up to date with the recent researches of Poulton and others upon protective and warning colors and mimicry.

The important question as to the nature and origin of the useful or useless variations which Nature is believed to select or reject, was left open by Darwin and is not elucidated by Romanes. He rightly says that these variations were expressly regarded as promiscuous in the original selection theory. He admits (p. 336, foot-note) the mere possibility that a definite direction may be given to variation by the inheritance of the effects of use and disuse, and therefore abandons the later ideas of Darwin which we have quoted above, although he is not ready to follow Weismann in his absolute rejection of the Lamarckian principle of use inheritance. The reviewer, in common with many others in this country, does not share the author's doubts as to the lack of evidence for definite variation along the main path of evolution, or, to quote his words, "that what we see in nature is the net outcome of the development of all the happy chances; . . . and if we had a similar record of all the other variations, it would be seen that possibly not one such prophecy in a thousand is destined to be fulfilled." Nor is it true that the Duke of Argyll's much ridiculed doctrine of "prophetic germs" is effectually disposed of by evidence, even if it falls under the force of Mr. Romanes's logic. It is a serious defect in this work, considered as a guide to the uninitiated, that the author adheres so broadly to the fortuitous variation idea, in the face of the abundant evidence from palæontology. In the hard parts of animals, at least, nature is extremely economical in the matter of variation, and we look in vain for the purely conjectural nine hundred and ninety-nine alternatives which extreme selectionists like Wallace and Weismann suppose to be discarded for the happy one. In the second volume we are promised a fuller discussion of the problem of definite vs. indefinite variation, and of the evidence for a large class of definite or purposeful variations which stimulate our search for some factors, Lamarckian or otherwise, to account for them.

One word upon the author's theistic position. In speaking of the change exerted by the discovery of evolution upon human thought, he says: "Nevertheless, in my opinion, it is a change of a non-theistic as distinguished from an a-theistic kind. It has rendered impossible the appearance in literature of any future Paley, Bell, or Chalmers; but it has done nothing in the way of negativing that belief in a Supreme Being which it was the object of these authors to substantiate." Lack of space prevents fuller quotation from the forcible pages of the closing chapter, which reflects the present period of harmony between religion and science. Altogether, the merits of this work far outweigh its defects; it is the best modern handbook of evolution.

Familiar Studies in Homer. By Agnes M. Clerke. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS admirable book undertakes to do, in much less space and with the advantage of the knowledge gained by the excavations at Hissarlik, Mycenæ, Egypt, and Asia Minor, what Buchholz attempted as pioneer some thirty years ago, in the 'Homerische Realien.' Some of the chapters of the 'Familiar Studies' have appeared before as magazine articles in *Macmillan's Magazine*, *Nature*, and the *Quarterly Review*, and have there proved attractive to the general public. The book is a good example of mastery of the results of a vast amount of special research not made by the author, but thoroughly familiar to and skilfully handled by her; and we are reminded afresh, as we peruse her interesting pages, what a wonderful quantity of detail and minute information great Homer carries easily along in the strong stream of his verse. Strange that the greatest of poets should be such a storehouse of facts and information for the archæologist!

We were much interested by a remark in Miss Clerke's preface which we believe to be as true as it is valuable. She says that her chief object is to promote a "non-erudite study" of Homer. "Greek enough," she says, "to read 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' in the original can be learned with comparative ease." This last statement is entirely true. It ought to be the case in these days with all intelligent pupils who have studied Greek three years, that they can read Homer with considerable ease, and have read enough of both 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' to be keenly interested in Miss Clerke's book. In such an achievement lies an ample justification for the study of Greek.

We shall most readily give an idea of the book by subjoining the titles of several of the chapters. Under the title, "Homer as a Poet and a Problem," the author declares for the eleventh century B. C. as the date when the 'Iliad' took form, and she is inclined to name Thessaly as the birthplace of the 'Iliad,' and Peloponnesus the birthplace of the 'Odyssey.' There was no Asiatic Greece, she thinks, at that date, in condition to produce a Homer. In summing up the results of a century of study of the Homeric question, Miss Clerke aptly says that "instinctive appreciation has got the better of verbal criticism." The truth could hardly be better stated. The chapter on "Homeric Astronomy" deals too much in technical detail to be summarized here; but the chapters on the "Dog" and the "Horse" in Homer are models of vivacity, of industry, and of research. Miss Clerke well brings out the strange double character or opposing traits which readily make the dog an object of contempt or of tender love. She weaves into a flowing narrative, into which she succeeds in introducing many of the finest passages of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' the extracts from either poem in which the dog and the horse are mentioned, and throughout her book the quotations gain in interest because so well chosen from a variety of translators. Derby, Way, Worsley, and Miss Clerke herself are the translators most often quoted. We are inclined to agree with Miss Clerke that the different feeling with which the dog is regarded in the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' of itself suffices to establish diverse authorship for the two poems. Here is the summing up of the chapter on the "Horse": "The makers of the 'Iliad,' whether few or many, were at least unanimous in their fervid admiration for the horse. The verses glow with a kind of rapture of enjoyment that describe his strength, beauty, and swiftness, his eager spirit and fine nervous organization, his docility to trusted guidance, his intelligent participation in human contentions and pursuits."

Under the head of "Homeric Zoölogy," Homer's "sane and rational" way of regarding animals, compared with the extravagances common in other prehistoric literature, is noted. His intense sympathy with brute nature is based upon the appreciation of real, not upon the ascription of imaginary, qualities. No poet, before or since, ever displayed in this field such a wealth of acute and accurate observation. The correctness of his descriptions is the more wonderful because the various animals had not their character fixed in literature. The chapter on "Flowers and Trees" is brief because Homer did not associate sentiment with flowers. Poppies, hyacinths, crocuses, violets are the flowers of Homer, with mention by implication, in compound words, of the rose and the lily. An interesting topic is "Homeric Meals." The Homeric appetite was strong and simple. Roast meat, bread, and wine were the staple of the heroes' diet. Sheep, goats, and swine came next in order to roasted beef, and fish were eaten only from constraint of hunger. Barley, the "marrow of men," made up the bulk of food on board the ship, and was probably eaten boiled with water as porridge. Wheat was ground into flour in little hand-mills, and the loaves or cakes were probably baked on heated stones. Grapes and olives are the only fruits which figure in the 'Iliad.' Three meals a day were the full Homeric number, though the breakfast was often eaten as one meal with the dinner. When taken separately, it consisted of a piece of bread soaked in wine. The chief meal of the day was the supper, when labor was done.

We have thus indicated the character of the 'Familiar Studies.' It will be evident how valuable a companion to the study of Greek History, as well as to the thorough knowledge of the Homeric poems, the book will prove. In fact, we know of no other book in English which fills its place, and we recommend it warmly to the attention and use of all classical teachers as well as of all students of the Homeric life.

The Speech of Monkeys. By R. L. Garner. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 217.

As an entertaining account of experiences of an enthusiast in attempts at learning from monkeys whether they have a language, this volume may be somewhat successful. As a scientific record of original discoveries, it has little value. The author has been before the public for some time, has talked and written a great deal on his subject, and has secured a large amount of advertising from the press, all of which has led to expectation of important additions to science. What he offers is full of disappointment. That the lower animals are able to communicate with one another in various ways is well known; an extensive literature awaits the student who attacks the subject systematically. Portions of the languages of lower vertebrates will be recalled by most of us. A familiar instance is that of domestic fowls, which have a number of sounds the imports of which are easily recognized. They have a cry of warning for the hawk, a cackle of satisfaction after the egg is laid, another of indignation at being disturbed, or a third in dread of something not seen distinctly; a song of happiness, a challenge, a protest at being handled, a squawk of fright when caught, a call to partake of food, a request for more, a cluck to call the brood together, a doleful cry when lost, and the love notes of the sexes. Most vertebrates have sounds that answer similar purposes, the range or variety being in accord with the necessities of their lives. Because of greater similarity of structure it has been supposed that in the language of monkeys there might be a nearer approach to that of man than in lower mammals. Recent inventions for recording and reproducing sounds have furnished the means of comparisons, and important discoveries are, no doubt, not far off.

Judging from what Mr. Garner has published, he might have done more had he studied the hens. He speaks of words but means sounds, since he says the language of monkeys is purely one of sounds, and that they talk with one another on a limited number of subjects with very few words. Such as he records are scattered among the pages. A certain monkey has an alarm sound, written "e-c-g-k," and another a sound of warning when not afraid, written "c-h-i." A word first translated milk, then food, and said to be used in a still wider sense, is found also to mean water, and still later drink in its broad sense, and possibly thirst. This word the author writes "wh-oc-w," and thinks it to mean food in general. In his opinion it is likewise a salutation or peace-making term—food, as he puts it, being the central thought of every monkey's life; and further, when used imperatively, it appears to mean give. He says he at first believed the word for food or hunger was used for apple, carrot, bread, and banana, but the phonograph showed slight variations, and he now thinks these may indicate the different kinds of food the monkey had in mind. It might be suggested here that they may indicate differences in the amount of filling undergone by the monkey. The word for weather he has not yet settled; that for love is only in the sense of ardent friendship. His discoveries culminate in the word "no," which is accompanied by shaking the head, though the sign is at times attended by a chuckling sound and at others by a soft whimpering sound. "The fact that this sign is common to both man and simian I regard as more than a mere coincidence, and I believe that in this sign I have found the psycho-physical basis of expression." If to the foregoing questionable words we add a chuckle to express pleasure, a good-natured growl, as a critic described it, for laughter, "ngu-u-w" of the Rhesus, and "wuh-uh-uh" of the Mangaby, both meaning food, and "ch-eu-ye," a word for drink, we shall complete the vocabulary given.

The exhibit is very unsatisfactory. The author gives considerable notice of what he proposes to do, does a great deal of talking around his subject, and makes an excessive use of the great *I*, but gives little or no evidence of accomplishing anything. The most vivid impression left by his book is, that he has ventured upon something entirely too deep for him.

A History of Peru. By Clements R. Markham. [Latin-American Republics Series.] Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xviii, 556. Maps and illustrations.

A SERIES of histories of the Latin-American Republics at the present time is a commendable enterprise. While the intense interest in our Southern neighbors, which for a time was epidemic, has somewhat subsided, it has by no means disappeared. Transient enthusiasm has but given place to a more earnest, more sober inquiry into the life and conditions of South and Central America; and the man of letters, the historian, the archæologist, find here a rich and almost virgin field. But to realize fully the harvest it is necessary to untangle a maze of political changes as bewildering as the struggles of mediæval Europe. Hence a series of histories written now, although we cannot expect them to be wholly trustworthy until the archives of the Southern capitals have been ransacked, will serve a useful purpose by plotting in some manner the course which the stream of events has taken. In the present work there are not a few errors which we must condone, and yet, taken altogether, it is a most creditable performance. There is probably no English-speaking person in the world better fitted to handle this subject than Mr. Markham, and he brings to the task not only personal acquaintance with the country, large information, and broad scholarship, but a warm sympathy for Peru and the Peruvians. Not alone the circumstances of a tumultuous po-

litical career, but the heart of the nation stands revealed as well, interpreting a history which otherwise would be often unintelligible. The rise and fall of the Inca Empire is briefly and clearly told. The character of Pizarro and his followers is justly depicted, omitting the usual cant about demons and devils. We see their weakness, their cruelty, but also their better qualities, and can understand the motives of expediency that led to many acts which in the light of subsequent events appear to have been such wretched wrongs.

The progress of Peruvian history has been divided into epochs, which renders it peculiarly easy to follow. After the conquest and the strife between Pizarro and Almagro, we have the period of attempted reconstruction under the "New Laws" which Las Casas fondly hoped would introduce a wiser and more humane government. Then comes the period of colonization based upon commercial interests, which continued during a large part of the epoch of the Viceroys, from 1555 to 1821. The rebellion of Tupac Amaru is given its full moral value, which was important, coming as it did on the eve of the revolution which overthrew the power of Spain. The two wars for independence, under Gen. San Martin and Gen. Bolivar, respectively, are treated in considerable detail, and then comes the succession of republican presidents and the disastrous war with Chili. Recent events, including the famous "Grace contract," which wiped out the national debt of nearly £52,000,000, and other transactions as late as 1891, bring the work down to date. There are additional chapters, full of interest, upon the people, the literature, and the wealth of Peru. An appendix contains some statistics of Peruvian trade and a translation of the Constitution of Peru.

One valuable feature of the book is the brief biographical sketch and characterization of each of the prominent personages entering into the narrative. These are usually satisfactory, although in the case of Gen. Bolivar the author has joined hands with the iconoclasts. Bolivar is still too enigmatical a character to be denounced as nothing more than an ambitious adventurer. Like Cæsar, he was a gay youth, a brave general, a consummate tactician; and, like him, he held a firm rein upon government while declining kingly honors. From what we know of him now he seems a bundle of paradoxes, and until some one has searched the true man out of the dusty piles of documents in Carácas, Bogotá, and other South American cities, we cannot pretend to estimate him fairly.

The inset map of Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia which accompanies the book is discreditable to the publishers. To point out its errors would be tedious; they glare forth from every section of it. If the publishers could not have done better on their own account, they might at least have availed themselves of the excellent and wonderfully correct map of Stieler. There is no excuse for such careless cartography in these days.

Portraits d'Écrivains. Par René Doumic. Paris: P. Delaplane. 12mo, pp. 330.

M. DOUMIC has performed the difficult task of saying something new and attractive on a hackneyed theme; something worth reading in regard to a few of the most prominent novelists and dramatists of the Second Empire. If he expended his talent on a systematic study of contemporary French literature, he could produce a valuable and interesting critical work. His style is epigrammatic, but not in the forced and mechanical manner which characterizes so much of current French criticism. He possesses another quality which is none too frequent among his compatriots—moral dignity; not the sham morality meant for the gallery, but something genuine and sincere. It is this quality which lends weight to his judgment of writers who, while depicting vice in its most alluring colors, are all the while protesting their devotion to virtue. But while partaking strongly of an ethical element, his criticism is none the less based, in the main, on literary canons, and very sound ones.

His first three essays are on Dumas the younger, Émile Augier, and Victorien Sardou. The contemporary drama, he says, is embodied in Dumas. All the progress it has made is due to him, and it is due to him that it has not progressed further. His great gift is a marvellous faculty of observation, which enables him to pierce through appearances to the reality that underlies them; but the naked reality is not a thing of beauty, and he soon discovers that the method of direct observation does not suffice. Hence he throws himself upon science—on physiology, chemistry, and the like. But science without the scientific spirit, observes M. Doumic, is mere fooling. Along with his pseudo-scientific curiosity, Dumas has a trait of quasi-religious mysticism, which constitutes his stock-in-trade as a social reformer. He considers that the dramatic author has a charge of souls and must not fear to pose as moralist and lawgiver. He aims to establish what he calls "the useful drama." This theory of art M. Doumic pronounces no less false and much more gross than the theory of art for the sake of art. Whatever is only useful is thrown aside after it has subserved its uses; on the other hand, the great works of art which the drama of all times and of all countries has handed down to us probably never served any use at all. Social questions are never solved by the dramatist; it is only when they have reached maturity that they appear on the stage. The means at the disposal of the dramatic author are not available for social reform. Another telling remark of M. Doumic is that the language in which Dumas couches his preachings is not fit to be addressed to those who could still derive any benefit from them. It must not be supposed, however, that M. Doumic does not do full justice to the literary power and dramatic skill of Dumas. He gives him credit for having banished from the stage the puppets of Scribe, while recognizing Scribe's technical perfection, regarded from the artisan's point of view.

In Émile Augier, M. Doumic recognizes the chief agent of the transformation by which the modern comedy of manners succeeded the comedy of character, which had been brought to perfection and exhausted by Molière. Although the plays of Augier proceed from those of Dumas, they differ from them as widely as could be imagined. While Dumas, as already shown, subordinates his drama to his moral prepossessions, Augier has no theories to enforce, and makes no attempt to use the stage as a pulpit. If in his plays vice is chastised and virtue is rewarded, that is only a concession to the public taste and to the prejudices of the official censor of plays. His happy dénouements are manifestly out of joint with the body of the plays. M. Doumic sums up by saying that Augier did for the stage what Balzac did for the novel, and that when Dumas spoke of combining Scribe with Balzac, he described the works of Augier rather than his own.

Concerning Sardou, M. Doumic has very little to say that is good. Sardou's characters, we are told, are perfect abstractions; he never stops at the line where a portrait becomes a caricature. If his characters were consistent caricatures, we might accept them for what they are; but we have no sooner become familiar with their traits than they flop over and act in a way quite the reverse of what we had a right to expect. The action of his plays is as factitious as it is puerile. At any moment a single word would suffice to explain everything and to resolve the intrigue; if none of the characters pronounce the word, it is only because the author is on hand to stop them. Sardou took Scribe for his master, and excels in the theatrical sleight-of-hand of which a perfect example is found in his "Pattes de Mouche," where a piece of paper passed from one person to another fills three acts without wearying the audience. Sardou's chief defect, according to our critic, is that his plays are a mixture of comedy, drama, and vaudeville. First he gives us two acts in gay and lively colors, then two more in which everything is changed to pathos and terror, anguish and tears; the fifth act explains it all—everything is all right, everything is for the best in the best of worlds. And there is no necessary logical connection between these various discordant parts.

Four of M. Doumic's essays are effective reviews of as many novelists. The first is Feuillet, whom Jules de Goncourt dubbed "a family Musset," and who, by common consent, is considered the novelist laureate of aristocratic society. Many writers have attempted to describe the manners of the *haute volée;* according to M. Doumic, Feuillet is the only one who has succeeded, and has even succeeded in the more difficult problem of going beneath the surface and depicting the inmost soul of his characters. The society he undertakes to describe is in the peculiar situation of being, to all appearance, attached to a religion the spirit of which has ceased to influence it, and allegiance to which prevents it from receiving other beliefs which might perform the functions that the old faith has ceased to fulfil. The dead remnants of the old ideal block the way which might lead to a new one. Feuillet wrote during the long space of more than forty years, and a comparison of his later with his earlier works reveals a deterioration not only of morals, but even of manners—a disintegration of society.

M. Doumic is very severe in his judgment of Edmond and Jules de Goncourt, which he closes by saying that their work has been a most persevering, most conscientious, and most laborious effort to empty literature of its contents. He is, if possible, even more severe in his criticism of Zola, whom he makes the subject of a careful and suggestive study, although he considers him already a matter of yesterday. Not the least salient trait of Zola, he says, is his vulgarity, or rather the commonness of his nature. Whenever he speaks in his own person, it is in the tone of the flattest triviality. He lacks the most elementary tact. His obstinacy and his narrowness of mind have given him a prodigious self-confidence and an imperturbable assurance. He has but little taste and but a moderate respect for literature. He has never known it, and has never felt the need of knowing it. He is devoid, to the last degree, of all critical sense; he is incapable of following an abstract idea; his style is that in which a mason would speak of architecture or a house-painter would explain the theory of complementary colors. His habits of observation are very superficial;

he is very proud because, having to write about miners, he has been down in a mine, and again because, having to write about railroads, he took a trip on a locomotive. Even so, he is often satisfied to describe things at second hand. In describing his characters he contents himself with seizing the most apparent trait; of what lies behind he knows nothing. The only beings he succeeds in depicting are the most primitive, whose intellectual life is *nil*. Hence his incapacity to picture the higher classes of society. His analysis does not rise above the intellectual level of a roofer. His world is not the real one, but a continual deformation of reality; such a world as would be that of Balzac seen with the eyes of Victor Hugo. For, according to all appearances, he is by birth and by education one of the Romantics. Like them, he has a taste for the marvellous and is fond of personifying inanimate nature. Life and the world he beholds through a magnifying hallucination, and what he mistakes for reality is only a sort of perpetual nightmare.

M. Doumic gives up his longest chapter to warm and unstinted praise of Alphonse Daudet. We shall not follow him, as we have already gone too far, and he is not quite as entertaining when he approves as when he condemns. Considerations of space have forced us to string together his observations in such a way as to make them appear much balder than they do in his pages, where they are supported and enforced by an abundance of citations and illustrations, to which we refer the reader in the confident expectation that he will recognize in M. Doumic a brilliant and competent literary critic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, Edward. Taxation and Work. Putnams. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Northanger Abbey. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Persuasion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Belfield, H. H. Selections from De Quincey. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 42 cents.
Brewster, Marian. Under the Water-Oaks. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Bubier, E. T. Questions and Answers about Electricity. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Castlemon, H. Marcy the Refugee. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.25.
Cooper, Harriet C. Short Studies in Botany for Children. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Crozier, A. A. A Dictionary of Botanical Terms. Henry Holt & Co. $2.40.
Davis, Mrs. R. H. Kent Hampden. Scribners. $1.
Davis, R. H. The West from a Car-Window. Harpers. $1.25.
Deighton, K. Johnson's Life of Milton. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Dickens, Charles. Barnaby Rudge. Macmillan. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 13, 1892.

The Week.

THE recent State election in Georgia is the last of the preliminary contests which precede the Presidential election. Twenty years ago there were "October elections" in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Iowa, which engaged the attention of the whole country a month before the Presidential contest was fought out, and the "moral effect" of which was regarded as of the greatest importance by both parties. In each State these October elections became ultimately so demoralizing and discreditable that, one by one, they abandoned the system; Pennsylvania instituting the reform in 1873, Indiana following in 1881, Iowa (and West Virginia also) in 1884, and Ohio in 1885. The only States that still cling to the system of a separate State election a few weeks before the Presidential election are Vermont and Maine in the North, both of which vote in September; and, in the South, Alabama in August, Arkansas in September, Florida and Georgia in October. The result of the Georgia election has been awaited with much interest, as first the Farmers' Alliance, and later the People's party, have been exceptionally strong in that State. Moreover, under the advice of the Republican National Committee, the Republicans in Georgia were instructed to cast their solid vote for the People's party, so that all the conditions seemed favorable for a good showing by the opposition to the Democracy. But the result is an overwhelming Democratic majority on the largest vote cast in Georgia in any election for a score of years. This result shows that there is no longer the slightest question about the South's being solid for Cleveland in November. In Florida on Tuesday week the People's party had also met defeat, and the Arkansas election in September was equally one-sided. Alabama is the only Southern State where there has seemed the slightest chance of an opposition victory in November, and the Georgia result cannot fail to help Democratic chances in the neighboring State greatly.

The address which the Massachusetts Independents have put forth in advocacy of Cleveland's election is a notable document in many ways, and especially so for the manner in which it sets forth the offences and shortcomings of President Harrison in the matter of civil-service reform. The list of journalists whom the President has appointed to office has passed out of the public memory somewhat. The Massachusetts address quotes the words of Daniel Webster on such an abuse of patronage, but there is a nearer and higher authority than Daniel Webster in the person of one of the chief beneficiaries, the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency, the late Minister to France. When he, as editor of the *Tribune*, was advocating the election of Horace Greeley to the Presidency because of the maladministration of President Grant, Mr. Whitelaw Reid said, on July 3, 1872, in speaking of Grant's use of patronage:

> "In time the poor relations were all provided for; even the President's father had a post-office; and then patronage took a new form. Heretofore it had been sheer nepotism; now the renomination came near, and it changed to political corruption. Compacts were made with Senators and local politicians to control the Convention. *The country press was literally bought with public offices.* . . . Grant has shown how the prostitution of great power to base uses can lower the whole tone of political society."

That reads almost as if it were written about President Harrison. If he did not give his father a post-office, he gave his own brother a Federal marshalship, his father-in-law another Federal office, his son's father-in-law a $5,000 Federal office in Utah, and to several other family relatives lucrative public positions. He did not stop with buying the country press, but "literally bought" the leading newspapers of the country, including the organ of Whitelaw Reid.

Congressman Harter of Ohio is making a great effort to accomplish what has hitherto failed in several instances, viz., the drawing of the "Napoleon of Protection," Mr. McKinley, into a joint debate. Mr. Harter has been put by the Republican Legislature of Ohio into a gerrymandered district with a nominal Republican majority of nearly 2,000. He is making a thorough canvass of it, arguing, with his well-known clearness and courage, tariff and currency questions. In spite of their majority in the district, the Republicans are so uneasy about it that they are sending McKinley, Sherman, and Foraker into it to counteract the effect of Mr. Harter's speeches, and are paying more attention to it than to any other district in the State. One would think that here was a field which McKinley would hail with joy as the most desirable ground possible for a joint debate. He would be among friends, and his great intellectual forces would have a chance to play in the presence of the highest appreciation. Yet he is as shy as usual about accepting Mr. Harter's challenge, and the Republican campaign managers are as shy as he is. What a queer position for a Napoleon to be in!

Senator Sherman spoke at Cooper Union on Monday, and his speech related chiefly to the question of bank-notes and the Democratic platform, which calls for a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks. It has been hard work, trying to pump interest into this question, although several eminent statesmen, including President Harrison, have tried their hands at it. What Senator Sherman says on the subject calls for notice on account of its ingenuity rather than of its soundness. Mr. Sherman is noted for saying very wise things in Congress on financial questions and very foolish things on the stump. He said, during the last session of Congress (June 1, 1892), that "the people of this country—whether rightly or wrongly is not for me to say—are not in favor of the longer continuance of the national banking system beyond that period which will enable them to wind up as banks of circulation when the payment of the public interest-bearing bonds is made." Then he continued:

> "Mr. President, I am therefore in favor of regarding the popular will as being practically expressed *that we shall not continue this banking system longer than the existence of the bonds that are outstanding.* The people are not willing to take as security for the notes they hold any less security than the Government of the United States of America, whether that be in the form of bonds or in the declaration of the Government to maintain the notes."

Here are two propositions. One is, that the people have decreed the end of the national bank-note system within a certain time not very distant. The other is, that Mr. Sherman himself is in favor of acquiescing in that decision. But the whole drift of his speech on Monday was that that system ought to continue, and that he (Mr. Sherman) could show how it might be continued even after the national bonds are paid off and retired.

Mr. Edward Atkinson, in a letter to the Boston *Herald*, points out that a repeal of the tax on State bank-notes does not of itself imply any diminution of the existing national bank-notes, or of the greenbacks, or of the coin certificates. This proper reminder fits in very well with Mr. Sherman's suggestion that the national bank-note system may be continued by substituting other security, "which will be beyond all danger of failure," in place of the national bonds. If such security can be found, why may it not be made a condition of the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax that all State bank-notes shall be secured in the same way as the new national bank-notes? Assuming that the 10 per cent. tax is itself constitutional (and it has been so adjudged by the Supreme Court), any lesser requirement may be annexed to the privilege of issuing such notes. Any State bank may issue circulating notes now by paying the tax. Congress may lower the tax or repeal it altogether and substitute other conditions for the privilege. We are not in favor of an unconditional repeal of that tax, and we have not heard from or heard of anybody who is in favor of it.

The country has become so habituated to official decisions from the Interior Department, bearing on the subject of pensions, which read like campaign documents, that there was little surprise on Saturday when there was published another such decision, in the shape of a letter from Assistant Secretary Bussey to the Commissioner of Pensions. This ruling overthrew the previous practice in regard to disabilities which developed after the close of the war, and admitted such disabilities as a valid ground for an increase of pensions. It also allowed such increase to be granted upon lay testimony, regardless of a failure to show by record or medical testimony that they were incurred in the service, and in spite of the fact that they were not alleged in the original application for a pension. It was introduced by two or three "heads," one of which reads: "The arbitrary rule of the Cleveland Administration in adjudicating increase claims based upon alleged 'new' disabilities overruled by the Harrison Administration in the interest of meritorious applicants"; and the body of the decision was as flagrant in its partisanship as this introduction. In short, it was nothing more nor less than a Republican campaign document issued by one of the executive departments.

It appears that even Secretary Noble has some glimmering sense of the impropriety of the performance, and since the publication of the ruling a desperate attempt has been made to disavow responsibility for it. This has been carried so far as the dismissal of the subordinate who prepared the text of the decision, although he declares that he wrote it at the direction of the Assistant Secretary of the Interior, read it over to him, and received his approval of it. There is no reason to doubt the story of this subordinate, because what he did was only in line with what his superiors have been doing all along. There has been hardly any attempt to conceal the fact that the Pension Bureau has been a part of the Republican Machine ever since Harrison came in, and Republican organs throughout the country are printing tables to show how extravagant the Administration has been in its allowances of pensions. It is all a part of the policy which aims at winning votes by the offer of special benefits, and the clerk who has lost his place for his zeal ought at least to be provided for by the Republican National Committee.

Simultaneously with the announcement that Quay is expected to take an active part in the Republican campaign, comes the verdict of the jury at Meadville, convicting of embezzlement George W. Delamater, whom Quay made the Republican candidate for Governor of Pennsylvania two years ago. It will be remembered that a month after his defeat in the election his banking-house suspended, and it soon appeared that he had been for some time receiving deposits and making away with the money. He was arraigned under a law which makes such conduct a crime punishable by a term in the penitentiary, and, although there will be the usual attempts to get him off, it seems likely that he will receive his deserts. Yet, if he had received 17,000 more votes than were actually cast for him two years ago, this embezzler would have been the Governor of the State, and the State funds would undoubtedly have been used to rescue him from his financial troubles. In other words, Delamater was running not only for the executive mansion, but away from the penitentiary, and, but for the independence of some thousands of voters, the man who ought to wear the garb of a criminal would have been the chief executive of the State. The whole story of Quayism in politics is told in this career.

Pennsylvania is having great trouble now with its new ballot law, and loud complaints are heard concerning the size and clumsiness of the ballots which must be provided. All persons disposed to charge the Australian system with these annoyances should bear in mind that Pennsylvania's law was repudiated by ballot-reform advocates at the time of its adoption. It is not a ballot-reform law in the proper sense of the term, but a Quay Republican law. When the Quay Republicans found that they must yield to public sentiment in the matter, they took the measure which the friends of ballot reform had drawn, and filled it with all the tricks and devices which they could concoct, in the hope of destroying its character and making it so impracticable that it would bring the reform into disfavor. If it proves in practice to be a defective and more or less ineffective measure, they, and not ballot-reformers, must be held accountable for it.

Mr. Charles J. Harrah, President of the Midvale, Pa., Steel Company, has publicly declared for the doctrine of free raw materials, and has received an awful lecture in consequence from the Philadelphia *Manufacturer*. Being scarcely exposed to the usual setting down as a mere "doctrinaire" who knows nothing whatever about the "actual facts," Mr. Harrah is classed with those manufacturers who are "so selfish and greedy as to desire to profit by the injury of their fellow-men," in contrast, we suppose, to those protectionist manufacturers who are well known to pay out all their profits in wages and gifts to the poor—after deducting, of course, their contributions to the Republican campaign fund. Mr. Harrah's conduct is also accounted for on the ground of the enjoyment he derives from "the publicity which comes from the expression of eccentric opinions in the newspapers." This would seem to show that he had mistaken his calling and ought to turn editor at once. On the staff of the *Manufacturer*, for instance, we venture to say that he could find opportunity to express more eccentric opinions in each Presidential campaign than he could in a dozen years as President of a manufacturing company. But he is also fatally mistaken, he is told, in not being able "to understand that overthrow of a part of the protective system must involve the overthrow of the whole system." This is the old "howling-wilderness" and "grass in-the-streets" argument for protection. If the wool-growers of Ohio are not given what they believe to be their proper share of the plunder, they will make Providence an heap and Woonsocket a desolation. If the Lake Superior iron-miners are not allowed to shut out foreign ores, they will shut up every rolling-mill in Pennsylvania. Only on these terms of compact between dividers of the spoil can the great and beneficent system of protection exist.

Both the outgoing and the incoming Governors of Vermont address the Legislature at the opening of its session, and there has been much curiosity as to what they would say regarding the Australian ballot system. Gov. Page, who was just surrendering his office, sustains the law most heartily. Among other things, he says: "He serves his party best who serves his country best; and the broad-minded citizen, even though he be ever so strong a partisan, will welcome any system that compels political parties to bring forward their best, knowing that, if they do otherwise, a discriminating voter will place his seal of condemnation upon its unpatriotic action." He says that he "shall ever take pride in the fact that during my administration Vermont placed herself squarely abreast with that better element in American politics which is to-day everywhere demanding a freer, purer ballot, North and South." He administers a severe rebuke to those politicians who, under the lead of the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, have been calling for the repeal of the law. On the other hand, the new Governor, Mr. Fuller, manifests no such enthusiasm in behalf of the reform as his predecessor, but this is perhaps not strange, considering that, under the secret ballot, he received a majority nearly 10,000 less than was given the Republican candidate for Governor four years ago. Ex-Gov. Page may not have meant to give Gov. Fuller a hit, but nothing could be more pat than his commendation of the new system as one "that compels political parties to bring forward their best," since it is notorious that Fuller was much short of the best candidate that the Republicans could have presented. The new Governor thinks that "there can be no question that this law has operated to defeat the will of many voters," and he hardly conceals the fact that he would be pleased to get rid of the system, although he contents himself with suggesting "further legislation to perfect

and carry out this reform." While the party managers would be glad to repeal the law, the people generally are so well pleased with the new system that there is happily no danger of its abolition.

On landing in this country last week Minister Egan spoke of the high regard in which he was held by the Americans resident in Chili, and instanced as a proof of it the banquet which they tendered him in Santiago on the eve of his departure. This hardly tallies with the account of the affair telegraphed at the time, or with an article about it published in the Valparaiso *Heraldo* of August 30. That paper gives a complete list of the twenty-seven persons present at the dinner, and has some very unpleasant things to say of several citizens who figure on it. It also states that the banquet was paid for by Egan and two men who have enormous claims pending against Chili, pointing out that the invitations laid special emphasis upon the fact that the meal would be altogether gratis. It adds that of those Americans in Valparaiso who were invited, the only one to go was the agent of the New York house of Flint & Co., the head of which made himself famous by prematurely revealing Blaine's friendship with Balmaceda and the $30,000,000 of nitrates. We do not vouch for the truth of all these assertions, but simply cite them as falling in with many other bits of evidence going to show that Egan's popularity with the American colony in Chili is not so great as he would be glad to have the public believe. It will be remembered, for example, that he was not invited to the patriotic meeting held by that colony on July 4, and one would have supposed that his tremendous patriotism, to say nothing of his official position, would naturally have given him the first place in such a gathering.

Some recent events in France show how baseless is the claim that there is something distinctively "American" in protectionism. At a congress of Socialists held at Roubaix, to which the Socialists of Belgium were invited, all sang in chorus:

"Les peuples sont pour nous des frères,"

and the doctrine of "international solidarity" was enthusiastically advocated. No more contests of nationalities were to take place, but the common people of all lands were to unite in a war against the "bourgeoisie." Scarcely had the echoes of those songs and speeches died away when a violent outbreak occurred among the miners of the Pas-de-Calais on account of the employment of some Belgian workmen. The doctrines of the "International" were forgotten, and the Belgian "brothers" were denounced as foreign pauper laborers come to take the bread from the mouths of Frenchmen, and the windows of their lodging-houses were broken. Their immediate discharge was demanded by their French comrades, and the assurances of the mining companies that wages were not to be lowered, and that the foreigners were employed simply for lack of other laborers, were received with shouts of "Down with the Belgians!" It was declared that the mines were the property of the French nation and should be worked only by Frenchmen. The places of the Belgians belonged to Frenchmen who had been discharged for their political activity or because they had taken part in strikes, and the companies were informed that these men must be reëmployed and the Belgians dismissed, or a strike would be ordered. On the other side of the frontier the news of this disturbance had a damaging effect upon "solidarity," some of the Belgian miners there parading with a red flag bearing the inscription, "Death to the French!" and pillaging the house of a woman reported to be of that nationality.

These events have a sufficient resemblance to some recent occurrences in our own country to make it apparent that the same leaven was at work in both cases. By an interesting but not properly surprising coincidence, they have suggested to a French journal, the *Temps*, the same moral which was here drawn from the Homestead trouble. It observes that much has been said of national industry, of national production, of national interests, and that the most egoistic and interested calculations have masked themselves under the cover of the most ardent patriotism. Is there, then, anything remarkable, it inquires, in the attitude of the miners who protest against competition upon the ground of nationality? The manufacturers have obtained laws which impose protective duties upon foreign goods, but the laborers have no laws that protect their wages, and in the case of these miners they simply enforced a protection that the law had neglected to provide. Their patriotism may have been irregular in its manifestation, but, measured from the protectionist standpoint, it was genuine. If the Belgian miners were in need and were willing to work for low wages, all the more reason for excluding them. If there was a scarcity of laborers, that would have led to a rise of wages, and the importation of foreign laborers would counteract this tendency, and should therefore be prohibited. The argument is unanswerable from the protectionist standpoint, and, with things going as they are in France, it would not be surprising if the trade-unions should insist upon embodying it in legislation.

The question who is to succeed Tennyson as Laureate will probably be the main interest of intellectual England during the next few weeks. There is, unhappily, no heir apparent to the illustrious poet, nobody whose title to his place is clear. In quality of verse Swinburne undoubtedly stands at the head of the list, and Mr. Gladstone is in a measure committed to this view of him; but his personality is unpleasing and he has made poetry a furious political partisan. Part, and no small part, of Tennyson's equipment for the place he held in the national affection and admiration was the purity of his life. He was essentially a gentleman in the highest and best sense of the term. It will be hard for the Queen to accept and for Mr. Gladstone to propose anybody for the laureateship of whom this cannot be said. Sir Edwin Arnold's claims do not seem to be even considered by anybody, although Major Pond, when he came to this country last fall, put forth an amusing tale of his succession to the laureateship having been settled, and of his having had to get a special permit both from the Queen and from Lord Salisbury to come to this country, the Laureate *in posse* not being allowed to absent himself from England when the Laureate *in esse* was old or infirm, lest the kingdom should be left even for a day face to face with the horrors of a vacancy. Even if this were true, we fear his memorial verses on Tennyson in his *Daily Telegraph* would settle Sir Edwin's fate, for they are enough to make the great poet turn in his grave and exasperate his family.

The Baring liquidation drags its slow length along, and the chances of the guarantors escaping without having to make good a final deficiency grow less. With every partial realization on the securities held, the water oozes out of what is left. Thus, in the six months from February 29 to August 31 the liabilities were reduced from £7,017,666 to £5,113,613, but in the same period the value of the assets declined from £10,338,757 to £8,319,261, or $200,000 more than did the liabilities. This shows how every fresh attempt to market the depreciated bonds only sends them down lower in price. At the meeting of the Bank of England in the middle of September the opinion was general that it would not be possible to complete the liquidation within the next twelve months, as originally planned, and that it would be necessary to form some new kind of trust to nurse the Baring securities along. The immense losses to English investors who were caught in the South American crash are enough of themselves to account for a good part of the financial distress under which England has been laboring. There is a suggestion here for our Republican philanthropists who preach the new doctrine that our highest happiness is to be found in causing all the misery possible in other countries. If we were but to repudiate all our national and railroad bonds held abroad, we could bring about a wretchedness beside which all that McKinley has caused would not figure at all in the rejoicings of good Americans.

MORE ABOUT MONEY IN ELECTIONS.

MR. WAYNE MACVEAGH has joined the band of eminent seceders from the Republican party which contains Judge Gresham and others. The things he cannot stand any longer are the Force Bill, the McKinley Bill, the corruption practised and necessary to defend the high tariff, the huge Government purchases of useless silver, the extravagant pension system, and the vast importations of degraded Europeans to supply labor for the protected industries. All these things, of course, have concomitants equally objectionable, for the enumeration of which we must refer our readers to the letter itself. It is not long, but it is lucid and very closely packed. We think, however, it might all be summed up by saying that Mr. MacVeagh objects to the conversion of the Government into a commercial enterprise for the benefit of a small body of private individuals. When this fact is made plain, all the rest follows, almost as a matter of course. The Republican party has opened a shop such as the mediæval monarchs used to keep when they sold monopolies, places, and titles for cash down. It has gone on for years advertising the sale of trade privileges, and the number of its customers has steadily increased, and the price of its wares has steadily risen, and it has steadily extended its field of operations. Like the railroads, too, it has had to open new branches, in order to secure business which some rival might take away from it.

There is little doubt that in the beginning it intended to confine itself strictly to trade with manufacturers engaged in competition with the wicked foreigner, and that it entered into large and lucrative contracts with this class. But it soon found that it was impossible to fulfil these contracts under a protective policy pure and simple. To live up to its engagements, it had to have at every election an increasing number of votes, not only because the population was increasing, but because the voters, on finding out that the elections were a business transaction with money in them, became more and more exacting, and in fact began to demand that they should be "let in." They would perhaps have continued to "vote as they shot," or vote against "outrages" on the negro, very much longer had they thought that the managers were living on the same elevated plane of sentiment. But as soon as they discovered that these gentlemen were in business, they naturally began to demand their share of the profits.

Out of this demand have grown the huge purchases of silver and the huge pensions and the reckless bribery of voters. This is, of course, a process which must come to an end through sheer exhaustion of resources some time, but it takes a long while to exhaust a rich nation. The case of the Republican party is very like that of Tammany in Tweed's day, and, indeed, like all cases of conspiracy against somebody else's money. Tweed might have lasted years longer had he only had to rob for himself, for Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly. The city could have stood him and them possibly for his whole lifetime. But he had to divide with an ever-enlarging circle of confederates, and the scale of his operations had therefore to be increased correspondingly, until further thieving was impossible, and the end came. So it is with the Republican party. The manufacturers ask for more tariff every year, and more tariff cannot be supplied without more votes, and more votes cannot be had without more money, and more money cannot be spent without discovery, or without making demands on the manufacturers which more than exhaust the profits of the tariff.

To get an idea of the difficulties of the situation for the party just now, one has only to compare it with that of 1888. Wanamaker raised, it is said, and he has himself virtually admitted it, $400,000 for Quay in that year. He tried to get as much out of the Pacific railroads in the last fortnight of the canvass, but failed. But Wanamaker was not known then, except as a pious shopkeeper in Philadelphia, and he could, when making his political collections, have got board, lodging, and a certificate of "Christian character" in the office of nearly every religious newspaper in the country. But fancy Wanamaker starting out on a similar errand now, and trying to put a religious complexion on his activities. Why, every dog in the country would howl as he drew near the tills. Take also Quay's case. How many people knew Quay in 1888, except as an adroit political manager? How many knew anything about his methods? How easy it was for party newspapers, without being ridiculous, to say, as one paper said, "Hail, Quay! hero of a hard-fought, brilliantly won field—the right man in the right place." What boy of twelve is there in the country who does not know all about him now? The fact that he is only too well known has, in truth, been recognized by him and his confederates in the frankest way by his withdrawal from the Chairmanship of the National Committee. In the present campaign it is impossible to turn his skill to full account. The case of Dudley is somewhat similar. This man was able to direct the purchase of votes in Indiana from an office in New York in 1888; now he is relegated wholly to some sort of "private business." His usefulness to the party is at an end. Moreover, votes have gone up in price. The very careful and trustworthy observer who has been travelling in the interior of this State for the *Evening Post*, reports that votes which could be had for "the defence of American industry" for five dollars in 1888 are now held firm at twenty dollars apiece.

All this shows that the "Republican Business Men" are—we do not say at the end of their resources, but struggling with increasing difficulties of all sorts. Even if the money comes in as well as it did—and we learn on excellent authority that the contrary is the truth—much more money is needed, and the most skilful collectors and dispensers are either in hiding or living in retirement. The coming election will in fact be something in the nature of a police raid on a gambling-house. If it succeeds, a most nefarious industry will be broken up—we trust, for ever. If it fails, the process of national demoralization will continue until a century or two will be needed to effect a cure.

CONCERNING THE HON. DAVID MARTIN.

THE *Tribune* has at last concluded that it is necessary to give some account of the work which Mr. "Dave" Martin is doing for the Republican National Committee in this city. According to this, he has during the last two weeks been "collecting the large mass of information which he possesses of *prospective* Democratic rascality in New York city, and in organizing a department for the detection and punishment of naturalization, registration, and voting frauds." Some of this information he has communicated to the *Tribune*, giving the addresses of a considerable number of lodging-houses, "and dance and lewd houses," which he foresees that the Tammany people are going to fill with "colonists" before the election. Now, there is no doubt that Mr. Martin is eminently fitted for such detective work, because he has himself been a practitioner of the arts which the *Tribune* says he is now engaged in exposing. In 1872 it was proved that he was the head of a band of repeaters in Philadelphia and was engaged in the plot which the *Tribune*, on the 9th of October in that year, thus described:

"Philadelphia is flooded with New York ruffians, who have gone over there with the purpose of outvoting the people of that city by means of their abominable machinery. The notorious 'The' Allen, crony of O'Brien and particular friend of Mr. Roscoe Conkling, is among the leaders of these scamps; and 'Whitey Bob,' 'Blacksmith Dan,' and other well-known bullies and election thieves are hand-and-glove with Hartranft's penitentiary gang in Philadelphia. This scandalous plot against suffrage is conducted by Grant officials."

Mr. Martin was a member of this "penitentiary gang," and therefore knows exactly how all forms of election frauds are carried out. But the place where he could be useful as a detective is Philadelphia, where he is perfectly familiar with the whole criminal class, knows their haunts, their modes of perpetrating frauds and of evading justice, and probably has got in black and white the exact amount of accommodation which can be obtained on a pinch in all the low lodging and dance-houses in that city. With the New York cheats, bullies, receivers, colonizers, and with their lairs and "boozing kens," he can have but a very slight acquaintance, if any. The Republican Committee here must be able to lay their hands on a hundred men in New York, each of whom would be worth ten Martins in detecting and exposing prospective Tammany frauds. If, when Inspector Byrnes

was bent on frustrating some great conspiracy against order or property in this city he were to import a few local criminals from Cincinnati or Chicago to superintend the work, he would expose himself to ridicule if not to removal for admitted incompetency; so that we must pronounce the *Tribune's* explanation of Mr. Martin's presence among us as ludicrously inadequate, though of course it may pass muster with many of its rural readers. It is certainly much better than total silence.

In fact, in these days of the railroad, the telegraph, the printing-press, and the public school, all attempts to explain a notorious rascal's absence from home by saying that he is travelling about for the detection and prevention of fraud, must necessarily prove a failure. The inquiring, pyrrhonic spirit of the age is fatal to presumptions of this nature. In no country have they less chance of success than in this. Say what you will, the great body of the American people *will* believe that when Mr. Martin travels, he travels in the pursuit of his ordinary avocations; that when he reaches "a distant city," as the novelists say, he goes promptly to work at the arts by which, amid the scenes of his childhood, he rose to fame and fortune.

This view will be strengthened, too, the *Tribune* must remember, by the fact that at every Presidential election of late years so much of the work done by the Republican National Committee is of a "secret" and "confidential" nature. For instance, when Mr. Wanamaker gave the $400,000 to Quay, he "did not insist on knowing" what Quay did with the money. "He did not want to know," and yet he must have known, or had strong reason to believe, at that very time, that Quay had robbed the State Treasury of $260,000. So again, when Vice-President Arthur was eulogizing Dorsey for "carrying Indiana" in 1880, he refused "to go into the minute secrets of the campaign because he saw the reporters present." So, also, Dudley's circular in 1888, prescribing the mode in which the "floaters" were to be brought to the polls "in blocks of five," was of course "private." And this year Mr. Hackett, the Chairman of the New York Committee, in calling for "particular service for the Republican cause," marks his circular "Confidential," and points out that the service will call for "the exercise of caution and the ability to keep a secret," although the service consists in simply sending "the name of a Democrat whom you believe can be induced to vote the Republican ticket this fall."

Now, the work of inducing people to vote the Republican ticket by argumentative persuasion cannot be considered secret or confidential work. Persuaders by argument, in fact, seek for their work all the publicity possible. Nor is the name of a man who can probably be induced to change his political opinion by argument, a thing only to be whispered into a hole in a tree, or only revealed under the seal of confession. In fact, the only possible reason for throwing the veil of secrecy over such a transaction is the disreputable character of the "inducement." That is to say, the reason why the service Mr. Hackett asks for is "confidential" is, that it consists in finding out in each locality who the "floaters" are, and letting the Committee know to whom the money to bribe them is to be sent. For the superintendence of this particular service for the Republican party there is no better person than Mr. Martin. To believe that he has been brought on here for any service of a different character, is to disregard all the rules of probability which govern men in the ordinary conduct of life. Of the art of discovering persons who have not fully made up their minds which ticket to vote, Mr. Martin is a master excelled only by Quay. If Quay comes on here, as it is now said he is likely to do, it will show simply that Martin needs help—not that some other kind of work than his needs to be done. That he and Quay wander about the country in search of jobs of reform is a theory which would extract a smile from most Americans, even in the very article of death.

CHIEF-JUSTICE PAXSON'S CHARGE.

THE charge which Chief-Justice Paxson of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court delivered on Monday to the Grand Jury in the Court of Oyer and Terminer at Pittsburgh in regard to the Homestead cases will attract the attention of the whole country. It is an extraordinary event for the presiding judge of the highest tribunal in the State to appear in a county court, but the Constitution of Pennsylvania makes the justices of the Supreme Court justices ex-officio of the Court of Oyer and Terminer of every county, and Judge Paxson was entirely right in considering the present occasion grave enough to justify the exercise of this right.

The Chief Justice began by reviewing the familiar facts connected with the disturbances of last summer—that there was a disagreement as to wages, concerning only a small portion of the Carnegie Company's employees, and those receiving the highest pay; that, as a mutually satisfactory agreement could not be reached, the company closed its works and discharged its men; that it then proposed to operate its works by the employment of other men, not members of the Amalgamated Association; that the latter thereupon organized an "Advisory Committee," which proceeded to take charge of the affairs of Homestead, and ordered the mechanics, laborers, and other employees of the works, amounting to about 3,000, whose wages were not affected by the proposed change, and who had entered into a new agreement with the company upon the terms of their old contracts, to refuse to work until the Amalgamated Association should be recognized and its terms agreed to; that it allowed no persons to enter the mills, nor even any strangers to enter the town, without its consent; and that it formed a military organization, establishing a girdle of pickets by which the works and the town were guarded like a military encampment; that all discussion of the wage question was positively prohibited; that a force sent by the Sheriff of the county was driven off with threats; and, finally, that the brutal assault of July 6 was made upon the force of Pinkertons which had been sent to protect the property of the company.

The Chief Justice lays down the fundamental principles which govern the relation of employer and employee most clearly and forcibly. This relation, he says, "is one of contract merely. Neither party has a right to coerce the other into the making of a contract to which the mind does not assent. The employer cannot compel his employee to work a day longer than he sees fit, nor than his contract calls for, nor for a wage that is unsatisfactory to him. It follows that the employee cannot compel his employer to give him work or to enter into a contract of hire; much less can he dictate the terms of employment." It follows that, when the Homestead negotiations came to an end, the contract relations ceased, and the men had no further claim upon the company than has a domestic servant upon a private employer after leaving his service. "Nor does it make any difference that a large number were discharged at one time; their aggregate rights rise no higher than their rights as individuals."

These fundamental principles are thus applied to the Homestead case:

"When the company shut down its works and discharged its men, it was acting strictly in the line of the law; it could not compel the men to work, nor the men compel the company to employ them; no arrangement could be made in such regard except in the nature of a contract agreed upon by the parties. Upon this subject their rights were mutual. The company had the undoubted right to protect its property; for this purpose it could lawfully employ as many men as it saw proper, and arm them if necessary. It was an act of unlawful violence to prevent their landing upon the property of the company. That unlawful violence amounted at least to riot upon the part of all concerned in it; if life was taken in pursuance of a purpose to resist the landing of the men by violence, the offence was murder, and perhaps treason. The rights of the men were, to refuse to work unless their terms were acceded to, and to persuade others to join them in such refusal; but the law will sustain them no further. The moment they attempted to control the works and to prevent, by violence or threats of violence, other laborers from going to work there, they placed themselves outside the pale of the law. It cannot be tolerated for a moment that one laborer shall say to another laborer: 'You shall not work for this man for that wage without my consent,' and then enforce such command by brutal violence upon his person; and what will not be permitted to one man to do will not be permitted to an organization of men."

It is the assertion of the doctrine that the conduct of the men constituted treason which renders the Chief Justice's charge most notable. This offence is defined by an act of the Pennsylvania Legislature passed in 1860, which provides that, "if

any person, owing allegiance to the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, shall levy war against the same or shall adhere to the enemies thereof, giving them aid or comfort within the State or elsewhere, or shall be thereon convicted in open court, on testimony of two witnesses of the same overt act of treason whereof he shall stand indicted, such person shall, on conviction, be adjudged guilty of treason against the Commonwealth, and be sentenced to pay a fine not exceeding $2,000 and undergo an imprisonment by separate and solitary confinement, at labor, not exceeding twelve years." There has never been any prosecution under this act, so that there are no precedents. Judge Paxson draws a distinction between "a mere mob, collected upon the impulse of the moment, without any definite object beyond the gratification of its sudden passions," and a case "when a large number of men arm and organize themselves by divisions and companies, appoint officers, and engage in a common purpose to defy the law, to resist its officers, and to deprive any portion of their fellow-citizens of the rights to which they are entitled under the Constitution and laws." In the first case, he says, the mob does not commit treason, although it destroys property and attacks human life, but the action taken by the organized body of men "is a levying of war against the State, and the offence is treason." He proceeds to define the offence more at length as follows:

"Much more so when the functions of the State Government are usurped in a particular locality, the process of the Commonwealth and the lawful acts of its officers resisted, and unlawful arrests made at the dictation of a body of men who have assumed the functions of a government in that locality; and if it is a state of war when a business plant has to be surrounded by the army of the State for weeks to protect it from unlawful violence at the hands of men formerly employed in it. Where a body of men have organized for a treasonable purpose, every step which any one of them takes in part execution of their common purpose is an overt act of treason in levying war. Every member of such associated government, whether it be an advisory committee, or by whatever name it is called, who has participated in such usurpation, who has joined in a common purpose of resistance to the law and a denial of the rights of other citizens, has committed treason against the State. While the definition of this offence is the designing or overturning of the Government of the State, such intention need not extend to every portion of its territory. It is sufficient if it be an overturning of it in a particular locality, and such intent may be inferred from the acts committed. If they be such that the authority of the State is overturned in a particular locality, and a usurped authority substituted in its place, the parties committing it must be presumed to have intended to do what they had actually done."

The effect of this charge must be to revive and stimulate the discussion of the questions involved in the Homestead troubles, and of the methods which should be adopted to prevent their recurrence. Undoubtedly, the doctrine laid down by the Chief Justice will surprise most people, so commonly is the word treason identified with the idea of plotting with foreign enemies of the State. Whether or not Judge Paxson's definition be finally accepted as the law of the land, it is a great service to have the underlying issues thus forced to ultimate decision.

TENNYSON.

TENNYSON made his first public appearance as a poet in 1827 in a volume of 228 pages, published jointly with his brother Charles. How much was Alfred's we do not know, as there is no formal indication, and the manner of the poems gives no sign. There is nothing in them of the later quality of either brother. For poems written from fifteen to eighteen they are not discreditable, but there is nothing in them to suggest a coming fame. Byron's 'Hours of Idleness' was much more prophetic. The reader is told in the preface that he will find many imitations. These are mainly of Byron, but they are very faint. Nothing was preserved by Tennyson from this volume, even when he made the follies of his youth the vices of his manhood "by an after-approbation." He went up to Cambridge chastened in spirit by the failure of his anonymous venture to make a ripple on the public mind, and glad, no doubt, that he had withheld his name. He did not withhold it from his next publication, his prize poem of 1829, "Timbuctoo." It is interesting that we have Arthur Hallam's poem on the same unpromising subject, and that Thackeray's first publication was a burlesque upon it. In 1830, while still an undergraduate, Tennyson published 'Poems, Chiefly Lyrical,' a volume of 154 pages, with very little on each separate page.

It was high time for a new poet to appear. Keats, Shelley, and Byron had gone over to the majority in swift succession. Southey, after having launched a whole fleet of epics, was discovering that prose was his vocation. Wordsworth had twenty years more to live, but little more to say. 'Poems, Chiefly Lyrical' had at least the merit of difference from all the recent verse. It was hailed by the *Westminster* with cordial praise; but Christopher North, then editor of *Blackwood*, was determined that the young poet should not be spoiled by finding himself called a new Elizabethan. One poem in the book he called "drivel," another "more dismal drivel," and a third "more dismal drivel even than that." Tennyson answered in a poem in which the refrains "musty Christopher" and "crusty Christopher" were prominent: he would forgive his blame, but not his praise. But North's praise was for the best and his blame was not without effect. Of the "Deserted House" he said, "Every word tells, and the short whole is most pathetic in its completeness—let us say perfection—like some old Scottish air sung by a maiden at her wheel or by a shepherd in the wilderness." By far the most interesting review of the little book, however, was by Arthur Hallam, whose poems would have been included in the volume with Tennyson's had not his father made demur. It hailed Tennyson as a splendid rebel against Wordsworth and his school, a successor of Hunt and Keats and Shelley, and especially of Keats—preëminently the poet of sensation. This shows how imperfectly the volume of 1830 foreshadowed the full-grown Tennyson, in whom the reflective element, which Hallam deprecated in Wordsworth, was more conspicuous than the sensuous; and, strange to say, Tennyson's great reflective poem is a lament for the young friend who praised him for his lack of that which is his own and Tennyson's best pledge of immortality.

But the volume of 1830 was for the most part an embodiment of Tennyson's delight in sensuous things and in metrical experiments. Poe's extravagant praise of Tennyson was probably based upon these last, which, in common with much of his own verse, confused the limits of poetry and music and subordinated sense to sound. Many, but not too many, of the poems in this volume failed to appear in subsequent collections. Some of them still hold their own among the poet's second best. The richness of the sensuous coloring, the passionate delight in finding beauteous words for images of beauteous things—a delight which is perhaps Tennyson's most characteristic trait—reached its acme in "Recollections of the Arabian Nights."

In 1833 Tennyson published a second volume, including nothing that was in the first, and marking an advance on that which was so striking that it won for him, as it deserved, the reversal of many judgments unfavorable to his talents. In the first volume there was not a touch of modern interest, except possibly in the piece called "A Character"; there was no human sympathy; the sensation and emotion did not inhere in any definite personality or carry with them any tale of love or sorrow. Least of all was there any touch of homely vigor. In the volume of 1833 there was a happy difference in these particulars, while there was less capriciousness of form and far less of tinsel glitter and mere prettiness in the detail. "The Lady of Shalott" was the first note preluding the Arthurian symphony that was yet to swell. The full scope of Tennyson's genius was not revealed in this volume, but it made clear that there was much more in him than exquisiteness of lyric form or daintiness of sensuous representation. Of these poems generally, as of the lotus-eaters' land to which one of them conducts our swooning fancy, it might well be said in Tennyson's own words:

"There is sweet music here that softer falls
Than petals from blown roses on the grass,
Or night-dews on still waters between walls
Of shadowy granite, in a gleaming pass;
Music that gentlier on the spirit lies
Than tired eyelids upon tired eyes;
Music that brings sweet sleep down from the blissful skies."

But there was more than this. There was the splendid diction and the forcible dramatic impersonation of the "Dream of Fair Women." The revolt of Tennyson from Wordsworth's theory of poetic diction is nowhere more conspicuous than here, unless it be in later corrections of the same poem, one of which substitutes "the bright death" at Iphigeneia's throat for "the sharp knife." This was a very characteristic change.

From 1833 to 1842 Tennyson was a busy author, as was proved by the event; but in this interval no volume issued from his hand. In 1842 appeared an entirely new volume, 'English Idylls and Other Poems,' and a complete edition of his poems in two volumes. Of these the second was identical with the volume of new poems; the first was made up from the volumes of 1830 and 1833. All of the latter had been kept, but with many changes, both subtractions and additions, and about half the former. In the second volume we have very nearly the perfect Tennyson, all of his energy and beauty and nearly all the fulness of his range. Had we only this volume, Tennyson's rank as a poet would be hardly less exalted than it is in virtue of his life's complete performance. Something in every kind he had before essayed was here, and better done. Something was here of nearly everything he afterwards essayed. Here as an artist he touched the height of his attainment.

Much was to come, but nothing better as poetic art, and nothing different, except "The Northern Farmer," the most homely, realistic, and dramatic of his poems, the dramas "Queen Mary," "Harold," and "Becket," and some others of a lighter cast, and—surely a very great exception, if it was really different from "The Two Voices"—'In Memoriam.' But to claim for Tennyson's volume of 1842 a manifestation so nearly perfect of his poetic genius is not by any means to be ungrateful for the additions that he made to that before his death. There is no part of the 'Idylls of the King' that is more beautiful than the "Morte d'Arthur," which daringly initiated the volume of 1842; daringly, because what better wine could follow after that? Yet better wine there was to follow. But the perfection of the "Morte d'Arthur" does not make the tender beauty of "Elaine," nor the witchery of "Vivien," nor the great nobility and pathos of "Guinevere," of less account; and for what we have in spiritual suggestion and embodiment of the profoundest sentiment of the poet's time in 'In Memoriam' there are many who would gladly give up all the rest that Tennyson achieved. Another very sensible and valuable addition to the sum of 1842 is in the songs that afterwards appeared; the group occurring in 'The Princess,' as interludes and in the body of the piece, touching the highest mark. The poems that have done most to make Tennyson widely popular—a people's poet he has hardly been even with these to show—are such idylls as "Dora" and "The Gardener's Daughter," poems with a story in them, and dealing mainly with the perplexities and sorrows and catastrophes that are never far removed from the most ordinary lives. Nothing of Tennyson's is more thoroughly his own than these idylls. In Wordsworth and in Crabbe there were attempts to deal with similar situations, but the manner was entirely different. If there was more of truth, there was less of charm. In Tennyson's idylls much may be sad, but all is beautiful. Allied with these in spirit, but lyrical in form, were the poems "Lady Clare," "The Lord of Burleigh," and "The Talking Oak," even more popular than the others, because they sang themselves into the common heart. In the same volume were three dramatic poems, two of them dramatic lyrics of great force and beauty, "St. Agnes" and "Sir Galahad." But "St. Simeon Stylites" is a poem made of sterner stuff. It may be doubted whether Browning could have created a St. Simeon with so little of himself in it as there is of Tennyson in Tennyson's Saint. The superficial humility and essential arrogance of the ascetic temper no one could express more perfectly.

Tennyson's volumes of 1830 and 1833 had contained nominal songs, but they did not sing, and they could not be sung. In the volume of 1842 appeared the first of many that sing, although unsung, but which have naturally invited the composer's skill, and so have had much wider currency than they might otherwise have had. But the cap-sheaf of beauty and of power in the new volume was the "Ulysses." When we said that there was better in the volume even than the "Morte d'Arthur," we had this in mind. When Wordsworth died in 1850, and the question of his successor came up, Sir Robert Peel was consulted, but he had never read anything of Tennyson. The "Ulysses" was urged on his attention, and he had no doubt that Tennyson would answer for the post. Thackeray's daughter, Mrs. Ritchie, tells the story, which is doubtful, but which ought to be true whether it is or not.

In the interval between his volume of 1842 and his laureateship, Tennyson had published two important works: in 1847 'The Princess,' and in 1850 'In Memoriam.' 'The Princess' was indeed "A Medley" as it was called—a medley of mediæval situation and modern thought, of pleasant humor and of serious purpose. There was much difference of opinion about it, as subsequently about 'Maud' and the second 'Locksley Hall.' But it was as a pamphlet against "woman's rights," which it was never meant to be, and not as a poem, among the lovers of good poetry, that it failed to satisfy. It did but make the "woman's rights" agitation an excuse for a semi-humorous, wholly earnest poem of ideal womanhood. As it went on, the serious purpose grew and had at length exclusive sway. It was one of many contributions from the poet to the nobilities and sanctities of wedded life. The true relationship of man and woman has never found more grand and beautiful expression than in the closing part. Strangely enough, the songs which serve as interludes between the different parts were absent from the first edition, but we have Tennyson's assurance, in a published letter, that they were not an afterthought, and that the child of the songs is the hero of the whole performance.

'In Memoriam' appeared anonymously in 1850, but the disguise was very shortly dropped. The poem throws little light on the development of Tennyson's genius, because it was not written after 'The Princess,' but, piece after piece, all the way along from Hallam's death in 1833. It is a journal of the poet's sorrow during the interval between that date and 1850. It becomes less individual, more universal, as the years go by. The poet's private sorrow opens out into a hundred aspects of the pain and mystery, the wonder and the joy, of human life. The progress of the poem is from doubt to faith. It closes to the sound of marriage-bells. Its earlier parts, relating to the death and burial of the poet's friend, were written shortly after his death. They are distinctly inferior to the later parts that take a broader sweep. These reveal him as profoundly agitated by the deepest scientific and religious questions of his time, but holding fast his faith in God and man. The essentially poetical character of the concepts of modern science has not been so clearly conceived by any other poet, and he expressed them in the language of poetry without violation of their truth. 'In Memoriam' is a factor that must be reckoned with in the religious life of the Victorian times. It has brought strength and peace to thousands. It has winged the thought of many earnest preachers to its mark.

As the official poet of the realm, Tennyson's first poem was upon the death of Wellington. Hardly could it have been better if it had not been official. His laureate work was seldom of his best, or even moderately good. Only certain dedications to the Queen are of his proper height. 'Maud' was published in 1855, and Tennyson's own dissatisfaction with it, proved by his remorseless revision, has been widely shared. The garden song in it was its best justification. It was always difficult for Tennyson to depict a violent passion otherwise than as hysterical. In 1859 appeared the 'Idylls of the King'—"Enid," "Vivien," "Elaine," and "Guinevere." The number was afterwards increased, but the additions are not generally equal to the original set. "The Passing of Arthur" is certainly at the poet's best, but that is an expansion of the "Morte d'Arthur," and the wise reader will prefer the shorter poem in its original setting. No afterthought can make an epic poem, and it is a matter for regret that Tennyson chose at length to offer the Idylls as an Arthurian Epic. They have not that cohesion and that cumulative force which is rightfully expected of an epic. As an interpretation of the spirit of the Arthurian legend as we find it in Sir Thomas Malory, they cannot be pronounced a great success. Mr. Arnold's "Tristram and Iseult" is nearer to the mark. But they abound in noble passages, and the "Guinevere" rises at length to a height of tragic feeling that has seldom been surpassed.

We can do no more than mention in their order the principal publications of Tennyson after the 'Idylls of the King.' 'Enoch Arden' appeared in 1864, the 'Holy Grail' in 1869, 'Songs of the Wrens' in 1870, 'Gareth and Lynette' in 1872, the dramas "Queen Mary" and "Harold" in 1875 and 1876, and "Becket" in 1884, of which the first in time was first in power; the 'Lover's Tale' in 1879, and about the same time 'Ballads and Poems'; in 1881 and 1882 three minor dramas, "The Cup," "The Falcon," and "The Promise of May"; in 1886 'Locksley Hall Sixty Years After'; in 1889 'Demeter, and Other Poems'; in 1892 "The Foresters." With the poems naming the successive books there were frequently poems of greater value than the more ambitious in whose train they followed, "Lucretius" and "Tithonus" for example. "Queen Mary" and "Becket" were put upon the stage, as also the three minor dramas, but without much success. Tennyson's lack of humor was conspicuous in his clowns in "Becket." Less "excellent fooling" it would be hard to find. "Locksley Hall Sixty Years After" brought about his ears a clashing storm of rival sympathies. Mr. Gladstone met its pessimistic plaint with a clear showing of the gains of sixty years. But Tennyson's poem was not unworthy of his fame. It contains a vision of the future as encouraging as anything in the earlier "Locksley Hall" and in perfect keeping with the even tenor of his life, not "noises of a current narrowing," but "the music of a deep."

In Tennyson the poet was exhaustive of the man to a remarkable degree. He existed for the general public only as a poet. He stood at the opposite extreme from Byron's engrossing personality. The man behind the poet was a mystery—an inviolable shade which vulgar curiosity essayed to grasp in vain. His aloofness was of a kind that makes Emerson seem in comparison the most sociable of men. In his youth he had great capacity for friendship within narrow bounds. At Cambridge he was one of Whewell's men, and among these he found his early friends—Arthur Hallam chief; Fitzgerald, the translator of Omar Khayyám, the "Old Fitz" of one of the most beautiful poems of his later life; Milnes, Trench, Maurice, Spedding, and "the lost light of those dawn-golden times," the Rev. W. H. Brookfield, to whom, with his wife, Thackeray wrote those delightful letters that were published in 1887. With Thackeray and Carlyle he had friendliest relations further on, and with Gladstone all along from the time when Hallam was their common friend. He was dining with Thackeray when his little girl asked him why he didn't write books like 'Nicholas Nickleby.' Oxford gave him the degree of D.C.L. in 1865, and his own Cambridge Trinity made haste to do the same. In 1869 he was made an honorary fellow of Trinity, and his bust was placed in

the College library. In December, 1883, he was made Baron Tennyson of Aldworth, Sussex, and Freshwater, Isle of Wight.

There was never a more purely literary life, and never a literary life confined more closely to a single line of work. Many poets have written a good deal of prose, at least with their left hand. Tennyson confined himself to poetry with a tenacity and exclusiveness strangely matched by the opposing genius of his time. He was devoted to ideal excellence. He was not easily satisfied with his own performance, but ever returned upon it with a critic's eye and a courageous hand. No other poet has made so many changes in his published works. By this sign he was preëminently the artist among poets. The spontaneous conception was wrought out with infinite patience. Every cadence, every word was challenged and assayed. The result was a unique external beauty and perfection, while of high imagination and delightful fancy, soaring thoughts and earnest purpose, there was never any lack in the full tide of his career. The penalty of Tennyson's seclusion was at length a mind distrustful of all present tendencies of thought and action. When Gladstone, ever in the thickest of the fight, grew from a straight-laced Tory into a hopeful Liberal, his friend changed from a hopeful Liberal into the representative aristocrat and Tory of his time. There was nothing in his work corresponding to the blows which Whittier and Lowell struck for freedom in America. He was lotus-eating all the time that Ebenezer Elliott was making Corn Law rhymes. But he never lent his art to any baseness or impurity. He was ever the poet of all those renunciations and fidelities which are the safeguards of domestic peace and love, of that obedience to law which is essential to political progress, of the joy of widening knowledge and of deepening faith. Yet his most characteristic service was not in virtue of these things. It was in virtue of his lifelong passion of admiration for all beautiful things, and his creation of a body of verse which, marvellous in its range of matter and of form, and full of music, warmth, and color, has given to us many hours of stainless joy.

THE PARIS EXHIBITION OF EARLY AMERICAN MAPS.

PARIS, September 13, 1892.

WHEN the Duke de Mandas was appointed ambassador of Spain to Paris, one of his first cares, after he had taken possession of his post, was to select a committee in furtherance of the project originated by him of an exhibition to celebrate the fourth centennial of the discovery of America. Administrators of the great public institutions—the Foreign Office, Navy Department, War Office, National Archives and Library—able to assist the project, were called upon to search zealously for desirable material. The exhibition contemplated by the Duke was to be held at Madrid. The fact that it was to be outside of France caused difficulties. A special law would have to be passed to authorize the loan of such manuscripts, documents, or objects, the property of public institutions, if these objects were to be taken out of France. No later than 1889, at the Universal Exposition, the exhibits contributed by the Government could not have left their places of keeping without such a law. So, with this obstacle in view, which did not seem easy to overcome, preparations progressed without much spirit, and perhaps the project would have had to be abandoned had it not been taken up in another form. M. Gabriel Marcel, librarian of the geographical department at the National Library, suggested that the centennial might be celebrated in Paris, and that a proper search among the riches of the French archives would produce an exhibition of maps pertaining to the discovery of America quite equal to the occasion. This idea was received with enthusiasm. It did more than gratify national pride; it drew a thorn out of the side of the Committee. The Ambassador of Spain could be told that if France declined the loan of the pieces needed for the projected exposition at Madrid, it was because there was to be a like exposition in Paris—a better answer than to keep on objecting that there were no precedents for making such loans abroad. It may be added that the excuse was accepted in its true spirit. On the opening of the exposition at the National Library, July 13, the Ambassador of Spain was not present, nor has he visited it at all.

This very interesting exhibition cannot be said to have been opened at a favorable time of year. By mid-July, Paris is well-nigh emptied. In particular that portion of the public which makes it a point to be absent when the "fête nationale" comes round, was missing. It was fully two months later than first intended, for it was announced to be ready by May; but no one who followed the preliminaries can wonder at the delay. The colossal researches in dusty portfolios; the endless sorting to reach a final choice; and, above all, the extensive correspondence between the different institutions concerned in order to settle matters, sufficiently account for the want of punctuality. As may be supposed, the Navy Department's share in the exhibition far exceeds all others. Three private collections also have contributed to the success of the exhibition, viz., those belonging to Prof. Hamy of the Institute, President of the Committee; to M. H. Harrisse, and M. H. Duhamel. Two hundred and eighty-nine numbers make up the catalogue, or as many headings, we should say more rightly; for often under one heading a whole series, a whole collection, figures by itself. The order of the exhibits in the catalogue freely disregards chronology, and the same thing is true of the disposition of the maps and atlases on the walls and tables of the exhibition rooms. As in a collection of pictures, the maps are arranged so as to produce as harmonious an effect as possible. As a sign of *ralliement* for the amateur visitor, who might feel at first a little perplexed by the display of the most ancient documents, dates or approximate epochs of the maps have been affixed to the titles; but what better guidance could he desire than that of the amiable librarian who so readily offers himself as cicerone in doing the honors, scattering anecdotes and bits of information not included in the programme?

It is instructive to begin with a glance at a rare piece belonging to the National Library (No. 43 of the catalogue). This is a portolano representing Europe, part of Asia and Africa, and certain fabulous lands. It is almost filled with allegorical figures. In the north seas we see a boat chasing a whale. The legend is: "Mecia de Viladestes me fecit in anno 1413." This portolano is in striking contrast with the maps contemporary with the discovery of America, viz., (1) the map of Juan de la Cosa, pilot of Columbus (1500), now in Madrid; (2) the map of Alberto Cantino (end of 1501) in Ferrara; (3) an anonymous Portuguese map (1502), belonging to Prof. Hamy; (4) the map of Nicholas Canerio (end of 1502), belonging to the Navy Department; (5) a portolano dated 1504 at Munich. Of these five maps only two originals figure at the exhibition—those loaned by Prof. Hamy and the Navy Department. Facsimiles represent the remaining three. With regard to the map of Juan de la Cosa, now in the Navy Department at Madrid, and once the property of Baron Walkenaer, as well known to geographers as to the admirers of Mme. de Sévigné, M. Marcel is doubtful of its authenticity. His reasons are that it has too many Spanish words misspelt to be the work of an educated Spaniard; then, the islands of the West Indies are too well represented, and differ too much from what is seen on other maps of the same period.

The map of Nicholas Canerio (No. 9) was not made in Italy. Canerio came, from Genoa, but at that time a number of Italian scientists were employed in Seville and in Lisbon. The influence of both these centres is so apparent on Canerio's map that it goes by the name of the Hispano-Portuguese portolano. The West Indies are very correctly described on it; so are the discoveries of Vespucius and of Columbus, which not only are rich in nomenclature, but are joined together by a straight line of coasts—which juncture may be regarded as an ingenious piece of initiative on the part of a wise cartographer. These details go far to prove that he must have had knowledge of the original map of which Alberto Cantino sent a copy to the Duke of Este; also, that he must have been guided by the revelations of some clandestine explorer. No official voyage took place in 1502, but we can admit as plausible that a handful of navigators, incited by Columbus's example and encouraged by the privileges granted him and the benefits they hoped to derive, undertook to do as much as the official explorer of Spain. A curious feature of Cantino's map is the representation on it of Mexico and the land of Florida under the Spanish flag.

The Portuguese portolano exhibited by Prof. Hamy (No. 34) was bought by him in England of a navigator named King. On it, as on the preceding map, the West Indies are very correctly outlined. So are the coasts reconnoitred by Columbus and Ojeda, and those seen by Vespucius, but *separated*. This map is particularly interesting by reason of the position given to the Portuguese discoveries, so as to place them within the line of demarcation fixed by Pope Alexander VI. This line is positively indicated on the Cantino map in blue, and divides it in two. Indeed, it may be remarked generally of Portuguese maps of that time that Cortereälis, Labrador, and Greenland are always much too close to Europe—no involuntary error, but a ruse to bring the regions explored by Portugal within the zone reserved to that country in accordance with the limits prescribed by Alexander VI. In short, any map that bends the coasts of North America eastward in a deceptive circle, may be looked upon as inspired by a Portuguese document.

All these early maps relative to the discovery of the New World are manuscripts. The first engraved map representing America appeared in the edition of Ptolemy published by Ruysch in 1508. This does not differ greatly from its forerunners. Then comes the map of Ptolemy dated 1513, and a wooden globe of the same period called the green globe (No. 23), which has been described at length by M. Marcel in the *Bulletin de Géographie Historique et Descriptive*—and rightly, for it is one of the most precious pieces in the Department of

Cartography. On this globe the Panama Canal would seem to exist. The eastern coasts of America, from Carolina to the mouth of the La Plata, are indicated, but in a very rudimentary way; and this is especially true of the Gulf of Mexico. The chief interest of the globe consists in the fact that the name of America is inscribed on it four times. This globe was brought from Italy by Count Riant, and is very likely the work of Schöner.

The progress of the history of the discovery of America may be followed on three other globes of almost equal interest. (1) *Le globe doré* (No. 42), dated 1527, written wholly in Latin and entitled "Nova et integra universi orbs [*sic*] descriptio," is curious as showing America and Asia as one continent, still in accordance with the ideas of Columbus on his first landing. In Peru there are no signs of the expedition of Pizarro, while the itinerary of Magellan is very closely indicated. Doubtless the geographer who made this globe was inspired by Verrazzano's expedition in 1525. (2) *Le globe de bois* (No. 33 *bis*), of uncouth workmanship, was also brought from Italy by Count Riant; its date, between 1532 and 1535, may be conjectured from the fact that in Peru is found the name of St. Michael, the town founded by Pizarro to celebrate his victory over the natives in 1531. (3) *Le globe de cuivre* (No. 46), dating from the later part of the sixteenth century, comes from the library of the Abbé Lémy, who died Vicar-General of Paris. This globe is of admirable workmanship, the engraving being due to an inhabitant of Rouen, as the title bears witness: "Nova et integra universi orbis descriptio, Rhotomagi." America and Asia are two distinct continents on this globe. A Latin inscription placed on the straits which later were to bear the name of Bering, explains why the author made that division, and how he had been guided in his work by more recent and more reliable documents. The expedition of Frobisher to the polar seas is registered on this globe.

Numerous are the maps, dating from the sixteenth century, of Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and French origin, wherewith to follow the study of that epoch. We will mention but three of these as curiosities. A Portuguese portolano (No. 1 of the catalogue), signed Gasp. Viegas, is dated 1534, the year in which Jacques Cartier sailed for the first time to New France. This map gives Newfoundland and the coast of Brazil down to the mouth of the La Plata. A planisphere of 1550 (No. 19) indicates the coast of America from Labrador southward beyond the Amazon River. It is the work of D. Guttierez, the younger, the same who, as cosmographer-major of Spain, was deprived of his title and imprisoned because he had infringed the jealous law by which his Government forbade officials to draw or sell maps, globes, or nautical instruments to private parties. A French portolano by Guillaume Le Testu (No. 26) is a fine map of equatorial projection, dated 1556, whose beauty of execution cannot be described. Artistic design is characteristic of the French school of hydrography. In the works of that galaxy, the Duponts of Dieppe, J. Guérard, G. Levasseur, P. Descellers, Nicholas Desliens, P. Devaulx of Havre, the eye is forcibly struck by the artistic quality, united with scientific precision, which seems to have found its last word in an atlas by that same Guillaume Le Testu (No. 181) loaned by the War Office. Seventy maps, many of them bearing the arms of Admiral de Coligny, to whom the atlas was dedicated, make of this scientific work a marvel of art. It is dated April 5, 1555.

If we pass to the next century, there is a loan from the Navy Department (No. 131), a very large map of North and South America, extending from Cayenne to Hudson's Bay, worthy to be kept under glass. The title is decorated with allegorical designs painted in gouache by a hand that doubtless painted fans for queens. It is anonymous and without date; however, it is regarded as anterior to 1682, because the Mississippi River (then the Colbert River) stops at its junction with the Ohio. The first discoveries on that river by the Cavelier de La Salle are marked. So, very distinctly, are those of Père Marquette and of Joliet. This map is specially valuable to the French inasmuch as the great Western lakes bear the names first given them. Thus, Lake Superior is called: *Lac de Tracy, dit de Condé;* Lake "Michiganong" has as sub-title *Grand Lac des Illinois, dit Dauphin;* Lake Huron, *dit d'Orléans;* Lake Erie, *dit de Conty;* and Lake Ontario figures as *Lac de Frontenac*, the name of the then Governor of New France.

The exhibition is rich in documents pertaining to the United States; and in presence of the display of such maps due to French explorers or travellers, one feels willing to admit that if Spain can claim the chief rôle in the discovery of America, few countries in subsequent years did more than France in the progressive reconnoitring of that vast continent. The first map on which Chicago is mentioned is by a Frenchman, Jean-Baptiste Louis Franquelin, who calls Chicago *Fort Checagou.* This map (No. 161, dated 1688) is very extensive; it gives the lands of Canada, Louisiana, Florida, Virginia, New Sweden, New York, New England, Acadia, Newfoundland. No. 284 begins a long series of maps on the course of the Mississippi, dating from 1699 through the first quarter of the eighteenth century. Subsequently, Nos. 47 and 92 show us maps of the course of the Mississippi that served the expedition of Gen. Callot—large, important maps, including views of Pittsburg, Natchez, Baton-Rouge in 1796, also sketches of the rapids on the Ohio and portraits of Indians by the pencil of an eighteenth-century artist. Of a still later epoch is a splendid map (No. 39) of the mouth of the Mississippi in 1804, which was brought to France by M. Laussat, colonial prefect of Louisiana. Then, at epochs more or less distant from us, there are the plans of Philadelphia, of Albany, of Boston, in 1697 (No. 35), by J. B. L. Franquelin, who calls the capital of Massachusetts *Baston;* of New Orleans in 1720 (No. 85), by M. de Beauviliers, showing just three cabins; and of the same city twenty years later, already an American city laid out in squares. But the first map of New York (No. 277) is not by a Frenchman: "Manatus, drawn on the spot by Joan Vingboous in 1639, for the Dutch East India Company," reads the heading. In a corner are inscribed the names of the Battery and Fort Amsterdam, of the three windmills, and of the forty-five first Dutch settlers who occupied the forty-five houses which were the nucleus of the future New York. It would give me pleasure to jot down these names had not M. Harrisse, the owner of the document, reserved this information for a work in preparation.

In the maps relating to the French colonies the colonial history of that country is found complete. It is enough to enumerate the collections pertaining to San Domingo, Guiana, Cayenne, especially this last colony, from the morrow of its settlement to the second half of the eighteenth century. These maps are often so comprehensive that the names of planters and the numbers of their negroes, the nomenclature of agriculture, the population of the Indian tribes—warriors, women, and children—are registered. Certainly not the least curious of these is the map of Cayenne (No. 105), decorated with the view of the island in 1667 designed by Israel Silvestre, and (to prove that the process of colonization has always been the same) a flowery advertisement, vaunting the delicious climate and fertility of Cayenne, and offering besides to emigrants a free passage and provisions until able to repay the authors of that pretty *réclame*. About Canada there is still more: the aspect of the old settlements revives under our eyes. And while speaking of Canada, I must record another of M. Harrisse's treasures (No. 188), a handsome map on parchment, unpublished and autographic, dated 1608. Champlain's own hand has traced on that parchment the coasts, ports, isles, and seas of New France.

The next number to this (No. 188 *bis*) is the jewel of the exhibition. It is a MS. volume dated 1502 and emblazoned on the first page with the arms of Christopher Columbus. In this volume have been transcribed by two notaries copies of all the privileges, all the nominations, all the cessions and other acts passed in behalf of Columbus by the Catholic kings. Papers are perishable, he bethought him, and a triple copy of that cartularium was made. One is lost, one is in Genoa, and this one, property of the archives of the Foreign Office in France, is the most complete. We are pleased to think that Columbus loved to refer to these pages in the hour of his adversity, and with that thought we look upon this book as more than an historical document—as a very relic of the great navigator himself.

Le Cocq de Lautreppe.

LAMARTINE AND MADAME CHARLES.

Paris, September 28, 1892.

All great poets have had an inspirer—Dante, Tasso, Shakspere, Racine. Lamartine had Elvire; it was in memory of Elvire that he wrote his finest Meditation, "The Lake." But did Elvire really exist, or was she merely a creature of the imagination? And if she existed, had she any of the characters of Beatrice, of Laura? Was there but one Elvire, or were there many Elvires? This question has recently been treated with new details and inedited documents by M. Anatole France, the literary critic of the *Temps*, a delicate writer himself, who has written, besides a number of critical articles, several novels which are not at all in the realistic vein of the day. M. France has, if I may say so, a Lamartinian soul—that is to say, he has a touch of grace and gravity and elevation which have become rather rare, and his study on Elvire shows that he, at least, has not forgotten the author of the "Poetic Meditations," who, with Musset and Victor Hugo, formed the great poetical trinity of our time.

M. Anatole France found in the rich cabinet of autographs of M. Étienne Charavay a certain number of letters by Mme. Charles, wife of a scientist famous in his time. He tells us, what we knew already, that Mme. Charles was Lamartine's Elvire, and he gives us many interesting details concerning the enthusiastic young woman who inspired Lamartine with an eloquent passion. Lamartine gives a part of the story of Mme. Charles in his "Raphael." He relates that Julie, a Creole brought to France from San Domingo at the age of six years, an orphan, was educated at the National School of Saint Denis, where she was visited by an old

man who, when she reached the age of seventeen and was on the point of entering the world, having no relations or friends, offered her his home, and proposed to her, "in the eyes of the world and only for the world, the name, the hand, the attachment of an old man, who, under the name of a husband, would only be her father." M. France gives no more details; he could not even ascertain where she was born. She was Mlle. de Desherettes. She still had her father, and was living with him at Lagrange, near Tours, when she married. Lamartine killed the father in his novel, and perhaps he did well, as he seems to have been an old drunkard, caring only for horses and guns. Her first suitor was M. Charles, who was fifty-two years of age, a man of most agreeable manners, who had already attained a great reputation. He had studied science, especially electricity, and given lectures before Franklin and Volta. He made curious experiments on thunder-storms, and substituted for the first balloons invented by Montgolfier, which were filled merely with hot air, balloons full of hydrogen. He made several ascensions in these balloons, and his name had attained an immense popularity. You will find it even on many old plates sold in the villages, representing coarsely the first ascensions of balloons. Louis XVI. was much interested in balloons and gave Charles a pension out of his private purse.

His marriage with Julie de Desherettes was celebrated at the beginning of August, 1804. In a letter written to his friend Morel de Vindé, on July 23, 1804, Charles announces his return to Paris: "Surely Julie is worth all the trouble which possession of her has cost me; there is hardly a novel which contains more curious and interesting incidents and characters than have been found in this succession of family pictures. . . . Western [Squire Western of 'Tom Jones'] is nothing compared to my father-in-law. Julie's uncle is an excellent man, who reminds one of Allworthy. Without him, his extreme kindness and his obliging care, the poor child would have died long ago." Julie remained all her life an invalid, and, as M. Anatole France says, "she did well for her glory to live at a time when consumption was charming in a woman." Julie was very fortunate in passing from the hands of a brutal and irrational father into those of the most considerate of men.

Morel de Vindé was a writer. In 1789 he was a counsellor in the Parlement of Paris. He had espoused the principles of the Revolution, and was a constitutional monarchist. He retired to the country during the Terror, and succeeded in being forgotten. "What have you been doing?" some one inquired of Sieyès after the Terror. "I have lived." Morel de Vindé lived also. He bought a fine house after the Revolution at the Celle Saint-Cloud. He and his wife saw much of M. and Mme. Charles. This lady seems to have been one of the patronizing kind who are never tired of promoting the interests of their friends. She forced, so to speak, Morel de Vindé into the Institute; he was appointed, partly by her efforts, to the Section of Agriculture in the Academy of the Moral and Political Sciences, which has always been a sort of *caput mortuum* of the Institute. Charles about that time became ill; he suffered much from the stone, but with philosophy and courage. He had now an apartment in the buildings of the Institute, where he and his wife held a salon and received very good company. Their most intimate friend was Mounier, whom the Emperor Napoleon had found an *auditeur* at the Council of State, and had made during the Prussian campaign an *intendant* in the Duchy of Weimar, afterwards an administrator in Silesia. In 1808 Mounier was attached to his Cabinet as translator from foreign newspapers. He followed Napoleon in his campaigns, was made a baron, and received many favors—among the rest a great domain in Pomerania. Mounier was quickly reconciled to the Bourbons, and remained intendant of the royal palaces. Mme. Charles was a constant visitor at the hôtel in the Place Vendôme where the Mouniers lived.

She had always been delicate, but became quite ill in 1816, and the doctors ordered her to go to Aix. The journey was a long one at that time, and her husband could not accompany her. If she did not find health at Aix, says M. France, she found immortality, for there she met with Lamartine, a young man of twenty-six, very handsome and eloquent, full of imagination and of genius. Lamartine had palpitations of the heart, or thought he had. Mme. Charles's beauty made at once a great impression on him. He had always lived the life of a country gentleman, and had a sort of innocence; he was prepared for love, for a great passion. He wrote to his friend Virieu some time before he saw Mme. Charles: "I feel my heart as full of sad and delicious sentiments as during the first fever of my youth. I don't know what vague and sublime and infinite thoughts pass through my head every moment. . . . If, for my misfortune, I should find one of those women whom I once saw in my dreams, I would love her as much as man ever loved." This woman had now come, a vague apparition, with her poetic air, and, let us also say, with intelligence and heart enough to captivate a man—with something more than physical charms; a complete woman, but, alas! one who could not be much more to him than a dream, for her days were already numbered. Shall we examine with a critical eye into the real nature of the relations between Mme. Charles and Lamartine? I confess that I prefer not to do so, and I find it rather indiscreet in M. France, since the mystery has never been resolved, to try so hard to discover the exact significance of such words as "délices sublimes," "extases sublimes," which he encounters in "Le Lac" as it was printed, and in the manuscript of it kept by the niece of M. de Lamartine. The poet's language is not precise; do not let us be too precise ourselves.

Are the letters of Julie to Lamartine still in existence, or have they been burned? The question is discussed at length by M. France, but somewhat uselessly. Such letters, if they still exist, are not likely, if we understand Mme. Charles aright, to let us know very exactly what M. France wishes to know. I imagine that they are full of the most passionate affection, of the most enthusiastic admiration and interest; but I can hardly imagine that they could give us the key of the mystery. And, after all, why should we care to lift the veil? Why should we not be content with reading the beautiful poems inspired by Mme. Charles—"Le Lac," "L'Immortalité," "Le Temple," "Le Crucifix"? Whoever inspired such verses received more from the man who wrote them than anything she could give him. The letters of Mme. Charles make the impression of a very nervous, impressionable, excitable person, but her language is always what we call *châtié*, or very correct.

On her return to Paris, Mme. Charles recommended Lamartine to Baron Mounier. When the great poet came to Paris, she presented him to all her friends, and among others to M. Reyneval, as Lamartine was anxious to enter on a diplomatic career. He returned, after a short stay in Paris, to Moulins, and then to Mâcon. Mme. Charles grew worse; she spent the summer of 1817 in the woods of Viroflay, near Versailles. We have a few of the letters which she wrote from that charming retreat, then very deserted, to her friend Mounier; they are full of the expressions of an almost morbid friendship. She felt herself going. "Life is long, very long," she said. It is long for those who suffer. She spent two or three hours a day in her garden, all alone, thinking surely of young Lamartine, of her poet, of the man who had crossed her life a moment and left behind him a luminous trace. Her last letter to Mounier was written on the 15th of September, 1817. Lamartine began "The Lake" the day before; he knew that she was lost, and wrote as if she were already dead. He finished his celebrated ode on the 23d of September. Julie died only at the end of December. M. de Virieu took the crucifix which had been placed on her death-bed and sent it to Lamartine. When he received the fatal news, Lamartine wandered three days and three nights in the woods; then he went to work again, and worked at a tragedy of Saul.

Charles survived his wife by five months, and was buried on the 9th of April in the Cemetery of Père Lachaise. His tomb is there still; as for Julie, she was buried in the cemetery of Saint John, near the Hôtel de Ville—a cemetery which no longer exists, as the Rue de Rivoli was built through it. Her mortal remains are lost, but her name will live as long as the name of Lamartine.

Correspondence.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your discriminating editorial on the University of Chicago contains some statements which unfortunately are based on a misunderstanding of the purposes of this institution, and I beg the courtesy of space to make some explanations.

(1.) In speaking of the "group system," it is stated that "to obtain the degree of A. B. the student must devote . . . at least one-third of his junior and senior years to mathematics, languages, and the political and social sciences." This means, however, that he must take one-third of his work in the departments of Philosophy, Political Economy, Political Science, History, Social Science, Semitic Languages, Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Romance Languages, German, English, Biblical Literature, and Mathematics; while he may take two-thirds of his work in the remaining departments of Astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Geology. In short, it is no practical limitation to free choice.

(2.) Nor is it correct to say that "each student is held to attend fifteen hours of class-room work per week"; for, at the discretion of the instructor, some of the fifteen hours credited to the student may not be class-room work.

(3.) The reason for the concentration upon a few subjects at one time is admirably stated in your words: "This is an interesting reaction against the scattering system now in vogue. In many of our colleges the time of the student is frittered away in one-hour and two-hour courses, and his attention distracted

by the pursuit of half-a-dozen different subjects at once." But you think the reaction has been carried too far when students are "crammed" with eight or ten hours a week of some subject. In truth, this arrangement is not so novel as it seems, for in any institution providing many electives this is even now adopted. A student at Harvard, for example, can take nine hours per week (or three full courses) throughout the year in Political Economy. Here, the student who takes two of our "minors," or a major, is doing essentially the same thing. Moreover, any major of six weeks is followed by a second examination twelve weeks later, with exercises once a week throughout this period. So that intensity of impression may go with duration of impression, as urged by you.

(4.) The plan of work is also misunderstood in all you have said in the paragraph which urges the impossibility of expecting fifteen hours a week from university students of work which is really not different from that in the German "seminaria." The mistake is in thinking this work is all to be done in the classroom and not in the library. And it is hardly credible that men of scholarship will have seminaries which are like "sophomore debating societies" in this University any more than in the institutions which they have just left.

(5.) A complete misunderstanding also exists in that part of your editorial in which you explain that a student is not permitted "to determine for himself on what lines he will do his chief work, *i. e.*, that he should make his own major." Nothing whatever in the Calendar, or in the University system as known to me, prevents a student from taking, at his pleasure, any subject as a major when studying for his degree. The mistake may have arisen from not knowing that the terms "major" and "minor" are used (much as are "full-course" and "half-course" at Harvard) merely as the amount of credit to be counted by a student towards the total work demanded for a degree. These terms do not signify that the kind of work done in a "minor" is less important than that done in a "major."

(6.) Nor do we "crudely measure the student's work by hours of attendance in the class-room." Although, by way of illustration, my own Seminary in Political Economy is announced as a credit of four hours a week, it is quite within my discretion to give to a student whose work deserves it a credit of eight hours a week.

It is natural that misunderstanding should arise from the introduction of new terms; and for this reason I venture to ask you to allow me to make the above explanations. The sure test of the standards set up by the University of Chicago is to be found in its administration of the requirements for admission. Out of the numerous applicants only 100 were admitted to the freshman class, and of the more numerous applications of special students only sixty were admitted, while the graduate students number more than those of any other group, or, on the day of opening, October 1, about 130. Those admitted to advanced standing from other institutions numbered 85. These figures, however, do not indicate all that may yet be expected in the next few days.

Yours truly, J. Laurence Laughlin.

University of Chicago,
Chicago, October 1, 1892.

[Prof. Laughlin has quite missed the point of some of our remarks. We did not criticise the Chicago requirements for the bachelor's degree as a "practical limitation [of] free choice"; we praised them because every course open to the student, including that which leads to the B.S., contains all the essential elements of a liberal education. Our only criticism touched the differentiation of the baccalaureate degrees.

We criticised the five and ten-hour courses in the "academic colleges," not because fifteen hours a week is too much class-room work for freshmen and sophomores, but because these students, in our opinion, are not mature enough to concentrate their energies, with permanent advantage, upon only two subjects at a time. Prof. Laughlin's comparison of a ten-hour course in a single *subject* at Chicago with a combination of three three-hour courses in a single *department* at Harvard is not quite fair. Political economy, for example, includes a great variety of subjects, and it is hardly likely that at Harvard any three courses in political economy could be taken simultaneously that would not differ widely in matter and treatment. If the contrary is the case, we make bold to disapprove *pro tanto* of Harvard.

Touching the question of "duration of impression" left by a ten-hour course despatched in six weeks, it is, again, not quite fair of Prof. Laughlin to cite the requirement of a second examination twelve weeks later, and refrain from citing the provision which immediately follows that requirement, viz.: "But the student whose term grade has been sufficiently high . . . may, if he desire, substitute for the second examination new material in the same department of study equal in amount to one-quarter of that included in the work of the term." That is, the students who have "crammed" most successfully for six weeks, and who distrust the duration of the impression, may avoid the test upon which Prof. Laughlin insists by more cramming.

To the ten-hour courses in the higher years we took exception on other grounds. We said that it was a mistake to carry into the "university" years the system of measuring performance by hours of class-room attendance. This, Prof. Laughlin says, is not done. The regulations, indeed, are identical for under-classmen, upper-classmen, and graduates; they say that a student must elect two majors and two minors in each quarter, or, in other words, courses representing twelve to fifteen hours a week; but these, we learn, are merely "credit" hours. The student may attend the class-room but four hours and receive a credit of eight hours. This is interesting news; but it does not affect our contention that this method of measurement, when applied to university work, and particularly to that of the graduate students, is a crude method. The candidates for the master's degree, instead of designating from quarter to quarter what "credits" they propose to pursue, ought to indicate in what subjects they propose to achieve mastery; and the only question should be, not one of hours or credits, but of actual achievement.

We said, again, that attendance on lectures and "seminaria" for twelve or fifteen hours a week was too much to ask of an advanced student. We are glad to see that Prof. Laughlin agrees with us, and proposes to reduce the hours by the credit system. We pointed out that a seminarium holding sessions for eight or ten hours a week was an absurdity. We said that *if* the students were encouraged or permitted to "discuss" through anything like that number of hours, the seminarium would degenerate into a sophomoric debating club. We did not say that the Chicago professors would be likely to tolerate such a result: we expressly indicated our belief that they would not. We predicted that they would do most of the talking themselves, and that these courses would become lecture-courses. As such we held that they were still too long.

We are glad, we repeat, that Prof. Laughlin not only agrees with us, but has discovered a remedy for these evils. The credit system, liberally employed, will undoubtedly correct them; and if this system shall become general at Chicago, as we hope it will, our objections to the long courses will have received from the University itself the most flattering of endorsements. But something should be said about it in the Calendar. Other colleges that employ the credit system are in the habit of indicating it. If a two-hour course is to count for four, they say so in print. The Chicago Calendar says nothing of the sort, and Prof. Laughlin cannot blame us for reckoning by the Calendar. —Ed. Nation.]

"VERY PLEASED."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "M. C. L.," dating from your city, remarks, with strict fidelity to facts, in to-day's issue of *Notes and Queries*, that the collocation which heads this letter "seems to be a common English locution; but it is not used here, except by those who take it from English people."

With regard to *very satisfied* and *very pleased*, the late Mr. George P. Marsh, reporting his experience in the last generation, says that "we not unfrequently hear such expressions," and that "the inclination, in this country, is to enlarge" the category to which they belong. If, however, Mr. Marsh had explored more diligently, he would have merely recorded such a discriminating judgment as that of "M. C. L." The "inclination" which he asserts is not indicated by the literature of America a whit more than by the literature of England, if, indeed, as much. See, for the words quoted, *Lectures on the English Language* (1860), p. 658.

Here in Great Britain, almost as a rule, whoever is revolted by any given form of speech is pretty sure to assume, or else to be easily persuaded, that the discredit of originating it attaches to our countrymen. Not at all unexpectedly, then, they have been saddled with the paternity of *very pleased*.

Informed that this phrase should be held in contempt, Professor F. Maximilian Müller, conciliatively Anglicizing, has classed it among linguistic depravations for which we are responsible. In the third edition of his *Lectures on the Science of Language*, p. 29, he enounces, with the confidence of a person retailing a scientific axiom: "In fact, 'very pleased' and 'very delighted' are Americanisms which may be heard even in this country." But this was destined to emendation; and, according to the fourth edition of the same *Lectures*, p. 40, *very pleased* and *very delighted* are simply "expressions which may be heard in many drawing-rooms." What farther discoveries Professor Müller may have made respecting the expressions, it must be left to others to ascertain.

We read, again, in a highly instructive recent work:

"The adverb *very* . . . is the singular and undivided property of the Adjective, e. g., 'very tall, very wise, very good'; but it will not go with a Verb. And this is the rationale of that rule which is laid down about the qualification of Participles, viz., that 'very' is not to be joined with a Participle. We do sometimes hear 'very pleased'; but 'much pleased' is more correct. Still further removed from good usage is 'very obliged,' 'very disappointed.'" Rev. Prof. John Earle, *English Prose*, etc. (1890), p. 53.

Yet not all adjectives, that is to say, none in the comparative degree, may be qualified by *very*—*very better* being no more English than *pretty better*, which I have heard in Scotland; while, as to superlatives, it is inadmissible to introduce them with *a very*, *all very*, *any very*, etc. Moreover, in numerous cases we are not debarred from putting *very* before an active participle employed adjectivally, as when we say *very accommodating*, *very alarming*, *very amusing*, and the like. Thus much only in passing, and to supply what Professor Earle would not dispute.

Since "M. C. L.," like many who have preceded him, inquires whether English usage sanctions, as in *very pleased*, the prefixing of *very* to a perfect participle constructed predicatively, the ensuing quotations, as furnishing materials for a reply, are here relevant:

"At first he did come to my Lord *very displeased* and sullen." Samuel Pepys (1662), *Diary*, etc. (ed. Rev. Mynors Bright, 1875–79), vol. i., p. 474.

"Athenæus's Account is *very circumstantiated* on this Head." *Common Sense* (1737), vol. i., p. 232 (ed. 1738).

"When I received your letter, I was *very concerned* to hear the death of your friend Mr. Reynolds, which I consider as a piece of affliction common to us both." Sir William Jones (1760), in Lord Teignmouth's *Life*, etc. (ed. 1806), p. 22.

"I thank God my mind is *very composed*." Miss Elizabeth Carter (1778), *Letters to Miss Talbot*, etc. (ed. 1809), vol. iv., p. 197.

"In the mean time I am very feeble and *very dejected*." Dr. Johnson (1784), in Boswell's *Life*.

"I am *very composed*, and think," etc. William Cowper (1784), *Works* (ed. 1835–37), vol. v., p. 116.

"He was *very composed*, and desired me," etc. Mrs. Burton, *Laura* (1797), vol. i., p. 257.

"He had been *very exposed* to weather, sleeping out of doors," etc. Robert Southey (1815), *Letters* (1856), vol. ii., p. 421.

"She was *very vexed* to find," etc. "They were *very frightened*." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), pp. 199, 499.

"Thorkel was *very vexed* at the deed." *Id.*, *Gisli the Outlaw* (1866), p. 12.

"We get *very wearied* of the persistent identification of the Church, throughout the dark ages, with fraud, and imposture, and sinister self-seeking," etc. Mr. John Morley, *Voltaire* (1872), p. 306.

"The trolls were *very put out*." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 213.

For coming reference, quotations are subjoined in which passive participial adjectives are qualified by *very*:

"*Very reformed critics*." Rev. Myles Davies, *Athenæ Britannicæ*, vol. i., p. 191 (1715).

"Homer . . . has delivered to us some *very concealed* and valuable *information* in these two admirable poems." Thomas Taylor, *Pausanias* (1794), vol. iii., p. 300.

"The Church is a *very altered and deteriorated profession*." Rev. Sydney Smith (1837), *Works* (ed. 1850), p. 639.

"A *very frequented coffee-house*." Earl of Carlisle, *Diary*, etc. (1854), p. 332.

"Certainly [it shows itself] after a *very concealed manner*; so concealed that no man has been able to find it." Thomas De Quincey (1857), *Works* (ed. 1863), vol. vi., Preface, p. xvi.

Add, from the stores of every-day parlance, the combinations instanced below:

A *very accomplished musician*, and so, with the qualificative *very*, *affected style*, *animated scene*, *broken voice*, *celebrated poet*, *complicated machine*, *concentrated form*, *confused story*, *constrained manners*, *crowded house*, *curtailed account*, *depressed mood*, *devoted son*, *dignified bearing*, *dissipated fellow*, *distinguished theologian*, *distracted look*, *disturbed state*, *enlightened understanding*, *exaggerated estimate*, *exalted birth*, *exhausted condition*, *experienced physician*, *forced interpretation*, *guarded language*, *heated discussion*, *hidden meaning*, *isolated situation*, *labored argument*, *learned scholar*, *lengthened detail*, *limited number*, *noted person*, *perplexed narration*, *reduced income*, *retired spot*, *satisfied look*, *studied civility*, *tired brain*.

Gibbon, the historian, wrote, in 1762:

"His excessive praises . . . of a certain living critic and divine disgust the sensible reader as much as the contempt affected for the same person by many who are *very unqualified to pass* a judgment upon him." *Miscellaneous Works* (ed. 1814), vol. iv., p. 113.

Hardly more tolerable than *very unshaken by temptation* is *very unqualified to pass*; *very unqualified*, in whatever construction, striking one like a false note. At the same time, a considerable number of passive participial adjectives of the negative class may idiomatically follow *very*. Such are, with others, *unaffected*, *uncivilized*, *unconcerned*, *unconstrained*, *uncultivated*, *undecided*, *undeserved*, *undignified*, *undisguised*, *unexpected*, *unguarded*, *unlearned*, *unlimited*, *unmeasured*, *unpolished*, *unprincipled*, *unsettled*, *unsophisticated*.

The established currency—whence, as a consequence, the legitimacy—of phrases, uncomplemented or complemented, like "I saw he was *very pleased*," "We shall be *very pleased to come*," "They are *very pleased with your attention*," by no means invariably coincides with the idiomaticalness of the perfect participles which they embody, allocated adjectivally. No conclusion can be drawn from the permissibility of "a *very pleased expression*": convention alone is here determinant. "A *very displeased look*," "a *very dejected mien*," and "a *very exposed situation*" are, unquestionably, good English; and yet Pepys, Dr. Johnson, and Southey, as cited above, offer violations of usage quite as flagrant as those which have been instanced from *Common Sense*, Sir William Jones, Sir G. W. Dasent, and Mr. John Morley.

Very displeased, as has been seen, was used as long ago as 1662; but of *very pleased* the earliest occurrence that I have chanced on dates back only a century. Nor, up to our own day, however common in the colloquial dialect, has it been often ventured in any literature but that of a light character. A few selected quotations for it are subjoined:

"Betty . . . looked *very pleased* at several passages, particularly when you talked about your infant." William Roberts (1792), *Looker-on* (1794), vol. i., p. 179.

"I am *very pleased* indeed." Cardinal Newman (1841), *Letters* (1891), vol. ii., p. 280.

"I should be *very pleased* to do so." Mrs. George Grote (1862), quoted in the *Saturday Review*, vol. xiv., p. 602.

"A boy who has been *very pleased*, if the squire," etc. *Saturday Review*, vol. xv., p. 297 (1863).

"He was *very pleased* with the reception you gave him." "I am *very pleased* to have heard what you have to say." Mr. John Morley, *Rousseau* (1873), vol. ii., p. 95, and p. 153, note 1.

The *Looker-on* puts *very pleased* into the mouth of Belinda Daub, one of "us dashing women"; and the locution has been, all along, in the main a femininism. Yet there seems to be no doubt that its popularity, despite the avoidance of it by many persons of fastidious taste, is on the increase. Such being the case, its promotion, by and by, to the rank of unexceptionable English may be accounted a possibility, if not a probability. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Sept. 3, 1892.

P. S. With regard to three expressions spoken of in the body of this letter, namely, Sir William Jones's *very concerned*, Gibbon's *very unqualified*, and the Rev. Sydney Smith's *very altered*, I may add that, though adduced, in a recent dictionary, and alone there adduced, as analogous to *very pleased*, they were previously quoted in my *Modern English* (1873), with specifications of their sources.

As could be evidenced, at least a dozen makers of books and others, by the way they have handled little philological nuggets of my unearthing, have practically made light of the good old maxim *suum cuique*. Some odd day they may find themselves pilloried in an index. And here, to illustrate the low commercial view of plagiarism, I will relate an incident.

In a work of mine, not often consulted, there is an excursus which, it some years ago occurred to me, a gentleman now dead, Col. F. Cunningham, who was then preparing a new edition of Ben Jonson, was, in all likelihood, unacquainted with. Accordingly, I dropped him a line about it. Curious to see it in detail, he applied to a bookseller for the work in question, telling him for what purpose it was required. The tradesman, on sending it, sent also a note, of which I made a memorandum. All but in its very words, Mr. H. was quite unknown to the literary world; so that it would be perfectly safe to utilize, as if original, his interesting and valuable discovery. The note was passed on to me by its recipient, with such comments on it as a sense of honor could not but dictate. The fact which Col. Cunningham learned, in consequence of my writing to him, was, that I had reproduced, in *Modern English*, twenty-four verses by Ben Jonson, addressed to James Mabbe, which had escaped all the dramatist's editors.

Notes.

A TIMELY publication is the collection of 'State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff,' edited by Prof. F. W. Taussig and to be published by Harvard University through Henry Holt & Co. (and certain other houses). The five documents from Hamilton, Gallatin, R. J. Walker, Clay, and Webster give the pro and con of the protective controversy. The

volume is designed for collateral reading in colleges.

Among forthcoming issues by the Scribners are 'Under the Evening Lamp,' essays by Richard Henry Stoddard; 'Letters to a Young Housekeeper,' by Mrs. Bayard Taylor; 'The Children of the Poor,' by Jacob A. Riis; 'The Great Streets of the World,' by many writers, with illustrations; 'American Illustrators,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with colored plates on Japan paper, and other illustrations, in a numbered edition; 'American Humor,' by J. Barr, in the "International Humor Series"; 'Life and Letters of Washington Allston,' by Jared B. Flagg, with copies of his illustrations; John Addington Symonds's 'Life of Michael Angelo,' in two volumes, with fifty illustrations; 'French Art,' contemporary, by W. C. Brownell; 'Blackfoot Lodge Tales,' by George B. Grinnell; 'Afloat and Ashore on the Mediterranean,' by Lee Meriwether; A. Weismann's 'Germ-Plasm: A Theory of Heredity'; and 'Songs about Life, Love, and Death,' by the late Anne Reeve Aldrich.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Social Life in England from the Restoration to the Revolution,' by William C. Sydney; 'Round London, Down East, and Up West,' by Montagu Williams; 'The Reminiscences of Charles Santley,' the famous baritone; 'Edward Burne-Jones: A Record and Review,' by Malcolm Bell, with specimens of this artist's work; 'An Old Woman's Outing [in England],' by Miss Yonge; and 'The Theory of Wages and its Application to the Eight-Hours Question,' by Herbert M. Thompson.

A new classical mythology, 'The Gods of Olympus,' by Katherine A. Raleigh, will shortly be published by Cassell.

A holiday edition of the Poems of Helen Jackson is announced by Roberts Bros.

'The Real and the Ideal in Literature,' essays and poems by Frank P. Stearns, will be brought out by the J. G. Cupples Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. will have ready this month 'Progressive Pamphlets for Learning to Read Latin,' by Prof. J. B. Greenough of Harvard.

Thomas Whittaker promises a new and complete edition of Père Lacordaire's conferences at Notre Dame de Paris.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in press 'Interlinear Short-hand,' by F. S. Humphrey, and 'Greeley on Lincoln,' edited by Joel Benton, who brought to light the notable judgment of the President by the editor of the *Tribune*. This address will be supplemented by many letters from Mr. Greeley to Mr. Dana and to a lady friend.

Coincident with the appearance here of Thoreau's notes on 'Autumn,' announcement is made in England of the immediate publication of a posthumous volume of essays by Richard Jefferies, who has been rashly termed the "English Thoreau." This volume is to be called 'The Toilers of the Fields,' and will consist mainly of essays dealing with the agricultural laborer, although it will also include a story hitherto unpublished. It will have the imprint of the Longmans.

We had overrun our reckoning in the case of Roberts Brothers' smaller edition of Jane Austen's Novels. Two volumes, 'Persuasion' and 'Northanger Abbey,' testify to the pretty series not having been exhausted when we last wrote about it.

Mr. Parkman's 'Oregon Trail,' still fresh in its third decade, demands a new edition for the sake of an alliance between the text and the pencil of Mr. Frederic Remington, an artist with quite other aptitudes for portraying the aboriginal and other inhabitants of the Far West than those possessed by Darley when illustrating Cooper's "Leatherstocking Tales." As Mr. Remington's drawings are well known to the reading public, not much need be said about the present illustrations. Being reproduced by process, they are the cause of the shiny paper which is so trying to the eyes when used for letterpress. The leather cover, with its stamped Indian symbolism, is as appropriate as it is rich. We should have asked one other boon—a map showing the "Oregon trail" in its relation to the now peopled wilderness. In his preface to the edition of 1872, Mr. Parkman could speak of his great history of France in America as only half accomplished. Now that it is all behind him, he may feel like reprinting it in detail, with the embellishment of contemporary maps and portraiture, and photographs of the permanent landscape. Such an edition could not fail to be highly prized.

A handsome little volume of reprints from the *Century Magazine*'s "Topics of the Time" bears the title of 'Cheap-Money Experiments in Past and Present Times.' This exposition embraces, besides our own country, England and France and Argentina. Special chapters are devoted to the dismal experience of Rhode Island, Michigan, Alabama, and Mississippi. The instruction and warning thus conveyed can be thought needless in no section of the Union.

The Putnams add two timely volumes to their series of economic publications. Under the title, 'Taxation and Work,' Edward Atkinson collects papers of his on the tariff and on currency. They give ample scope to his powers of investigation and comparison and statement, and contain many hard sayings for those who are responsible for our present economic and financial policy. In a homelier vein, and perhaps all the better fitted thereby for popular reading, is Mr. Daniel Strange's 'The Farmer's Tariff Manual, by a Farmer.' It is filled with economic science fused into common sense, and, with its vigorous grip on reality, should have much weight with the special audience it addresses.

The author of the very useless 'Curiosities of Christian History prior to the Reformation,' Mr. Croake James (London: Methuen & Co.), says of it: "I have left out all the miracles—most of the wordy war of doctrines—most of the atrocities of persecutors and inquisitors." In fact, miracles would average about one to a page; for the other omissions we thank him, and can only regret that he did not carry his self-command to the point of omitting all the rest of his book. A more silly hodge-podge of undigested old-wives' tales it would be difficult to imagine.

The 'Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte' of the late Prof. Wilhelm Moeller of Kiel forms one in the series of theological *Lehrbücher* now appearing from the press of Mohr in Freiburg. It finds itself in such company as Harnack's 'History of Doctrines' and De Saussaye's 'History of Religion,' and is thoroughly worthy of it. There is no other book equally useful to the student in gaining a view of the development of church history as a part of the general course of human progress. Its translation into English, 'History of the Christian Church A.D. 1-600' (Macmillan), is to be heartily welcomed, especially as it has been made with scrupulous regard to the intention of the author. If there be a fault, it is that here and there Mr. Rutherfurd's adherence to the original produces a certain clumsiness of style that may prevent due appreciation of the book by a public which demands readableness even in a text-book.

'Die französische Politik Papst Leos IX.,' by Wilhelm Bröcking (Stuttgart: Göschen), is a very neat presentation of the relations between the Curia and the French kingdom on the eve of the great conflict of the Investiture. Its purpose is to show that Leo IX., one of the cleverest politicians that ever filled the papal chair, was fully aware of the conditions in France which made his claims possible, and was prevented from enforcing them thoroughly only by the pressure of other affairs. The boldness of his action in France was warranted only by his intimate alliance with the Emperor; and yet this very aggressive policy could not fail, if carried out as it was later by Hildebrand, to set the Emperor as well as every other temporal prince most distinctly against the papal interest.

Two more of Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales' have been issued by the compiler in Cambridge, Mass. 'Life in France' has been succeeded by 'Life in Germany' and 'Life in Italy.' So this useful work of guidance to wise selection proceeds from country to country and from continent to continent. Judging from bulk alone, the countries just named have been quantitatively exploited for the English reader in the order of mention.

There is nothing in the letterpress of the second number of the Boston "quarter-yearly review of the liberal arts called the *Knight-Errant*" that will repay much attention, but the most may be bestowed on the editor's "Some Thoughts upon Beauty in Typography, suggested by the work of Mr. William Morris at the Kelmscott Press." Mr. Morris, it is well known, has exercised his decorative talent in the direction of typography, and is turning out volumes from his press of which the type, the initial letters, the borders, etc., are his own invention. The experiment is an interesting one, and Mr. Morris is in his element in rehabilitating the past, though he has seldom had such good grounds for the attempted revival. As it is, he is in danger of fantastical, not to say fanatical, imitation; and we should apply either epithet to his 'Nature of Gothic' and 'Defence of Guinevere,' of which the *Knight-Errant* gives sample pages. They are not readable. Mr. Morris will have done enough if he endows us with strong and virile fonts of type. We notice that a serious derangement of the types on p. 50 is to be atoned for to subscribers at the end of the volume by a substituted page; but let the proof-reader not overlook another misprint in the third line of the second extract from Paul Verlaine on the same p. 50.

A correspondent writes: "I felt the lack of only one thing in your otherwise complete and very satisfactory notice of the *Pagan Review*. A word might have been said of the emphatic way in which these younger writers have dissociated themselves from the now discredited Realistic school. They even appear to look with some scorn on science and observation, and what is merely trivial and ordinary in Nature, reserving themselves for what is ominous in her, or even supernatural. An illustration of what I mean may be seen in Mr. Fanshawe's mystical drama, on page 7, where he says: 'The thin crescent moon slowly rises.' Obviously, the scene is laid in other worlds than ours."

We spoke not long ago of an old print (time of the Fronde) reproduced in the Paris folk-lore journal, *Mélusine*, showing the "four estates," namely, the priest, the soldier, the peasant, and the judge. In his issue for September-October, M. Gaidoz is able to show, in a very interesting manner, the evolution of this idea, still in broadside form, down to the present day—much, he observes, as must

have taken place in the Middle Ages. One example was engraved at Chartres in the early part of the present century (First Empire); a second, a colored placard, originated in Épinal under the Second Empire, with appropriate changes in the costumes, and with self-asserting verses under each figure. M. Gaidoz remarks that the workingman in our modern industrial sense had not yet ousted the agricultural laborer from his fourth estate. He anticipates the time when the *ouvrier*, who now preferably styles himself a *travailleur* because he doesn't want to work (*travailler*) any more than he can help, and who perverts the sense of the word strike (*grève*) from 'a peaceful cessation from toil' into 'a violent assault on toiling workingmen,' or what used to be known as 'brigandage,' will appear in these broadsides as the fifth estate, dynamite cartridge in hand, with the legend "I'll blow you all up," answering to the priest's "I pray for you all," the peasant's "I nourish you all," the soldier's "I defend you all," and the judge's "I eat you all."

Miss Hensman's "Dante Map" (London: David Nutt) is not the familiarly intricate chart of the depths of the Inferno and the heights of Purgatory and Paradise, but a folding map of Italy, mounted on linen, on which are marked only the places that are mentioned or alluded to in Dante's various writings and those supposed to have been visited by him—the latter a somewhat too generous list. A separate section map is added for the Gubbio and Casentino districts. The letterpress consists of an alphabetical list of the places designated, about 300 in number, with references to the corresponding passages in Dante's works, and a list of the places outside of Italy, about 200, to which Dante also refers. In spite of its elaborate ornament, the map is serviceable and interesting. It does little, however, toward what is a real desideratum and might easily be accomplished by reprint or compilation—a good historical map of Northern and Central Italy at the beginning of the fourteenth century, with such accompanying text as would make clear the confusing topography of the regions in which were carried on the Guelph and Ghibelline feuds, so disastrous for Dante's happiness and so important for the understanding of the life contemporary with him.

—The highest praise must be given to the mechanical and artistic get-up of the first number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* (Boston, 6 Beacon St.). No magazine of like form now published in this country equals it in elegance. The rubricated cover is a great success; the variety of type, the proportions of the page, have equally well been studied. A strong pencilled portrait of the late Dr. Henry I. Bowditch serves as frontispiece; and this warm-hearted physician, who had mastered "the humanities" if ever Harvard graduate did, has his useful life sketched in full sympathy by Dr. Charles Follen Folsom. The leading articles manifest the somewhat impromptu nature of the enterprise, for which purveying had to be done in the college vacation. Whether or not we have a deliberate precedent in the printing of Prof. W. J. Tucker's Phi Beta Kappa oration of June 30, there can be no doubt that the editors were glad to have this material to their hand. President Eliot tells of a very important undertaking of the Harvard Faculty to examine, on demand, the quality of the instruction at preparatory schools, for the private behoof of principals and trustees, and with no engagement to admit their graduates on certificate. We feel the very pulse of the machine when we come to such elaborate reviews as that of the University during the past five years, by W. C. Lane, and that of the academic year 1891-92 by F. Bolles—a model performance. But also we have condensed reports of the meetings of various associations at Commencement time and of Commencement itself; a review of the year's athletics (there is a paper, by F. W. Thayer, on "Harvard's Loss of Athletic Prestige"); an account of the constitution and doings of Harvard Clubs all over the country; a budget of class news, of university notes, literary notes, and obituaries. Every point seems covered, though already the matter pressing for admission exceeds the space, and the friends of the magazine can congratulate themselves on the eminent capacity of its conductors. A better first number has seldom been seen. The magazine will be published quarterly at a low subscription price. A wide circulation is assured, and so is the moral and material advantage which must accrue from this authoritative yet unofficial and untrammelled medium of communication for all Harvard men.

—The leading article in the *Atlantic* for October is a discussion of the character and career of Mr. Tilden, by Mr. James C. Carter. Mr. Carter confines himself to a eulogy of Tilden as a reformer, and an analysis of the character of his mind and the nature of his aims. The choice he made in respect to his duty at the opening of the civil war, though not justified by the event, may be explained by the political forecast he then made; the ability he displayed in dealing with questions of administration involved necessarily, perhaps, limitations of power in respect to larger moral questions such as were at issue during the struggle; and Mr. Carter succeeds in showing the political sagacity, the logical penetration and persistency, and the capacity to rise above party considerations and to rely upon the fundamental grounds of right government, which were conspicuously displayed in his career in this State. The serious articles in the remainder of the number are Prof. Shaler's plea for better roads, attention to which he thinks has been determined by the bicycle, an invention which he classes with the telegraph and the railway as an influential element in the intercommunication of society; and a paper by Mary A. Jordan on women's colleges, in which the development of female education from the old-fashioned seminary, where the first lesson was in the rules of the institution, to the present highly organized colleges at Northampton and elsewhere, is traced, and the nature of the special problems arising in the education of bodies of young women together is examined. Some strong verses by Clinton Scollard should be mentioned.

—*Harper's* observes the Columbian celebration by an elaborate article on "The Baptismal Font of America," in which the most interesting illustration is a copy of the page of "Cosmographiæ Introductio," in which the name America is first mentioned. A paper on Columbus by Prof. Dr. S. Ruge, with a copy of the map used by him on his first voyage, is also noticeable among the many articles on the great discoverer now appearing. Theodore Child contributes a characteristic paper, pleasantly illustrated, on the banks of the Seine, and Mr. Laurence Hutton continues his "Collection of Death-Masks," in the illustrations to which will be found several interesting examples of what we can only describe as the skulls of illustrious men. It is melancholy to find the Easy Chair empty; we have been so long accustomed to the kindly and graceful words which were spoken there that it is hopeless to expect that any other hand than that to which we are used should satisfy us, and one closes the magazine with the feeling that the loss which it has sustained in the death of Mr. Curtis is irreparable, and that with him the pleasant afterglow of Addison, Steele, and Irving, so long continued in our western sky, now fades out.

—The most important article in the *Century*, perhaps, and certainly the one which should attract most attention, is Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks's discussion of the use of money in practical politics. The facts which he spreads upon the page are not new, but they are apprehended in a vague way by the public as something that is said rather than as something capable of definite knowledge and statement; he gives specific illustrations of the objects and methods of corruption by the use of money in elections; he shows plainly enough that both parties are equally implicated, and he argues that the politicians on either side resort to such means of influencing results from a feeling of necessity in social conditions, rather than by choice. The only remedies he suggests are such as are embodied in the electoral laws of England, by which corruption there was practically put an end to at a single stroke. He points out that the immediacy of the result in England was mainly due to the searching minuteness of the provisions of the law, and he warns us not only that the objection made to such laws on the score of their intricacy and the near way in which they effect personal action, is the readiest resource of those attached to present methods, but also that concessions to this objection would be most fatal to the efficiency of such proposed legislation. The present time is most proper to call attention to such abuses, and the frank confession which Prof. Jenks makes of our faults in this respect should be an incentive to good citizens to reinforce the efforts now making toward reform. Columbus and the World's Fair continue to be important topics, and the account given of the Paris Commune, by Mr. Archibald Forbes, is a very vivid picture.

—*Scribner's* contains two papers of unusual interest. Mr. Paul Ford's extracts from the diaries of Thomas Jefferson, illustrating the homely and unheroic side of his life as a practical man concerned with accounts, make a very entertaining and instructive contribution not only to our knowledge of the man, but to our apprehension of the times. There is much in the paper that would bear quotation, but the extracts which show the income of Jefferson and his care for small expenditures, are the more striking, and the destruction of the tradition of the great heat of the day on which the Declaration was adopted, though a minor matter, affords an excellent illustration of the doubt that should go even with records of so-called historical facts. Jefferson, whose scientific tastes are abundantly shown in this paper, recorded the temperature of the day as follows: "July 4, six A. M., 68 degrees; nine A. M., 72¼; one P. M., 76; nine P. M., 73½." The second paper is Mr. Andrew Lang's summary of the present state of the Homeric Question, in which he argues for the personality of Homer from a literary standpoint, shows that it was quite possible that Homer set down his compositions in writing, and in general endeavors on the one hand to cut away the grounds of doubt out of which the Homeric question originally grew, and on the other

hand the explanations by which the needs of these supposed circumstances are met. Mr. Bunner writes on the Columbian Exposition; Mr. Brownell continues his papers on French Art; Mr. Pete writes a monograph on the education of the deaf and dumb; and Mr. Spearman contributes, in the series on "The Poor in Great Cities," a description of a school for street Arabs which affords another encouraging illustration of the present chief movement of philanthropy.

—The doubt thrown upon the La Cosa map by our Paris correspondent on a preceding page is a new instance of modern historical scepticism. M. Marcel's argument, if he ever gives it at length, may be more convincing than this report of his views. La Cosa was *not* "an educated Spaniard." There is good reason to believe he was a Basque, though born on the Iberian side of the Fyrenees, and if so he was really a foreigner in Spain. The second argument amounts to nothing as it is put. The Portuguese portolano of 1520, which Prof. Hamy owns, is more than once referred to by Harrisse, in his recent book, and there ought to be a facsimile of it made. If the "green globe" is really so early as 1513, it will dispute the claim of the so-called Da Vinci gores to be the earliest known in which the word "America" is written by human band. The "globe doré," if correctly dated, is the earliest instance, after Franciscus Monarchus of the year before, in the revival of the notion that North America and Asia were one. It would be interesting to have the proofs that Verrazzano's experiences had inspired this globe. Does it contain the "Sea of Verrazzano"? The charts of Viegas, Guttierez, Le Testu, and others are not a revelation; they are all well known in reproductions. The description of the map from the Navy Department (No. 131) is not sufficient to indicate its identity with known maps, as might have been done had our correspondent told us that it was identical or not with any in the published lists of Harrisse and Marcel. Franquelin's map of 1688 was not the earliest by that cartographer to show the name of Chicago in some form. An earlier map of his, dated 1684, shows it. This was formerly in the Archives of the Marine in Paris, but has disappeared of late years. Parkman fortunately had a tracing of it made some years ago, and this is now in the Parkman collection of maps in Harvard College Library. The Paris Committee would have done well if they had solicited a copy of it. Franquelin's Boston map of 1697 is only one of several in the Archives of the Marine, made at a time when the French were contemplating an attack on that New England town. A copy of this of 1697 was made some years ago for Parkman, and is reproduced in the 'Memorial History of Boston.' An earlier one of 1693 has been traced for the Boston Public Library and a facsimile published. We are inclined to think the 1639 map of New York has not been described before. It is to be hoped that Harrisse in due time will publish his Champlain map of 1608, for it antedates Lescarbot's by a year and cannot but be of importance. The first distinct details which we have had, heretofore, of the St. Lawrence region have been found in Lescarbot. Our correspondent is in error in supposing that but three copies of the Columbus volume of 1502 were made. There were four, if not five. Two copies were sent by Columbus to Oderigo, one of which is now in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Paris, and is the one mentioned above; the other is preserved in the palace of the Municipality at Genoa. A third copy, which Columbus sent to Hispaniola, has disappeared. The fourth was destined for Father Gorricio, the friend of Columbus, and is now lost, unless it be the copy picked up by Edward Everett in Florence in 1818, and now in the possession of Dr. William Everett. This last, if not the same as the one intended for Gorricio, makes a fifth copy.

—To-morrow is the date set for the first performance of the second season of the Independent Theatre Society of London. Whether this society will succeed in bringing about the regeneration of which Mr. William Archer has lately declared the modern English drama to be in such sore need, yet remains to be proved. Its objects, however, are conducive to the higher interests alike of the stage-manager and of the play-writer. Though single in purpose, they are threefold in character. As set forth by the founder, Mr. J. T. Grein, in his report of the society's first season, they are, first, the production of original, unconventional, and literary plays of an artistic rather than commercial value; second, the testing of such plays and the facilitating thereby of their incorporation in the répertoire of the regular theatres; and last, the giving to aspiring actors and actresses a hearing in parts in all respects suited to them. A careful and impartial perusal of all MSS. submitted is also promised. Besides the arrangement by Mr. William Foll of Webster's "Duchess of Malfi," with which the Independent Theatre will begin its second season, two new and original plays are definitely announced to follow. One is by Messrs. Walter Besant and Walter Pollock, who have voluntarily come to the support of the society. The other will be from the pen of Mr. George Moore, who has accepted a challenge to write a play towards the production of which by the Independent Theatre Mr. George R. Sims will contribute £100. If the funds of the society (partially derived from subscriptions, which range from two and a half pounds to half a pound for a single seat for the season) will admit, other plays for the coming winter and spring will be selected from "The Wild Duck," by Ibsen, translated by William Archer; "Bertha Malm," by Oscar Wykander; "Thora," by Alphild Agrell, authoress of "Karin"; "Honor," by W. G. von Nouhuys; "The Father," by August Strindberg; and a new play by the author of "Die Ehre." The character of the audiences of last season sufficed to prove that at least a portion of literary London was interested in the ambitious venture of the new society.

SULLY'S HUMAN MIND.

The Human Mind: A Text Book of Psychology. By James Sully, M.A., LL.D. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. Pp. 501, 393.

THE human mind seems to be receiving its full share of attention from the hands of our generation. Hardly are Messrs. Baldwin's and James's two-volume works out of the press when Prof. Sully's comes upon their heels, and we are told that the end is not yet. It is to be hoped that the demand may not flag before the supply does. Prof. Sully enjoys now the distinction of being the only Englishman of this generation upon whom the mantle of Bain and Spencer may be said to have fallen. These leaders of mental science in England still live and write, but their psychologies belong to their earlier years, and (though still indispensable to the professional student) may fairly be called superannuated so far as the demands of the general reader go. Prof. Sully, on the other hand, though less original than either of these authors, is more receptive and open, and has given us, in this his latest work, the fruit of a lifetime of conscientious study, in which every discussion is brought down to the latest dates. Though in this the range of reading displayed is admirable, the bibliographic references are distinguished for their serviceable character, and never lapse into pedantry. The book is no mere enlargement of the author's well-known 'Outlines of Psychology,' but an independent treatise, and still leaves the 'Outlines' to perform their useful function as of old.

The first volume, after eighty pages of preliminary generalities, treats of sensation, attention, and the various intellectual functions, such as discrimination, perception, memory, imagination, reasoning, etc. The second deals with the feelings, emotions, instincts, and volitions. The whole subject-matter is thus covered in a pretty even way, though one is immediately struck by the subordinate importance which the various experiments made of late years in the physiological laboratories have for the author's mind. He knows them, and refers to them abundantly, but he rarely describes or discusses them in detail; and he gives us not even a single one of those "agreeable woodcuts" to which Lotze somewhat ironically alludes as the indispensable adornments of contemporary psychologizing. This inadequacy on the physiological side is probably not wholly voluntary, for Dr. Sully evidently takes most kindly and naturally to introspective work. His book may indeed fairly be regarded as the very last word of introspection at the present day; and one's judgment of the definitive value of introspection (considered as a mere analysis on the descriptive plane of *what goes on* in the mind, as distinguished from an attempt to get at the *causes* of what goes on) may well be determined by the impression which the reading of it leaves.

The psychology proper of the treatise begins with the subject of Attention. In thus giving the most prominent place to what appears as the spontaneous element in our mental life, Prof. Sully is in agreement with Messrs. Ward and James and in striking contrast with the traditional British school. This chapter is perhaps the very best of all, and might indeed be called classical. The author shows clearly the muscular strain which all attention involves, but admits that it also involves subexcitement of sensory processes. He delicately and completely describes all its relations and variations; shows how on the one hand it arises in feeling (in the shape of interest), and on the other contains the germ of all conation; and is finally both "analytic" and "synthetic" in regard to objects, some of which our attention decomposes, while it groups many others into a single whole. The author, following this course of ideas, next treats of discrimination, assimilation, and association, or, as he calls them, of Differentiation and Integration. And here, it seems to us, he falls from his best to his worst. The previous chapter sharply and clearly assigned on the one hand the physiological conditions with which attention coexists, and described on the other hand its function as regards the mind's object—as when, for instance, the thing attended to grows more intense, clearly limited, and better remembered thereafter. But by the baleful words differentiation and integration, one never knows whether physiological condition, cognitive function, or mental process itself be meant. What but mystification can result in the mind of the student who is told to apply

the idea of the segmentation of the ovum to the mind and think of the emergence of distinctness in consciousness as "differentiation"—differentiation at first not clearly conscious, but gradually developing into a true discrimination of objects from each other in various definite respects? Or what real insight of any kind does one gain from regarding consciousness of similarity as a "higher form" of "what may be defined provisionally and roughly as the process by which like sensations or other psychical contents 'attract' one another and tend to combine or coalesce"—such coalescence being namable as "Assimilation," and "all assimilation being thus a mode of uniting or integrating"?

All through the book we find the words "integration" and "synthesis" harped upon in this obscure way, as if they stood for something definite and explanatory. We cannot but think that Prof. Sully's singular receptiveness of mind has here led him astray, and that in his desire to include in his book all that is good and true anywhere, he has thought that duty to the Spencerians on the one hand and to the neo-Kantians on the other obliged him to pay homage to their favorite words. Such words, like differentiation, are but vague descriptive epithets for the mind's *function* of learning to know the objective world both more *en masse* and more in detail as life goes on. They reveal absolutely nothing as to the processes, whether neural or psychical, by which the improved knowledge comes about. Some talk of the processes Dr. Sully indeed gives, but it is, as it were, swamped in the other vagueness.

The chapter on Perception deals with the cognition of space and body, and is thorough enough to fill seventy pages. In "space" one may well be lost; and Dr. Sully, who has no fighting doctrine of his own to carry through, has studied the various discrepant authors to such a degree that simplicity is gone from him for ever. The subject is like a yard full of snow—cross it once, and the tracks are plain, but cross it back and forth often enough in different directions, and there is no making anything out. Dr. Sully, we should say, has crossed it a little too often. The strong point of his account is the minute way in which he describes the successive stages in the growth of space-perception, tactual and visual, in the individual. This bit of imaginative introspection has never been so completely written out, and our author may claim to have well rounded out the task which Spencer and Bain began. But still, a description of the order in which we come to know what is in a thing is hardly an explanation of the act of knowing itself. Such an explanation Kant, Wundt, and Spencer profess after a fashion to give; Brown, Bain, and Mill profess to give one so far as the knowing takes place through the eyes; while others, like Stumpf and Hering, deny that we can explain at all our knowledge of such essential elements of extension as its greater or less bigness, and the directions and lengths of lines within it. These, they say, are simple data of sensation. Our author admits a primitive consciousness in which "there would be something answering to extensity or spread, . . . though whether this primordial extensity when it began to be apprehended would carry with it any spatial consciousness in the form of a sense of amplitude or volume, is a disputed point, and one which, it may be safely predicted, will never be definitely resolved." Ten pages later he says that such a vague primordial voluminousness "assumes a psychological impossibility, viz., a consciousness of abstract space or room without any rudimentary discrimination of particular parts or regions, directions and distances. . . . Whatever the precise nature of the primitive 'massiveness,' it seems reasonable to conclude that it requires the *incorporation of motor ideas* before it become spatial as we understand the term. . . . It is certain that, by the play of association, motor elements become *integratively interwoven* with the primitive experience." These words are almost all that Prof. Sully has to say on the general theory of the matter; but it must be added that, in his account of perception of space by the eye, he brings out with admirable clearness the fact that by the "real" magnitudes, directions, distances, etc., of things, we mean nothing but the movements which we should have to make in dealing with them.

Of the sections on Memory, Association, Imagination, Conception, Judgment, Reasoning, Self-Consciousness, and Belief, we can say hardly anything in our brief space. The basis of much that they contain resides in the author's doctrine, already mentioned, of "assimilation," which is that every object that recurs revives its own image from out of the past, and coalesces more or less completely with it, giving rise to mere recognition when the coalescence is complete, and to articulate recollection when it is not so. "Association by contiguity" is preceded by this preliminary step of assimilation of the present "idea" with the image of its own past self, just as in Prof. Höffding's and other authors' accounts. In association by similarity the revival is of an image similar to, but not identical with, that of the present object; and of this process, Dr. Sully says, "the sole assignable ground is the functional activity of assimilation itself. . . . We may speak of 'the attraction of similars.' . . . The attractive force resides in the fact of similarity" (pp. 330-2). By successive assimilations a cumulative effect is produced, a superposition of similar ideas, out of which generic images result (p. 414). These are not true concepts yet, since they lack that mental separation and demarcation of their several perceptual constituents which yields common or general qualities to the mind's grasp, and this analysis and abstraction are processes of more active and reflective thought. In all this we cannot say that our author has been original; and it may well be doubted whether, in his treatment of similarity as a "force" whose functional activity is the prime cause of the laws of revival, he is on a healthy track. To the present critic the Hartleyan doctrine of mere brain-habit seems much more full of promise as a dynamic speculation. Sully, of course, admits the existence of association by mere habit between the images revived by similarity and whatever ideas they suggest, but of its causes as facts of a cerebral order he has but little to say (p. 192).

The account of pleasure and pain which begins the second volume is one of the best parts of the book, being both clear and full. The chapters on the emotions are also very good, while the hundred and fifty pages that give the natural history of volition form by far the most delicately analytic description ever written of that important function of human life. Prof. Sully frankly admits "active consciousness" as an irreducible element, allying himself in this to Wundt, Külpe, and others. We have it in all conation, desire, aversion, attention, and reflective thought. Its physical condition would seem to be muscular contraction (p. 173), though Prof. Sully seems a little hesitant on this point, since he admits a consciousness of central innervation as possible (p. 174), and at the same time speaks of intellectual activity as if that might yield a feeling distinct from that of its muscular accompaniments (p. 178). In his description of the rise of voluntary from involuntary movement Dr. Sully, on the whole, treads in Bain's steps, though he makes certain concessions to the less hedonistic school. There are definite instinctive impulses, he admits, which precede accidental experiences of pleasure; but they are fewer in number than is sometimes maintained, as, for instance, by James, whose list is called "almost grotesque." Pleasure or pain, once felt, gives rise to desire; and desire, involving representation of an end, is the germ of will. But desire is only for the pleasantness or relief from pain which the object desired may bring. Excellent accounts follow of deliberation, decision with effort, and the sense of freedom, in which Prof. Sully of course takes deterministic ground. The last section contains a number of rather brief discussions of such matters as individual character, genius, dreams, insanity, etc., and the work concludes with forty pages of appendix on various theoretic points.

The total impression it leaves is that for learning and power of introspective description the author is unsurpassed, but that his rare open-mindedness and lack of aggressive quality give him a vacillating tone, where several opinions are in the field, that must often prove bewildering to the student. His formulas too often try to satisfy all the theories at once. Moreover, to the present critic so much detail of introspection seems often but a wearisome over-elaboration of things already obvious. The first-comer who imagines something pleasant and then desires and gets it, knows already as much of the essence of volition as Prof. Sully's account can give him. What we should all like to know would be the *forces* concerned. Is the desire itself one of them, or does all the dynamism belong to the mere organic machine blindly working? Into such questions Prof. Sully does not go; and yet if psychology is ever to become scientific, as other sciences are scientific, it must mainly concern itself with causes. The causal relations between the body and the mind form its central problem; and the physiologists and pathologists who are burrowing, however crudely, in that direction, seem to us on the whole to be on a path of greater ultimate promise than the more classical one of describing results, upon which Prof. Sully so skilfully keeps his feet.

JAPANESE ECONOMICS.

Japans Volkswirthschaft und Staatshaushalt. Von Karl Rathgen. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot.

JAPANESE economics and finance, while they have engaged the best talent of the native Japanese, have not thus far awakened much interest in foreign students. A few incomplete studies in the Proceedings of the Asiatic Societies are all we have of value in this department outside of newspaper records. The financial and economic portions of Rein's works are meagre and antiquated. Dr. Mayet, the veteran worker, and Dr. Fesca, while they have made admirable special researches, have given us no general description or historical account of the development of Japan. Dr. Rathgen, therefore, had a comparatively unexplored field of investigation, or at least a field not thus far systematically surveyed.

The author, as financial adviser to one of the Tokugawa nobles, had exceptional opportuni-

ties for the study of his subject, and he has evidently taken special pains to turn them to account. The volume is the result of eight years of careful research in the most minute as well as the most general matters of economic interest. In many cases he has unravelled complex and mysterious transactions which were bewildering even to contemporaries. For Japan during the last thirty years has been a country of quick transitions, of a bureaucratic and somewhat oligarchic government, often forced to shifts and evasions that were designed to conceal the true nature of certain transactions; and it is hardly to be wondered at that the student, after pursuing his problem for some time, gives it up in despair. The present volume is most satisfactory in this respect. Every matter of historical importance is traced with a clear and unerring instinct through all its mazes and changes to its final end. For this quality of distinctness and completeness the author deserves no common praise.

Dr. Rathgen's work is divided into three parts. The first book is taken up with a résumé of the history of the State from the earliest times to the present. Considering the great deficiency either of good histories or of critical materials, the author has given a most excellent account of the development of the Japanese system of government. The most attractive portion of the book naturally deals with the transition period from the feudal system to the centralized government of to-day. In America all is transition; it is difficult to fasten on any period that has definite characteristics for any length of time. We are always looking forward to a new condition of things, and a state of expectancy can hardly be considered a base line for comparison. In Japan, civilization under the Tokugawa régime, though not unmodified by internal forces, had reached a stage of comparative stability. Hence, the revolution of 1868 implied not only a break with the past, but a great change of direction, which is leading the country farther and farther from its old moorings. Briefly speaking, the people of old Japan, from the Daimio to the Eta, were in a condition of status—industrially, custom replaced competition; politically, clan feeling overruled patriotism. The feudal system displayed its weakness after Perry's expedition in 1854, and especially after the entrance of foreigners in 1860. The restoration of the Emperor to power in 1868, and the abolition of the clans (*han*) two years afterward, were followed by a complete political transformation of the Government, based mainly on the French system.

In the second book the author gives a general survey of the economic and industrial condition of the country, beginning with the distribution of population, and finishing with the difficult problems of wages and incomes. In this book there is much that is curious and interesting to the Western reader.

"In Japan are to be found only small holdings. A farm of five *cho* (twelve acres) is considered very large. As a rule the Japanese farmer is without hired labor and without cattle. The family alone cultivates the farm, which, however, is so small that a large share of the available labor can be devoted to other purposes besides farming, such as the production of silk, indigo, tobacco. The average holding for the whole of Japan (excluding the Hokkaido) for each agricultural family is 8.3 *tan* (about 2 acres), varying from a maximum of 17.6 *tan* in the prefecture of Aomori to a minimum of 5.3 *tan* in the prefecture of Wakayama."

A double crop, however, on much of the land enables the farmer by the most assiduous industry to eke out an existence. Another remarkable fact is, that out of a total area of 28,837,000 *cho* for Japan (excluding the Hokkaido and other islands) there are only 4,669,000 *cho* of cultivated land, or about 16 per cent. For the whole Empire the percentage shrinks to 12 per cent. Germany, on the contrary, has 43 per cent. of its area cultivated, and France 50 per cent. We may ascribe the smallness of this fraction in part to the mountainous character of Japan, but also in part to the extraordinary devotion of the people to rice cultivation. Much land that would delight the heart of an American farmer is left neglected and uncultivated in Japan.

The third book, treating of the finances and financial history of modern Japan, is on the whole the most interesting in the volume. Japan's financial history comprises in the space of twenty years nearly all the experiments that have been tried in Europe and America during the last two centuries. Depreciated paper money, speculation in gold, stock-jobbing, railroad, canal, and shipping crazes, wild and impracticable enterprises of every description, have followed each other in such quick succession that one is surprised that the country weathered the storms. But the backbone of Japan, like that of France, is the peasantry. Their plodding, patient activity counteracts a multitude of financial sins and has enabled the Government successfully to escape shipwreck. Even the peasantry, however, were tainted to a degree by some of the innovations, especially in the era of depreciated paper money in 1877-1884. The usual accompaniments of an over-issue were present. Times were flush, speculation was rife, every one was confident and enthusiastic; foreigners had furnished Japan with a mysterious key to the stores of wealth, and foreigners were consequently lionized. This was the heyday of Japanese prosperity. Farmers received high prices for their products and paid their taxes with ease. They fell into habits of luxury and of borrowing relatively large sums of money at usurious rates of interest. When the reverse came, as it always comes, the farmers could not find the means of payment, and many had to sell their lands and become jinrikisha-men or coolies in the large cities; others remained slowly and often hopelessly struggling with their debts.

When measures were finally undertaken to return to a specie standard, the difficulties encountered were far greater than the previous benefits received. The way of the transgressor is hard—afterwards; at first it is as easy as floating with the current of the stream. As usual, too, much of the evil was ascribed to the wicked speculator and his machinations in the stock-market. The Government ordered all speculation in gold stopped, but Japanese brokers have as much finesse as those of other nations.

"During the entire year 1883," says Dr. Rathgen, "there was war between the police and the brokers. The latter simply abandoned the Stock Exchange and speculated in secret on the curb. The business was carried on by pressure of hands inside of the large Japanese sleeves. Between Osaka and Kobe, speculators in gold managed to send quotations by optical signals from the mountain tops. All efforts of the police to stop speculation were fruitless, and every rumor was taken advantage of as before to produce violent fluctuations; and only when resumption was clearly in sight did the speculation in gold gradually cease."

Admirable as are the impersonal and expository parts of Dr. Rathgen's work, he indulges a few prejudices unbecoming a man of science. The chief of these is directed against Count Okuma, Minister of Finance during the trying period of the Satsuma Rebellion, and later, in 1889, the unsuccessful hero of Treaty Revision.

"Okuma," says Dr. Rathgen, "was versatile but superficial, clever but without solid training. . . . His chief qualities were temerity and levity; he ordinarily under-estimated actual difficulties, and never considered the consequences of his acts if he could but temporarily overcome present obstacles; a man of shifts and petty expedients, as untruthful as any one in the East, a politician but no statesman. Convinced of his genius for finance, he was pleased to hear himself called the 'Gladstone of the Orient.' He thoroughly understood how to put his best services in their brightest light and to lightly brush aside failures."

The guiding principle of Okuma, according to the author, was "Take the advantage of the moment. *Après nous le déluge.*"

These unsparing terms contradict the judgment of some of the soberest foreigners in Japan. Men who have worked with Okuma both in the Finance and Foreign Departments declare him to be a man singularly truthful and straightforward; more than this, he is said to be a man devoid in a great measure of that diplomatic evasion and indirectness so characteristic of Japanese officialism, and to some extent bred in the very bone of the Japanese. Those foreigners who have been longest and most intimately connected with the Count are most attached to him, and have not failed to testify to his qualities of courage, truthfulness, and directness. We must set it down to personal bias that Dr. Rathgen has thus denounced a man who has perhaps done more for modern Japan than has any other statesman except Count Ito. In that dim future when the history of the *Meiji* period is written, Okuma and Ito will doubtless be the "double star which the most powerful instruments will not entirely separate."

Imperial Federation. By George R. Parkin. Macmillan. 1892.

THIS is the best argument yet put forward in favor of the object to which the author has devoted years of thought and of travel throughout Greater Britain. He freely admits his indebtedness to Sir Charles Dilke and to others who have written on the same subject, and indeed the excellence of his work is due rather to its condensation and its lucidity than to any noteworthy originality of thought. From the English point of view there is enough to be said in favor of Imperial federation to warrant a numerous body of supporters in England. As Mr. Parkin points out, England is so dependent on other countries for the necessaries of life that, if a barrier were placed round the island, the pressure of want would be felt within six weeks. A large percentage of these necessary supplies is now drawn from the colonies, and the amount could be almost indefinitely increased if English capital, under the safeguard of some scheme of federation, were freely invested in the development of colonial production. But either England is not fully alive to the importance of this question of food supplies, or capital is rendered timid by doubt as to the political future of the colonies; so that, for example, the development of the Canadian Northwest, which is capable alone of meeting the larger part of the deficiency, proceeds in languid fashion. Again, the immense amount of English capital already invested in India, Australia, and Canada would seem to supply a sufficient reason for an enthusiastic acceptance on the part of England of the idea of federation; for if the colonies are allowed to drift away and become independ-

ent States, the safety of English investments might, under certain circumstances, be seriously impaired. Moreover, Mr. Parkin suggests a further advantage to the mother country in the creation of a grand council, composed of representatives from all parts of the Empire, and competent to deal with all Imperial questions, which could leave the local parliaments free to attend to the great mass of local legislation. Questions concerning the more distant parts of the Empire would thus be dealt with by those best fitted to decide them, and the result could hardly fail to be beneficial. From the selfish point of view, therefore, it might reasonably be expected that England would enthusiastically support the idea of Imperial federation; yet the very reverse is the case. Whether this is due to ignorance or to carelessness, or to an historical hesitation to urge upon colonies any course of action which seems to be unpopular, Mr. Parkin does not undertake to decide.

From the point of view of the colonies, however, the advantages of federation are not by any means so obvious. In the first place, federations are always difficult. It is easy to say that united Germany and united Italy are stronger and better governed than the strange collections of sovereignties which they succeeded; but the kingdoms of Germany and the states and cities of Italy were compact bodies, whereas the colonies of England are strung like a necklace round the globe and embrace every variety of climate, race, and religion. In these widely differing regions the feeling of the people towards federation seems to vary between indifference and decided hostility. In no one colony is there anything like enthusiasm on the subject, except on the part of a few individuals. Mr. Parkin very truly observes that "great countries with an assured future cannot always remain colonies"; but the alternative is not necessarily what he would like to see. The majority of the inhabitants of Australia, for instance, seem to have arrived at the conclusion that they will neither remain colonists nor will they accept the burdens and responsibilities of Imperial federation. They are eager to try self-government, and are confident that in case of trouble they can protect themselves quite as well as England can protect them. In Canada the position is somewhat different. Owing, perhaps, to comparative propinquity, there is much more sentimental loyalty to the British connection in Canada than in Australia; but there is certainly no enthusiasm for Imperial federation, and there is at least a feeling favorable to annexation to the United States, which finds occasional public expression, however small the number of those who share it.

Mr. Parkin insists that Canada is essential to the federal scheme. He is a Canadian himself, and he gives a chapter each to Canada, French Canada, and Mr. Goldwin Smith, on whom his animadversions are severe. His work is really an appeal *pro domo sua*, and a tract against annexation. This explains, on the one hand, his tolerance for the National Policy of protection, which has checked the gravitation of Canada towards its bigger neighbor; on the other, his exaggeration of the difference in political purity on this side of the border and on that. While superficial or prejudiced observers may regard the recent scandals in Quebec as an isolated case, those who are truly familar with Canadian politics are aware of a corruption that would challenge the admiration of a Dudley or a Quay. Had our spoilsmen, accordingly, a motive for promoting the annexation of Canada, they would have no cause to dread a preponderating accession of moral forces such as strive against them here. Mr. Parkin, finally, makes the most of the loyalty of the Canadian French, and of their repugnance to annexation for fear of being swallowed up in the great Anglo-Saxon Republic. He implies that he thinks their holding their own in Canada not a bad thing for the Dominion, and he is certain of the want of permanence of the French-Canadian colonization of New England.

Inherited loyalty; high rank in the world's total of tonnage afloat; a friendly transcontinental route for British troops to be used in Asiatic waters; a capacity to furnish the whole of England's need for grain and much of its meat supply—all these things are little likely to avail against natural affinities and tendencies such as exist between Canada and the United States. The sensible postal union of the two countries typifies that community of interest which the National Policy and the McKinley tariff work against as long as "manifest destiny" permits—and no longer. The constant migration at all points from the Dominion to the States tells the same story. Mr. Parkin's audience slips away from him while he addresses it. What motive could England have for multiplying artificial barriers to this spontaneous fellowship; or, supposing Imperial federation once accomplished on Mr. Parkin's lines, what could she do to prevent Canada from withdrawing from it in obedience to a higher power than loyalty? British statesmen of a non-jingo stripe may be trusted to prize Canada more as an integral part of a friendly United States—freed alike from the schoolboy traditions of hatred growing out of our wars, and from the cowardly protectionist tradition of industrial and commercial rivalry—than as the keystone in a dubious arch of semi-detached colonies.

The Elements of Statics and Dynamics. By S. L. Loney, M. A., Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, and Lecturer at the Royal Holloway College. Part I. Elements of Statics. Part II. Elements of Dynamics. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE elementary text-books in the various departments of mathematics which have been published in England during the last decade in continually increasing numbers, have all been characterized by a tendency which is constantly becoming more and more prominent. The number of "examples" and "exercises" is ever increasing. The student is called upon to read little and to work a great deal. The ability to solve problems is the final test of his proficiency. Mr. Loney's two little treatises are fair, though by no means extraordinary, specimens of this tendency. His small book on Statics contains 630 "examples"; his still smaller book on Dynamics contains 470; besides these there is a large number of examples worked out in detail to illustrate the meaning of the text, and to serve as models for the student in his assaults upon the unsolved 1,100. The first and most obvious inference from these facts would be that English writers and teachers had become impressed with the necessity of subordinating theory to practice. Deftness and readiness in the application of principles would seem to be considered of more importance than clear and exact notions in regard to the principles themselves. So far as the authors of text-books are concerned, this inference would be unjust. While there is a manifest effort to compress the text into the smallest compass, there is also an anxious striving to attain clearness and precision in the statement of principles. But felicitous illustrations and abundant "examples" are the matters on which the author chiefly relies for the success of his book.

Now, the prominence of this feature in recent text-books is not due to any particular change in the notions of teachers as to the best methods of instruction. They have not become suddenly conscious of the importance of the practical applications of knowledge. The real cause is political rather than pedagogical. When the English Government, forced by the pressure of public opinion, determined to pursue a new method of making appointments to the civil service, the plan adopted was, in its most essential feature, a matter of necessity, not of choice. Under the old system the character and ability of the applicant were matters of subordinate importance. The personal, political, and social "influence" of his backers was the potent factor. The mass of the people complained that the civil service was almost entirely confined to the kindred and the protégés of the nobility. Public opinion demanded that applicants from all classes should stand an equal chance and "the best man should win"; that point being granted, "competitive examinations" followed as a matter of course. The objections against them, however weighty, were all out of place unless accompanied by the proposal of some better system, and no one had any better system or, in fact, any other system at all to propose.

The method of competitive examinations having been decided upon, it necessarily followed that the examinations must be written, not oral. From an oral examination it was impossible to eliminate the suspicion of personal, political, and social influence. The ability to excel competitors in a written examination has thus become an indispensable requisite for the attainment of the great majority of positions in the civil service. The results of this system in the civil service of the Government have been so satisfactory that it has been reported in the public press that several of the great financial and commercial institutions of London are considering the propriety of adopting the same system in filling vacancies in their offices. All this necessarily has a great influence upon the methods of instruction in the English schools. The object of an old-fashioned "pass" examination was to ascertain whether the pupil would probably be able to "worry through" the next higher grade. Now the probability of his finding it necessary to enter the lists of a competitive examination is continually increasing, and there is a consequent increase in the severity of the "pass" examinations. For these reasons the prefaces of many recent text-books, and among them Mr. Loney's, contain lists of the examinations which the author of each has more particularly had in view in its composition, and, under each examination, a statement of those portions of the work which are indispensable to success and of those which may be safely omitted.

As the number of candidates who hope to be successful in a competitive examination for a position in the civil service increases, the examinations necessarily become more severe. This increasing severity has often been attributed to a desire on the part of the examiners to confine the competition to such candidates as, from the wealth and social position of their families and friends, have received a liberal education. But this increasing severity is a necessary result of the system itself. When

there are ten candidates for one position, all of whom in their physical and moral character are unexceptionable, the only way of deciding the matter is by increasing the severity of the examination until nine of them fall behind the tenth. In the department of mathematics a written examination for the most part is necessarily made up of theorems to be proved and problems to be solved, and hence many of the recent text-books call attention to the fact that a large number of their examples have been taken from papers used in actual civil-service examinations.

As the system of competitive examinations extends, the tendency of text-books to become more and more like collections of graded examples will also grow, and the question naturally presents itself, What will be the effect upon the progress of the science of mathematics? Most people would, perhaps, be inclined at first to infer that mathematics must become more and more of a trade and less and less of a science. Students will be more inclined to regard the text-book as a collection of rules verified by experience, and skill in the application of the rules as the matter of main importance. Philosophical generalization will become entirely subordinate to useful specialization. But even a superficial acquaintance with the history of mathematics will dissipate all fears on this head. Almost all the great discoveries in mathematics have originated in attempts to solve some particular problem. The surest road to the discovery of new truths in mathematics is skill in the application of truths already known. Of course a young man who intends to devote himself to some profession in which, as in astronomy or the various departments of engineering, the constant application of mathematics is indispensable, can hardly spend too much time in the solution of problems. But even he who intends to become a professional teacher of mathematics, and hopes some day to be able to contribute something to the advancement of the science, will never regret the time he spent in working out "examples."

In support of this opinion we are able to cite an authority which is almost conclusive. Mr. Ball, in his 'Short History of Mathematics,' has characterized Lagrange as "the greatest mathematician since the time of Newton." In another place he says of him: "Lagrange was above all a student of pure mathematics; he sought and obtained abstract results of great generality, and was content to leave the applications to others." Yet Lagrange himself, in a letter of advice to a young friend engaged in studying mathematics, urges him above all things to solve all the problems that his text-books contain. He says that he himself pursued this course in his younger days, and he attributes to it, in great part, his subsequent success. In fact, the solution of problems in large number seems to have the same effect upon the mind that the performance of the feats of the gymnasium has upon the body: in either case the immediate object in view is of very little importance, but the vigor, suppleness, and endurance thereby acquired are the best preparation for the accomplishment of really important work. On the whole, we think this increased attention to the application of general principles to particular cases will, in the end, be conducive to the progress of mathematical science in its higher and more abstract forms.

Any detailed criticism of Mr. Loney's little books would be out of place here. They have evidently been prepared with great care, and are perhaps as well adapted as any that can be obtained to accomplish the main purpose they have in view, viz., to prepare the student to pass an examination successfully.

Memorial History of New York City. Edited by James G. Wilson. Vol II. New York History Co.

THE second volume of General Wilson's History has much to commend it. It contains many interesting historical contributions, and is, besides, like the first volume, well printed and beautifully illustrated. Among the historical studies are specially to be noticed that entitled "William Cosby, and the Freedom of the Press," by Eugene Lawrence; the narrative of the part taken by New York in the Stamp Act troubles, as told by John Austin Stevens; and the chapter devoted to George Clinton and his contest with the Assembly, written by Dr. Gitterman. These are important and interesting historical events and are fully treated by these writers; but it is too much to say that special studies constitute a history, and thus far Gen. Wilson's work can be considered only a collection of such essays, of greater or less merit—only links and not a complete chain.

There are even greater faults of commission than of omission in the editorial work assumed by Gen. Wilson. A case in point is the intrusion of a list of burgomasters and mayors, from 1653 to the end of the seventeenth century, in the second volume, which is devoted entirely to the eighteenth century. This list is printed at the end of the *first* chapter (which is a study of the administration of the Earl of Bellomont, 1698-1701). Besides, the list ends at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and there the subject is dropped entirely, to be resumed again at the end of the fifth chapter, but with no mention of the mayors for the years from 1700 to 1720. At the end of the eighth chapter it is again continued, and concludes with John Cruger, who was mayor until 1734. No further reference is made to this subject, and the list is left unfinished at this point, though the second volume completes the history of the century. If these two volumes had constituted, as the title announces, a history of the city, such a list, except for reference, would have been useless; the mayor has always been the city's chief executive officer, and his name, term of office, and activities could not have been separated in a true history from the narrative of the city's growth and development, as is done in this work. If the list was furnished for reference only, then it should have been complete and continuous, and not fragmentary and scattered capriciously throughout the volume, as has been done by the editor.

The presswork, and particularly the character of the illustrations, cannot be too highly commended, but here again the editor fails to perform his duties. He reproduces everything, whether its interest is near or remote, and many of the illustrations that would be of rare interest appear without any explanation. For instance, there is to be found on page 83 an illustration of the Palace of Blenheim, reproduced only because "the present duchess is a native of New York"; and again, the ruined tower of Heidelberg (page 109) is apparently included only because "the thousands of Americans who have made pilgrimages to Heidelberg to look upon the picturesque ruins of the old castle, will hear with regret that, at the present writing, the Grand Duke of Baden is considering plans for its restoration." These are pretty and interesting views, and might properly be placed in a collection of historical pictures, but a history of New York gives no excuse for their appearance. There are already too many picture-books about old New York, and not enough histories.

Another case in point, of the reproduction of most interesting historical documents without any explanation, is a facsimile of a deed signed by Richard Nicolls in 1667. This document is of great historic interest, not only because Richard Nicolls was the first English Governor of New York, but because under him some of the old Dutch forms and customs continued to prevail, and many of the old Dutch officials were retained. The deed was evidently written by one of the old Dutch scribes, bearing on its face in the German form of the handwriting an interesting evidence of this transition. Not only does this document appear without any explanation, but it is to be found at the end of the first volume (page 583) in a list entitled "Bibliography of the New York Press in the Seventeenth Century," to which it has absolutely no relation.

A complete and carefully prepared index may, we suppose, be looked for on the completion of this work. At present the reader has to rely on his own efforts more than those of the editor to find in these volumes a history of New York.

A Footnote to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. viii., 332, 8vo.

SEVERAL years ago, in a speech in the Senate, Mr. Sherman characterized the Samoan question as "the smallest controversy in which the United States could be or has ever been engaged." It is the pitiful story of the later stages of this controversy that Mr. Stevenson tells in this 'Footnote to History.' In the opening chapters the actors and the scene of the events are described in strong and picturesque language. There are, on the one hand, the childlike islanders; on the other, the representatives of the three most powerful nations of the civilized world. Of these the chief actor—and offender—is Germany; while, according to Mr. Stevenson, "the States have the cleanest hands," though "even theirs are not immaculate." The Samoans are contending for all that men hold dear—their liberty. The Germans bombard villages, destroy plantations, dethrone and exile kings, at the bidding and in the interests of a trading-firm. The islands, doubtless, would long ago have been annexed to the Empire but for the vigorous protests of the British and American consuls, backed by their home governments.

The narrative opens with the incidents which led to the deposition of the king, or head-chief, and his deportation to Europe on a German frigate in 1887. Upon this follows a series of trivial transactions which would be simply amusing from their very triviality, had they not at times been accompanied by bloodshed and the wanton destruction of property. The mere threat to kill some pigs, for instance, is magnified into an atrocity which finally assumed the dignity of an international question. The combined navies of the three Powers are called upon to punish recusant taxpayers. The story, in a word, as told by Mr. Stevenson, reads like the libretto of a comic opera; the naval captains even playing parts which vividly recall the exploits of the gallant commander of H. M. S. *Pinafore*. What heightens the humorous effect is the fact that the natives themselves, when most in earnest, still seem to be playing at war. Singular

enough, the lack of humor or the appreciation of it in the Germans has been a frequent source of trouble in their dealings with the natives and the other whites. "Their solemnity," says Mr. Stevenson, "is accompanied by a touchiness often beyond belief. Patriotism flies in arms about a hen; and if you comment upon the color of a Dutch umbrella, you have cast a stone against the German Emperor." A traveller, on complaining of the vermin which infested a certain vessel, was suddenly and sharply rebuked. "The ship of which he spoke, he was reminded, was a German ship!"

With the disastrous hurricane of 1889, of which a fine description is given, there is "an end of violence," unless the war has broken out afresh, as recent tidings from the islands seem to indicate, over the vexed question of unpaid taxes. "Carpet incidents" alone remain to be recorded, such as the reinstatement of the exiled king with his great rival as *maire de palais*, and the establishment of a court of justice and board of land commissioners, both composed of foreigners. Yet even in carrying out these peaceful measures the Germans how the same irritating inability to adapt themselves to native customs and habits of thought which has temporarily wrecked their colony in East Africa, and has already led to new complications in unfortunate Samoa. Mr. Stevenson believes that it is in the power of the German Emperor to put an end to these troubles, and closes his book with an earnest appeal to him to give to Mataafa "a fitting share of rule." Of this chief, the successful defender of the natives' liberties, and in all things but the name the true king of Samoa, an attractive picture is given. "He is of a tall and powerful person, sixty years of age, white-haired and with a white moustache; his eyes bright and quiet; his jaw perceptibly underhung, which gives him something of the expression of a benevolent mastiff; his manners dignified and a thought insinuating, with an air of a Catholic prelate." A devout Romanist, his later life has been marked by a purity almost inconceivable in a Polynesian. The pen portraits of the whites who have been prominent in the Samoan affairs are more indistinct, probably intentionally so; but few or none of them receive such hearty commendation as this semi-civilized savage.

A certain incoherency at times marks the book, due probably to the haste with which it was evidently written, and accordingly it is not always easy to keep the thread of the narrative. Nor is sufficient allowance made for the general reader's ignorance of Samoa and its recent history. Regarded as a whole, however, it is an earnest and, from its statement of facts, eloquent advocacy of the rights of the natives by one who has lived among them for three years and knows whereof he writes.

There are many very characteristic stories and incidents scattered through Mr. Stevenson's volume, with one of which we will close this notice. During the hurricane the Samoans, at the peril of their lives, rescued many seamen from the wrecked vessels, showing no difference between the Germans, with whom they were then at war, and the Americans. They displayed remarkable honesty, also, in the restitution of the immense amount of valuable property which was cast upon the beach. On both accounts "the Government of the United States showed themselves generous in reward." The German Consul paid three dollars a head for each of his countrymen saved. In one instance this was refused. "I have saved three Germans," said the rescuer. "I will make you a present of the three."

The Livery Companies of the City of London: their origin, character, development, and social and political importance. By W. Carew Hazlitt. With two colored plates and numerous illustrations. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xiv, 692.

THE most unsatisfactory part of this book is the long preface (pp. 1-60), which comprises an apotheosis of the Livery Companies and a rambling account of their general history. The author regards the existing companies as "promoters of almost every department of humanizing and elevating science." They have also formed "an immemorial link between commercial life and the aristocracy," because many noblemen in past times have sought membership in the gilds. For the preservation of these "old stones of London" he urges, moreover, the common English plea, *quieta non movere*, and the fact that the City of London, with its gild machinery, "is a most potential and unique factor in knitting together the classes, and in preserving from decay and oblivion the ancient hospitality of our Kings." He believes that the companies and the civic corporation "are infinitely more secure from molestation at this moment than they were ten years ago," and that a long future of prosperity is in store for them. We fear that the author's arguments will not convert many of Mr. Firth's followers.

The origin of gilds and the general history of the London companies are also considered in the preface, but only in a desultory and very unsatisfactory fashion. On page 13 we are informed that the germ of gilds was undoubtedly the old Anglo-Saxon principle of suretyship; but on page 16 their rise in England is ascribed to a foreign source, "to Continental influence and example, more particularly to the precedents set in the Low Countries and in Italy." It is difficult to understand how a writer can hold both these views; and neither of them is tenable according to the best authorities on the history of English gilds. Nor can we accept the opinion that the main ostensible justification of the sufferance or existence of the early London craft fraternities "was, not trade, but charity and alms" (p. 4). Mr. Hazlitt thinks that the feebleness of the Plantagenet Kings contributed greatly to the growth of gilds; but most scholars have rightly ascribed much influence to the strength, not to the weakness, of the Crown; it was the comparatively great power of royalty that prevented gilds and municipalities in mediæval England from assuming the dominant position or political importance which they attained on the Continent. It would thus be nearer the truth to say that the strength of English royalty contributed to the weakness of gilds, not *vice versa*.

We have also noticed some minor errors in the preface. The list of works relating to Continental gilds, on page 54, is inaccurate and incomplete. The great national collection of French chronicles and records, the 'Documents Inédits,' is cited as a work on gilds, written or edited by M. Delpit. The earliest mention of Billingsgate as a place of lading (p. 17) should be antedated about three centuries. The ordinance of 1416, enacting that no citizen should belong to more than one fraternity, was not a "new" regulation (p. 32); the same principle was enunciated in the Statute of 37 Edward III. The chief defect of the preface, however, is not the prevalence of errors (we have not discovered many), but its discursiveness and incompleteness. Notwithstanding its great length, it has almost nothing to say concerning the most interesting and instructive side of the history of the London companies, namely, their past relations to the civic corporation, and the process by which they became an integral part of the machinery of municipal government.

The preface is followed by a "General Introduction" (pp. 61-100), which is a digest of the first part of the elaborate Parliamentary returns made in 1884 by the Livery Companies Commission. Among other things, this introduction contains a general account of the present government, membership, and income of the companies. Mr. Hazlitt refers to these Parliamentary reports indifferently as those of 1880, 1882, and 1884 (pp. 39, 41, 57), which is confusing, to say the least.

In the body of his book the author gives an account of fifty-two defunct and seventy-five existing companies of London, based upon the above-mentioned Parliamentary papers and some other sources. The wide scope of the work permits him to present only the salient facts in the history of each company. He glides somewhat too rapidly over their origin and early development, and is inclined to lay too much emphasis upon references in old records to an existence "from a time whereof there is no memory." Hence he shrouds the inception of some of the leading companies in the mists of remote antiquity. He states, for example, that the Gild of Weavers existed before the Norman Conquest (p. 661), for which assertion there is no good ground. For "ministers," on page 662, read "craft" or "mistery" (the Latin is *ministerium*); for "quarterwages," on the same page, read "quarterages." On the whole, the body of the work is well written, well printed, and well illustrated. Though not the result of original research, it gives, in a compact form, a vast amount of information, not easily accessible, relating to the London Livery Companies.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. Recent Rambles; or, In Touch with Nature. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Adams, C. F. Three Episodes of Massachusetts History. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Baker, W. S. Itinerary of General Washington from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Baldwin, James. Six Centuries of English Poetry. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bean, F. Ruth Marsh; A Story of the Aroostook. U. S. Book Co.
Black, W. Green Pastures and Piccadilly. Harpers. 90 cents.
Blanchard's Map of Chicago. Chicago: Blanchard & Co.
Blanchard, Rufus. Columbian Memorial Songs. Chicago: Blanchard & Co.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Giovanni and the Other Children who have made Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Byrner, E. L. Zachary Phips. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Carryl, C. E. The Admiral's Caravan. Century Co. $1.50.
Case, Prof. Mary E. The Love of the World. Century Co. $1.
Cheap-Money Experiments in Past and Present Times. Century Co. 75 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Addison's Criticisms on Paradise Lost. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Cunningham, Rev. W. The Growth of English Industry and Commerce in Modern Times. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Dorr, Mrs. J. C. R. Poems. Complete ed. Scribners $2.50.
Dowling, Richard. Catmur's Cave. National Book Co.
Doyle, A. C. Adventures of Sherlock Holmes. Harpers. $1.50.
Drake, Jeannie. In Old St. Stephen's. Appletons.
Duhring, Julia. Amor in Society. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Dumas, A. Twenty Years After. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Fawcett, Edgar. An Heir to Millions. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co. $1.25.
Francis, J. G. A Book of Cheerful Cats and Other Animated Animals. Century Co. $1.
Frothingham, W., and Tower, Charlemagne. Our Book; or, Literary Rambles of a Journalist. 2d ed. G. W. Dillingham.
Fuller, H. B. The Chatelaine of La Trinité. Century Co. $1.25.

Gestefeld, Ursula N. The Woman who Dares. Lovell, Gestefeld & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, Rev. M. L. An American Missionary in Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, W. J. Englishman's Haven. Appletons.
Greenleaf, Simon. A Treatise on the Law of Evidence. 3 vols. 15th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $18.
Griswold, W. M. Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in Germany. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Griswold, W. M. Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in Italy. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Harland, Marion. Common Sense in the Household. Majority ed. Scribners. $1.50.
Harris, T. M. The Assassination of Lincoln: A History of the Great Conspiracy. Boston: American Citizen Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Crow's Nest and Belhaven Tales. Century Co. $1.25.
Hering, Fanny Field. Life and Works of J. L. Gérôme. Cassell. $30.
Heyne, Prof. Moriz. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Vierter Halbband. Lücht—Quittung. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Westermann.
Hoblyn, R. D. A Dictionary of Terms Used in Medicine. 12th ed. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Hope, Anthony. Mr. Witt's Widow. U. S. Book Co.
Howells, W. D. A Little Swiss Sojourn. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The Quality of Mercy. Harpers. 75 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Island of Fantasy; A Romance. Lovell, Gestefeld & Co. $1.25.
Hungerford, Mrs. Nor Wife nor Maid. Hovendon Co.
Ilowizi, Henry. The Quest of Columbus: A Memorial Poem. Chicago: H. J. Smith.
Jones, Mrs. E. M. Dairying for Profit; or, The Poor Man's Cow. Orange Judd Co. 30 cents.
Jusserand, J. J. A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
La Brête, Jean de. My Uncle and my Curé. Dodd, Mead & Co.
La Queux, W. Strange Tales of a Nihilist. Cassell. 50 cents.
Lea, H. C. A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the 13th Century. Philadelphia: Lea Bros & Co.
Lemcke, Gesine. Desserts and Salads. 5th ed. C. T. Dillingham & Co. $1.25.
Litchfield, Frederick. Illustrated History of Furniture. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $10.
Littell's Living Age. July—September, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lodge, O. J. Lightning Conductors and Lightning Guards. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Loftus, Lord A. Diplomatic Reminiscences. 1837–1862. 2 vols. Cassell. $6.
Lomas, John. O'Shea's Guide to Spain and Portugal. 9th ed. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Lowell, E. J. The Eve of the French Revolution. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lummis, C. F. Some Strange Corners of Our Country. Century Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 20, 1892.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S Civil-Service Reform Commissioners have once more run up against President Harrison's Postmaster-General in their efforts to enforce the civil-service laws and regulations, and have, as has invariably been the case in all previous collisions of the kind, got the worst of the encounter. That is to say, they have left no doubt in anybody's mind about the merits of their side of the case; but as Mr. Wanamaker has the administering of the regulations of his department, and as he is able to count upon the entire support of the President in whatever course he may adopt, he is able to snap his fingers at the Commissioners without fear of consequences. The Michigan case was substantially the same as that revealed in Chairman Hackett's first confidential circular in New York State. It was an attempt by the Republican State Committee to make the post-offices of the State an adjunct to the Republican campaign machinery. The language used on both occasions was the same, and was strikingly like that employed in Wanamaker's own circulars put forth by him early in his career as a public man, when he was using his Cabinet position to promote his clothing business. The Civil-Service Commissioners called Mr. Wanamaker's attention to the attempt of the Michigan Republican Committee to do what Mr. Hackett is doing, saying that it was contrary to the postal regulations, and adding that nobody could be discharged for refusing the Committee's request. Mr. Wanamaker's reply is that he regrets that he is "powerless to prohibit persons from making requests of this kind." He is not able to issue an order to all postmasters directing them to refuse to comply with such requests, and assuring them of his protection in such refusal. His reply is nothing less than a notification to the Hacketts of the Republican party that they need fear no interference from the head of the Post-office Department.

The appearance of the Attorney-General of the United States as private counsel in a case before the Federal Supreme Court is an extraordinary event, but Mr. Miller's performance last week was only in keeping with all the circumstances of the suit in which he appeared. This was the attempt of the Michigan Republicans to set aside the law passed by the Democratic Legislature last year under which the Presidential electors next month are to be chosen by districts. From first to last this assault upon the law has been characterized by the most ridiculous features. It was started by ex-Congressman Cutcheon, who pronounced the bill "revolutionary in its character," and confessed an almost incredible ignorance of his country's history by saying that he was "not aware that any State since the foundation of this Government has ever departed from this rule, of choosing Presidential electors by the State at large," and that "never before, to my knowledge, has it been attempted to confer the power to appoint Presidential electors upon Congressional districts and vulgar fractions of a State."

The truth is, that at the very first Presidential election, in 1789, the State of Massachusetts adopted the district system, and that several other States chose electors by popular vote in the Congressional districts, exactly as is now proposed in Michigan, until well on in the present century. New York followed this practice as late as 1828, when twenty Jackson electors and sixteen for Adams were chosen, and Maryland did not abandon the system until 1832. It must be remembered that the district system was put into operation and maintained during the lifetime of the men who framed the Constitution; and the utter weakness of the present attack upon the Michigan statute was shown by this question, which Justice Gray addressed to the Attorney-General during the latter's argument:

> "Do you find, Mr. Miller, that while the district system of choosing electors prevailed in some States, it was challenged at any time as being beyond the power of the Legislature?"

Mr. Miller was constrained to admit that he never heard of such a thing, and with this admission the case against the Michigan law fell to the ground. It was inconceivable that the Supreme Court should annul a law which is not only in pursuance of the constitutional provision that each State shall appoint its electors "in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct," but which follows a long line of early precedents established without any question on the part of a single framer of the Constitution. The Court has, in fact, promptly given a unanimous decision against the Attorney-General's view.

Mr. Blaine and Mr. Egan have been produced in the canvass at last, and their observations indicate clearly that the "Blaine Irishman" is intended to play a prominent part in it during the next two weeks. Mr. Blaine's address was short, and was, we believe, read from a manuscript to a crowd in front of the Hon. Whitelaw Reid's house in the country. He said simply a few words on the importance of the protective policy to both the manufacturing and agricultural interests of the country, and, in answer to the charge that the tariff was establishing a plutocratic government, showed that the Hon. Whitelaw Reid's list of millionaires printed in the *Tribune* contained only two or three who had made their money in manufactures. He then encouraged the Irish to vote against "British free trade," but said not a word to the colored men about the Democratic attempt uncovered by the Hon. Whitelaw Reid to nullify the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments. Mr. Blaine's remarks, in fact, had all the marks of failing strength, and it seems a great pity that his friends should have allowed him to be dragged out in this way. Mr. Egan simply defended briefly his course in Chili, saying that he had merely followed his instructions, which were, of course, admirable and highly American. The speech of the occasion was Mr. Chauncey Depew's, of which the *Tribune* says: "The audience were kept laughing during most of Mr. Depew's remarks." He eulogized the Hon. Whitelaw Reid amid roars of laughter, eulogized Mr. Egan amidst similar merriment, and made the sides of his hearers actually ache over his account of Major McKinley. It is in this way that he renders his party the immense service of preventing its absurdities from being revolting by making them ludicrous.

When Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, in a brief letter recently published, announced his intention to vote for Cleveland, a number of Republican politicians, including Chris Magee, Dave Martin, and the chiefs of the Manufacturers' Club, could n't imagine what his reasons were for such action, but were convinced that they were bad reasons. They allowed their curiosity to get the better of them to such an extent that Mr. MacVeagh felt called upon to state them at length and with particularity in a public speech on Saturday evening—a speech which has seldom been surpassed or equalled in the public debates of this country. The admirable logic of his argument is matched only by the high aim of his endeavor. The whole discourse has the ring of true patriotism, clear and unmistakable. Mr. MacVeagh is known to be no office seeker or popularity-hunter. It is some years since his voice has been heard on the stump. In fact, his friends have a right to complain that he has kept such conspicuous oratorical gifts in the background. But one of the results of such abstention is that when he does speak, he commands the widest and closest attention. Such attention his speech of Saturday will surely receive, and its effect upon the thinking and reasoning classes of the community must be very great. It is to be regretted that it was not delivered earlier, so that it might have had more extensive circulation as a campaign document.

Congressman Lodge figures in the list of "Harvard Men in Politics," of whom Mr. Theodore Roosevelt writes in the new *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, and of whom he says that to be a member of that noble band "a man must have in him a strong and earnest sense of duty and the desire to accomplish good for the commonwealth, without regard to the effect upon himself." Mr. Lodge's speeches in this campaign show how he is striving to live up to this praise. In Lynn he made an attack upon Mr. Cleveland for having, while Governor of this State, vetoed some of the more dangerous and preposterous of the bills then enacted in the name of "Labor," and for killing, as President, the bill to turn the Bureau of Printing over to the Typographical Union. To endeavor thus to ingratiate himself with the Lynn operatives by playing the demagogue, proves how strong and earnest a sense of duty Mr. Lodge carries into politics. But the instance which showed conclusively his well-known lack of "regard to the effect upon himself" of his political utterances was his reference, in Springfield on October 11, to the article of Prof. Woolsey condemning the foreign policy of President Harrison, and which he ignorantly took to be a quotation from some work of President Woolsey's. Said Mr. Lodge, after quoting the passage cited in the address of the Massachusetts Independents: "If that does not mean, although carefully worded, to any fair-minded man who reads it, that President Woolsey uttered those words in criticism of President Harrison, then language contains no meaning." Then he went on triumphantly to show that President Woolsey died July 1, 1889, and therefore could not have been referring to the present Administration, and added with becoming indignation: "It is going beyond the limits of political warfare to use the words of the dead in such a way as to make them appear the condemnation and the criticism upon acts which occurred since death sealed their lips for ever." The best that can be said of this confusion of the two Woolseys is that it was a fearful blunder for a "scholar in politics" to make. The Independents have promptly pilloried him, and demanded that he withdraw his accusation of bad faith; it remains to be seen whether his lips will remain sealed for ever on this subject, as they have been upon his own Force Bill.

Thirty years ago a college professor who was a Democrat was a great rarity. Indeed, Prof. Shaler of Harvard recalls the time when he was the only man among all the professors and instructors at Harvard who usually voted the Democratic ticket, and the Republican preponderance was something like fifty to one. The disparity between the two parties at that period was about as marked at Yale as at Harvard. Now a large majority of the Yale faculty are going to vote the Democratic national ticket, while among the Harvard faculty the sentiment in favor of Cleveland is still more nearly unanimous. Nothing else so vividly illustrates the transformation which has come over the Republican party as these revolutions of sentiment among the instructors at our two oldest universities.

The *Herald*, which has certainly not been a supporter of Cleveland in this campaign, has been making a preliminary canvass of the votes in the State of New York by means of special correspondents detailed for the purpose. The reports have been almost uniformly of one kind, showing a steady and unmistakable Democratic gain or Republican loss. The results were summed up editorially by the *Herald* on Monday. Although there is a shortage of campaign enthusiasm on both sides, the lack is "far more marked on the Republican than on the Democratic side." In three banner Republican counties in the Genesee Valley, which gave Harrison 4,569 plurality in 1888, "the most enthusiastic Republican does not think that this year it will be over 3,850." Cattaraugus and Chautauqua Counties gave pluralities of 2,413 and 5,930 respectively. "This year the Republicans claim only 2,200 and 5,800 respectively, while the Democrats concede but 2,000 and 5,400." In Orleans County a shrinkage of 163 is expected by the Republicans, and about double that number by the Democrats. A similar tale comes from Monroe County. "In Rochester, where the German vote is heavy, the tide is running towards Cleveland." Otsego County gave Harrison 857 plurality. "If it goes so by 600 this time, the result will surprise thinking men of both parties." The *Herald* concludes its review by saying that, "in the quarters so far heard from, the Republican tide seems to be falling and the Democratic rising." Remarkable confirmation of the *Herald's* estimate (which coincides with the recent observations of a correspondent of the *Evening Post*) is furnished by a staff correspondent of the New York *Press*, who is likewise making a canvass of the interior of the State.

The fading away of the silver issue is one of the unmistakable signs of the times. Hardly anybody talks about it now, except those who are engaged in the production of the metal. The discussion of the State bank-note question has probably contributed something towards the weakening of silver politics, by showing those who think that there is a shortage of money that there are other ways of supplying it than by paying a superior kind of money out of the Treasury to buy the material for making an inferior kind. It stands to reason that that process cannot make *more* money, or not much more. It can only make a different kind. The silver notes have to be redeemed in gold, just as greenbacks and national bank-notes are, unless we are to slide off the gold basis altogether—a policy which nobody avowedly favors at the present time. As the silver cannot be sold in order to redeem the silver notes, what is the use of having it at all? Why not issue the notes (if more money is needed) without buying a lot of bullion that we can do nothing with, but must find storage-room for at considerable expense? Mr. Edward Atkinson has shown in a recent paper that there has been an increase of railway tonnage since 1882 of 340,000,000 tons per annum. He estimates the property moved by railway to be worth $20 per ton. If this is a correct estimate, the annual movement of property by railway is $6,800,000,000 greater than it was in 1882. In so far as this is represented by bank deposits and bank clearings it does not call for any considerable increase of money, but in fact much of this increase has taken place in regions where there are no banks, and here additional money is required for additional business. Are the people of these regions, he asks, to be deprived of, or forbidden to provide themselves with, a circulating medium secured in such a way as they consider safe?

Mr. Atkinson continues:

"The effect of the prohibitory tax upon State bank-notes is to deprive States of the opportunity to serve themselves. It is a merely partisan pretence to say that this is a movement to go back to the 'wildcat' currency of fifty years ago.

"There is need of the adjustment of our circulating medium to the present conditions of our internal commerce; the first and essentially necessary step towards that adjustment is the repeal of this tax on State bank-notes. Otherwise, no Congress will be able to resist the cry for more money, either in the form of legal-tender notes, greenbacks, silver dollars, or some other kind of currency, probably of unsafe quality.

"Is it not an utter absurdity to assume that in these days of quick and ready communication a State bank can force an unsound and unsecure bank-note, which is not a legal tender, upon the community?"

There is the question in a nutshell. Either give the States, under suitable restrictions, the right to provide themselves with a currency, or their representatives in Congress will keep giving us silver until the gold basis is upset and we are sent sprawling along with Mexico, India, and China.

It is interesting to observe how quickly the popular sentiment in favor of the secret-ballot system silences the politicians whenever they raise an outcry against it. No sooner did it appear that the Republican majority in Vermont had fallen off about 10,000 at the first election under the Australian Ballot Law, than the Chairman of the Republican State Committee came out in his newspaper with a demand that the Legislature should repeal the law as soon as it met, and Republican organs throughout the State printed reports that there would be a strong movement in that direction. But the Legislature has met

and been in session a fortnight, and while various amendments to the law have been proposed, not a single member has ventured to introduce a proposition for its repeal. It will undoubtedly be the same way in Maine. In that State the passage of the law had been bitterly opposed by Congressman Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig and Courier*, on the ground that it was a "dangerous scheme" for the Republican party, and when the first election under it cut down the party's majority by many thousands, he resumed his assaults upon the system; but it is already obvious that there is no chance of his succeeding.

The City Reform Club has completed the preparation of its seventh annual 'Record' of the doings of our city Senators and Assemblymen at Albany, and the book will be ready for distribution within a few days. It has been prepared with the same painstaking care which has characterized its predecessors, and, like them, gives a compact mass of clear and trustworthy information which every citizen who wishes to vote intelligently ought to be glad to obtain. It gives, in addition to a complete account of each legislator's conduct, an explanation of the course of bills in the Legislature, an account of the lobby and its methods, a synopsis of the principal bills acted upon at the last session, and maps showing the boundaries of both the old and the new Senate and Assembly districts of the city. It is impossible to praise too highly the patient perseverance of the members of the City Reform Club in compiling this 'Record' year after year, giving their time and ability to it without other reward than a consciousness of public duty well performed, and finding in the general public very slight recognition of their work. They circulated 20,000 copies last year, and propose to circulate 50,000 this year, the expense of the publication being defrayed entirely by voluntary contributions from persons impressed with the importance of the work. No charge is made for the book, which can be obtained by application to the City Reform Club, at No. 47 Cedar Street.

The biographies and legislative doings of our last delegation to Albany which the book gives, are not pleasant reading. They show that out of the twenty-four Assemblymen who represented the city, twenty were Tammany Democrats who made almost uniformly bad records, some of them irredeemably bad. Four of them were liquor-dealers, but these appear to be no more objectionable as legislators than Tammany men of other ocupations or of no occupations except politics. The only Tammany member who made what the Club's annotators are able to call a "fair record" was John Connelly of the old Nineteenth District. The three Republican members, Messrs. Conkling, Hoag, and Wells, all made very good records, but as they were in a hopeless minority, they were not able to be of much service to the city. Some of the most pernicious of last year's Tammany members have not been renominated this year, but others of them have. One of the worst—Philip Wissig of the old Eighth District—has been dropped by Tammany only to be taken up by the County Democracy; a performance by the latter organization which goes far to explain its inability to obtain public confidence in either its sincerity or its usefulness as an anti-Tammany influence.

The *Iron Age* publishes an article by a naval officer on the results of the French shipping bounty laws during the ten years for which statistics are now available. These bounties were of two kinds—one for navigation and the other for building ships. The navigation bounties were 29 cents per ton per 1,000 miles for over-sea voyages for new ships, the amount decreasing slightly as the ship wears out. There was no bounty for ships going to European ports. The whole amount paid out of the Treasury for this sort of bounty was $1,440,000 per annum. The result upon the whole registered merchant shipping of France, sail and steam, for the ten years has been an increase of fifty-two vessels and 24,715 tons. The writer of the article considers that the navigation bounties have been moderately successful, but he acknowledges that the ship-building bounty has been a failure. Of the 307,626 tons of iron or steel steamers built in France in ten years, 124,000 tons were for subsidized lines which are required by law to be built in the country, leaving 183,626 tons which were built under the bounty system in competition with English ship-yards. During the same period, 334,912 tons of steam-shipping were built in English yards for French ship-owners, notwithstanding the bounty of $12 per ton to the French builder. Of iron sailing-vessels, 22,000 tons were built in French yards, and 49,000 tons, or more than twice as much, built or purchased abroad, for French ship-owners. This is certainly a discouraging outlook for the advocates of bounties, but, in the true McKinley spirit, they come up and ask for more. The only reason for the failure, they say, is that the bounty was not large enough. So they have set a committee of the Deputies working over the subject and trying to redistribute the whole amount allowed for navigation and ship-building, so that some shall get a little more and some a little less of the taxpayers' earnings. But we predict that this plan will fall through, and that nobody will get any less, while some and probably all will get more; for was it not foretold by Merlin the Enchanter, in the time of Arthur and the Round Table, that Jacques Bonhomme would be easily cheated?

Early in the summer much discussion was had at a diocesan convention in England over the relation of the Church to the press, and the Archbishop of Canterbury himself, if we remember aright, advocated a wider utilization of the newspapers by the church authorities. It may be as a result that we have notice of the publication on October 1 of the *Illustrated Church News*. This is described as "a new church newspaper on popular lines." It is to be filled with "brief, vigorous articles, bright notes, pithy paragraphs"; is to contain "sketches of the clergy at work," "short stories," "amusing incidents," etc. All this looks ominous, and portends, we fear, not the elevation of journalism but the degradation of the other member of the partnership. It may be too late for a voice of friendly warning to reach the ear of the conductors of this "new departure," as it is advertised, in joining the "Church and the Press," but we can only tell them that, in this country at least, a paper described as theirs is would infallibly mean a new servant of the devil, not the Church. On the principle of not letting the devil have all the good music, it may be good policy not to let him have all the "bright notes" and "pithy paragraphs"; but he is a hard one to cheat in a bargain, and is very apt not only to keep the good things you want to get away from him, but to get away from you the good things you felt sure of keeping.

In the matter of thorough quarantine regulations Brazil holds the record. Her way is to fire upon incoming vessels and sink them outright. This surpasses the Colombian method of firing "a volley of bullets"; the aim being not to frighten away intruders, but to make them pay the just penalty of their temerity by sending solid shot through their hulls. On September 2 the English steamer *Chaucer* arrived off the port of Rio de Janeiro, and proceeded towards the Santa Cruz fort to exchange the customary signals. Fire was at once opened on her. After she was struck and in danger of foundering, the fort signalled to ask from what port she had sailed. This seems a little late, but everybody knows that there is nothing like taking the cholera in time. The captain of the steamer was then allowed to proceed to anchorage in the bay. We should think the artillerymen in the fort must have received a severe rebuke for having made such a mess of their work; at that short range the vessel should have been sunk at the first round. The next day a German steamer was fired on and got a shot through her rigging; this bad aim was excused when it was learned that she had five tons of dynamite on board. But these effective Brazilian measures make us blush for our own Quarantine. It is safe to say that the guns of Fort Hamilton could have sunk every "pest ship" that showed her nose in the Narrows.

PRESIDENTIAL CHANCES.

THE Presidential campaign enters upon its closing stages with a larger number of "doubtful" States to bother the political prophets than they have had in similar contests for many years. All authorities admit this, and all have reached that conclusion by studying the returns from the few State elections which have been held since the campaign began. The general effect of all these elections has been against Republican prospects in the nation, for they have shown that that party is weaker in the North than it has been in previous contests, and that it has made no headway in the South. The causes assigned by the Republicans themselves for the falling off in their party's strength in Vermont and Maine foreshadow similar losses in other Republican States in November, for the chief of them (the secret ballot and Republican apathy) will enter into the Presidential election in all of them. The Republicans must, therefore, confront in the election many more chances for defeat than they had reason to anticipate a few weeks ago, and many more such chances than will confront their opponents, whose prospects have been greatly improved by the demonstration that the solid South cannot be broken.

In order to see clearly what the chances on both sides are, let us divide the States, with their electoral votes, into the following groups :

SURELY DEMOCRATIC.

Alabama	11	Missouri	17
Arkansas	8	New Jersey	10
Delaware	3	North Carolina	11
Florida	4	South Carolina	9
Georgia	13	Tennessee	12
Kentucky	13	Texas	15
Louisiana	8	Virginia	12
Maryland	8	West Virginia	6
Michigan	4		
Mississippi	9	Total	173

SURELY REPUBLICAN.

California	9	Oregon	4
Colorado	4	Pennsylvania	32
Idaho	3	Rhode Island	4
Illinois	24	South Dakota	4
Kansas	10	Vermont	4
Maine	6	Washington	4
Michigan	10	Wyoming	3
Minnesota	9		
Nebraska	8	Total	161
Ohio	23		

DOUBTFUL.

Connecticut	6	New Hampshire	4
Indiana	15	New York	36
Iowa	13	North Dakota	3
Massachusetts	15	Wisconsin	12
Montana	3		
Nevada	3	Total	110

The full Electoral College comprises 444 votes, and 223 will be required to elect. It will be seen by the above classifications that the Democrats will need to gain 50 votes from the doubtful States to elect their candidates, and the Republicans will need to gain 62. We have placed all the Southern States in the Democratic list, and all of them are conceded to the Democrats with the exception of West Virginia, which is still claimed for the Republicans by some of their prophets, for the sole reason that "Steve" Elkins lives there and is devoting his personal energies, both as a political manipulator and as a Cabinet Minister, to the carrying of it for Harrison and Reid. This reason for considering it doubtful does not strike us as sufficient to justify its transfer from the Democratic column. We have left Illinois in the Republican column, though there are not wanting reasons for considering it a doubtful State this year. We have also left South Dakota and Washington in that column, though they are not by any means absolutely assured to Harrison. All the ten States which we have placed in the doubtful column are there for reasons which are in most cases too well known to require statement here. Montana is put there because it is believed to be as uncertain a State as Connecticut or Indiana; and Nevada and North Dakota are put there because it is wellnigh certain that both of them will be lost to the Republicans on the silver issue. In all probability both of them will cast their electoral votes for Gen. Weaver, the candidate of the People's party.

When we come to consider the combinations by which the Democrats can secure the fifty votes necessary to elect their candidates we find the following:

Sure Democratic States	173
New York	36
Indiana or Massachusetts	15
Total	224
Sure Democratic States	173
New York	36
Iowa	13
Montana	3
Total	225
Sure Democratic States	173
New York	36
Wisconsin	12
Connecticut	6
Total	227
Sure Democratic States	173
Indiana	15
Massachusetts	15
Wisconsin	12
Iowa	13
Total	228

All these combinations are made on a basis of only four Democratic electoral votes in Michigan, the number which the Republicans concede. The Democrats claim that they will get more than this—from five to seven. Giving them five, this combination could be made:

Sure Democratic States	174
Indiana	15
Iowa	13
Massachusetts	15
Connecticut	6
Total	223

On the Republican side the following combinations are possible:

Sure Republican States	161
New York	36
Massachusetts or Indiana	15
Wiscons n	12
Total	224
Sure Republican States	161
New York	36
Massachusetts or Indiana	15
Iowa	13
Total	225
Sure Republican States	161
New York	36
Massachusetts	15
Connecticut	6
New Hampshire	4
Montana	3
Total	225
Sure Republican States	161
Massachusetts	15
Indiana	15
Iowa	13
Wisconsin	12
Connecticut	6
Montana	3
Total	225
Sure Republican States	161
Massachusetts	15
Indiana	15
Iowa	13
Wisconsin	12
New Hampshire	4
Montana	3
Total	223

It will be observed that victory for either party will be comparatively easy with the thirty-six votes of New York, and more or less difficult without those votes. With them the Democrats are surer of winning than the Republicans, as our combinations show. In all the Republican combinations without New York, Indiana is an absolute necessity for success, together with Massachusetts, Iowa, and Wisconsin; yet Indiana is to day an almost certain Democratic State. The chances for the Democrats carrying it are excellent, as they are for their carrying New York. With these two States added to their column, the Democrats will have an easy victory, and if they lose both, they will have at least as many chances for success as their opponents. It is possible, of course, that the People's party may develop just enough strength in the new States to prevent either Cleveland or Harrison from getting a majority of the Electoral College, in which case the election will go to the House of Representatives and Cleveland will be chosen President.

A FAIR ELECTION IN NEW YORK.

WHATEVER else may be said of the decision of the Court of Appeals sustaining the constitutionality of the new Apportionment Act, it cannot be denied that it is in the interest of an honest and fair election contest in this State next November. If the court had refused to uphold the act, and had made it necessary thereby to hold the election under the old Apportionment Act, the Republican managers would have been furnished with precisely the thing they have been most anxious to obtain—that is, a basis for a "deal." The old act, which was passed in 1879, is confessedly a more unfair and partisan measure than the new act, but its partisan injustice is all in favor of the Republicans. Under its operation they have been able repeatedly to secure a majority in the Legislature though the Democrats have, in the same elections, carried the State by a large majority. If the Court of Appeals had upset the new act, and if the election in No-

vember were to be held under the act of 1879, the Republicans would have now by far the better prospects for securing control of the Assembly by a sufficient majority to overcome the Democratic majority of two in the Senate, and thus give them a majority on joint ballot and enable them to elect a United States Senator to succeed Mr. Hiscock.

This would be an ideal situation for a "deal," and the Republican attack upon the Apportionment Act was inspired by a hope of securing it. The Republican managers believed that if they were able to offer control of the Legislature and a United States Senatorship in return for votes for Harrison, they would have no difficulty in finding a market for their wares. Whether they were correct or not in this supposition is immaterial now; they cannot even attempt their bargain, since they have nothing to offer. The Democrats will be able to get control of the Assembly easily—there are no State Senators to be chosen this year—by a sufficient majority to give them the United States Senatorship, and they will not be tempted to sacrifice their national ticket in order to do so. The agreement of both political parties upon Judge Andrews, as a common candidate for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, is another step in the same direction. There will be no opportunity whatever for a "deal" on that office; and as there will be no other State candidate in the field, there will be no basis for a "deal" anywhere.

It is undoubtedly this aspect of the case which leads the Republicans to take such an unfavorable view of the Court of Appeals decision. They say it is a "humiliating" spectacle which a great court presents when it divides on party lines, and we quite agree with them; but the spectacle is not a new one, and in this instance there are extenuating circumstances which may be said fairly to mitigate the humiliation. We have only to contemplate the effects of a contrary decision to realize how much more partisan that would have been, and how much more serious would have been its results. As Judge Peckham points out in the majority opinion, the justice of the new apportionment has been questioned by only two of the sixty counties in the State, all others having acquiesced in it and arranged their districts in accordance with its demands. Then, too, if this act had been declared void in the very last days of the legal period for making nominations, the whole State would have been thrown into a condition of political chaos. It has been assumed that the election, in case of an adverse decision, would be held under the act of 1879, but this is by no means a certainty. As Judge Peckham's opinion says, the new act much more nearly approaches fairness and equality than its predecessors, and yet none of the latter has been brought before the courts. He goes on to say:

"Every county in the State but the two before us has acquiesced in the requirements of the act and apportioned its members among the towns and wards of the county or city, and done everything necessary to proceed to an election under its provisions. The greatest confusion and disorder would result from holding that this act is invalid. Whether any member of Assembly could actually be elected under any other law at this late day is quite problematical. The spectacle of a Legislature elected under an unconstitutional law, or part of the members elected under it and part under another, is one which ought not to be contemplated without the greatest anxiety by all honest citizens. When we come to the question of what law is in force in this State, if the law of 1892 is not, the situation becomes most alarming. The same reasoning which would set aside as void the act of 1892 would be still more powerful and cogent as showing the total invalidity of the act of 1879. This might relegate the people to the act of 1866, and thus we might have an attempt to have an election for members of Assembly under an act more than a quarter of a century old, and the Legislature representative of the people of that time. This would be a travesty on law and upon all ideas of equality, propriety, and justice."

As a matter of fact, the new apportionment, with the exception of the objections raised in two counties, is, as such acts go, an unusually fair division of the State, and is, as compared with the act which it supplants, a miracle of fairness. It ill becomes the Republicans, who had possession of the Legislature for years under the gerrymander of the old act, and who used their power in a perfectly shameless manner to deprive the Governor of his constitutional right of appointment, to make complaints of the new act and its effects. They have really had no right to the control of the Legislature for fully ten years. They have lost the power to control it longer at a very critical time for them; but as the loss is in the interest of a fair election in the State, they will find few sympathizers with them in their lamentations.

THE GOSPEL OF HATRED.

THERE is probably nothing in the present attitude of the Republican party which would more astonish the founders of the republic than the pride and satisfaction the leaders take in being hated by the civilized world outside of the United States. Mr. Depew's eulogy at Ophir Farm on Major McKinley showed that, in the orator's opinion, McKinley's eminence as a statesman was due principally to the fact that he was an object of greater detestation in England, France, Germany, and Italy than any other person in any one of these countries; or, in other words, that in the eyes of about 150,000,000 of the most civilized portion of the human race, the Major occupied the place hitherto reserved for the worst criminals—that is, pirates, wanton murderers, parricides, and train wreckers. This was said, too, by way of commending McKinley to the love and admiration of a large body of American (presumably) Christians, assembled at the house of the editor of the leading Republican newspaper, and for the purpose of inducing them to vote for a man so dominated by Christian principles that he has family prayer in the car when making long journeys by railroad.

The expectation of the founders of the American Commonwealth, and it is safe to say of most of their descendants until now, was that the new State would differ from the Old World in making the love and admiration, instead of the "dread and envy," of the foreigner the great aim of its foreign policy. Said Washington in the Farewell Address:

"Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. Religion and morality enjoin this conduct, and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free and enlightened and at no distant period a great nation to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that, in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it?"

If this policy has not ever since been pursued by politicians, it has at all events been kept in mind as a standard or ideal by the great bulk of the American people. It has been taught in schools and colleges as essentially the American rule of conduct, to be striven after and lived up to in so far as the weaknesses of human nature will permit. It was reserved for the Republican party to make the foreigners' hatred of him in time of profound peace a sign of an American statesman's success and a guarantee of his value to his own countrymen. If Washington and Franklin had been told that in 1892 an American public man would present as a title to popular respect and confidence the fact that the civilized world put him in the category which jurists call "enemies of the human race," they would have driven the prophet from their presence as a foul libeller of the young nation.

The Republican doctors, however, are not content with alleging that the civilized world hates McKinley as a reason why we should love him. It might be that they hated him through misapprehension or misinformation about his character and exploits, and therefore did him wrong, so that we should be justified in liking him and standing by him as the victim of gross injustice. To guard against this view, our Republican Christians take pains to show that McKinley has deserved the hatred of foreigners—that is, that he has really inflicted on them injuries which have in all places and in all ages called forth the bitterest hostility of which unregenerate human nature is capable. The Republican newspapers, and particularly the *Tribune*, reproduce every day or two, with a sort of diabolical glee, accounts of the suffering which the McKinley Bill is producing among the working classes in England and on the Continent—not only of embarrassment among the capitalists, but of hunger and despair among the artisans. The Republican orators do the same thing. The comments by which these stories of human misery are accompanied indicate a kind of satisfaction which, as we said a few weeks ago, has hitherto been consider-

ed peculiar to devils in hell, and which civilized men, even in time of war, are usually ashamed to show touching the condition of non-combatant enemies.

Many of these stories are manufactured for campaign purposes. We do not believe that the damage the McKinley Bill has done in Europe is as great as its supporters say it is; nor do we believe Mr. Depew's story about the hatred expended on McKinley. It is ridiculous on its face. The value of these tales lies mainly in the indication they afford of the moral condition of the party which was once supposed to contain the greater part of the "virtue and intelligence of the country." They are appeals to what is lowest and basest in human nature, to a selfishness which would disgrace a brigand's cave and a shamelessness rarely found except among habitual criminals. For McKinley's greatness really rests on nothing but the misery he has caused, or can persuade people he has caused, to his fellow-men. His mental equipment is of the very slenderest; his knowledge of his own subject even is hardly discernible. He is neither eloquent nor magnetic nor well informed. If he has not made the children of poor Austrian pearl-button-makers cry with hunger, or made the Welsh tin-makers spend their savings or pawn their furniture, he is nothing but the name of a bill which half his own countrymen look on as wicked and silly.

The ferocity which these Republican doctrines are well calculated to infuse into all trade disputes, too, is well worthy of the attention of all serious and patriotic men. There is nothing to-day causing more uneasiness in the political and economical world than the disposition of the working classes to treat all competitors or rivals in business as enemies, whose lives may justifiably be threatened, and whose property may be lawfully destroyed. Every newspaper one opens contains accounts of murders or outrages, or arson or pillage, caused by the notion that anybody who offers a commodity at a lower price than yours, or who refuses to give you your price for your commodity, may be lawfully set upon and put in terror of his life. Nothing that occurs in our time seems to put our civilization in such peril as these disputes. How to extinguish this savage view of business relations is a problem now engaging the best attention of politicians and philanthropists all over the world. But consider for a moment the tremendous stimulus which must be given to this view by the appearance in America, of all countries on earth, of a party which solemnly holds up everybody who offers to undersell you in the market as a personal enemy, whose misery and ruin it is the highest duty of a Christian statesman to compass, and the wretchedness of whose home is a spectacle over which a Christian community may lawfully gloat.

BOS LOCUTUS EST.

THE Union League Club has prepared and published the profoundest paper on the tariff which has yet appeared in any quarter. It appeared in full in the *Tribune* of Friday. With a large part of it all but the utterly depraved will cordially agree. Nobody, for instance, but a man lost to shame and decency will deny that

"the most vital function of a government is the power to raise money for its support. A government's existence depends upon its possession of this power, and the exercise of the power must go on or the government will fail. Whatever difference of opinion there may be as to forms of government, all have this corner-stone in common. Political economists may differ as to the method of raising the money, but all agree as to the basis upon which the political structure we call a civil government must stand."

A government which could not raise money would certainly be in a bad way. The Union League certainly does not go too far in saying that a government which cannot raise money for its support "will fail." This is, as the report well remarks, the common "corner-stone" of all schools of political economy. But it is a truth which is often hidden away by sophists from the popular gaze. One of the greatest services which a wealthy and perspicacious body like the Union League renders to the country is the production and confirmation, at stated intervals, of these elementary truths of political science for popular inspection.

"Revenue-reformers are constantly talking about a protective tariff as if it were a tax for the benefit of a favored class." What is the explanation of this? Simply that they lie, "as they well know." How do we know that they lie? Simply by observing that "the impost is for the support of the Government, and to enable it to perform its functions without levying a like amount in some other form on the people." We wish the Committee had made this argument just a trifle clearer, because it was at one time used by the Dey of Algiers, who used to meet the complaints of his Christian captives by pointing out that he needed their property for the maintenance of his Government; and that what they considered "plunder" they would on more mature reflection perceive to be an "impost," paid, as all imposts ought to be paid, by the foreigner. The Christians always said there was a fallacy somewhere in this statement, but whenever they attempted to analyze it publicly, he cut off debate by applications to the soles of their feet.

We are extremely sorry to hear from the same source that "the phrase revenue tariff" is "the most elastic and inaccurate that ever crept into the political history of this country." The reason why it is "elastic and inaccurate" is "that it does not express a certain policy." "A revenue tariff may be a good protective tariff, or may be a very bad protective tariff, and yet produce the same result in furnishing money for the Government." But must we not make the same complaint of the term "protective tariff," for we see here that a "protective tariff" may be really a bad one, although furnishing money for the Government? So that when a Union League economist tells us that he is for a "protective tariff," he does not express a policy at all. He may be, for aught we know, for a tariff that is really a revenue tariff, and does not protect at all, or protects badly. To get at his true meaning we should have to question him, just as we have to question the revenue-tariff man.

"The Democrats," says the report, "have never yet agreed upon a definition of the phrase 'revenue tariff.'" But it does not furnish the orthodox definition of the term "protective tariff." Where is this to be found? Who has it? We solemnly declare, in the true and natural meaning of the words, that we do not know where to look for it. It is not to be found in this report, or in any tariff which has been enacted since the war, because each one has been declared, after trial, unsatisfactory and not truly protective by the protectionists themselves, and another substituted in its place.

We dare say there are Union Leaguers innocent enough to step forward at this point and say that the true definition of a protective tariff is a tariff that enables the domestic manufacturer to obtain higher prices than the foreigner for his goods in the home market; that, in short, a true protective tariff produces an artificial dearness, which dearness is a good thing both for the manufacturer and for the consumer. This was the view of President Harrison, Major McKinley, Mr. Cabot Lodge, ex-Speaker Reed, and other eminent protectionists in 1888 and 1890. A good protective tariff was a tariff which made things dear, and this the McKinley tariff was to do. We accepted this definition and sighted our artillery accordingly. We opened on dearness as a bad thing, the destruction of which has been the great end and aim of civilization from the invention of the bow and the boomerang down to our own day. We sought to show, in our humble way, that excessive dearness of commodities—that is, difficulty or impossibility of obtaining them—had at one time kept man in a state of savagery; that it was the growing cheapness of the good things of life which had made possible the appearance on earth of the modern civilized American or Englishman. Waxing warm in the discussion, we pointed out to the learned Lodge and the discursive McKinley, that their view that the more a man spent for his necessaries, the better off he was, and that the great aim of the patriot should be to make things costly to his countrymen, would necessitate not only a total revolution in our economical but in our moral ideas, for it would make extravagance a virtue and remove all discredit from debt.

But now we find our labor was in vain and that our guns were wrongly sighted.

For here come the Union League sages, who say:

"According to the theories of the free-traders and tariff-reformers, if the protective tariff is removed from industries that we can prosecute in this country, the cost of the article will be cheaper to the consumer. This is the whole burden of their argument. Experience shows that the theorists are wrong as to the effect of a protective tariff on prices to consumers. It may be put down as a general proposition, established by the experience of the last forty years, that whenever the foreign manufacturers have had our markets, the consumer has paid higher prices for his goods than he has paid after our domestic industries were established under a protective policy. Upon this point we may challenge the experience of the great body of the consumers throughout the land. Let them reflect in their own minds upon the prices formerly paid by them for various articles in every-day use, and the prices they now pay for the same articles, and they will be convinced. If there are any exceptions to this rule, they are so rare as not to abate from the force of the rule as a general proposition."

So a protective tariff is, after all, not a tariff that makes things dear, but a tariff which brings domestic prices down nearly to the foreign level, and makes it difficult for the manufacturer to pay those famous "higher wages." The man who could extract a "policy" from these conflicting definitions would be a far more dexterous person than the Union League economists pretend to be. There is probably nothing that would puzzle them so much to-day as to produce a theory of protection on which they could agree among themselves, or get the party to adopt. This probably accounts for their hostility to "theories," which they say "have always had to go down before the logic of facts," being apparently in that early stage of dunderheadism which considers "theory" a synonym for pure speculation, and does not know that all human plans and policy have to have a theory behind them, and that what mainly distinguishes a man from the animals is that he always acts on a theory. The protectionist manufacturer has, moreover, an exceedingly well-defined theory, and has unfortunately got it embodied in legislation, and "the logic of facts" does not make the slightest impression on it. That theory is, that if he can get Congress to keep up the price of his goods artificially, it will be a good thing for him certainly, and possibly not a bad thing for other people.

WORKINGMEN AND THE TARIFF.

"WHAT right," asked Senator Sherman in his Cooper Union speech, "has the Democratic party to speak in behalf of laboring men?" This is about the same thing as asking what right laboring men have to speak in their own behalf. As the Chairman of the Democratic Convention in Massachusetts said the other day, the Democratic party is largely made up of workingmen, and has always been guided by their counsels. This is an undoubted fact. It is probably well within the truth to say that two-thirds of the laboring men of the great industrial regions of this country are politically allied to the Democratic party. The recent awaking of that party to the need of fighting the abuses of the tariff has been due in good part to the perception that they weigh most injuriously upon the toilers of the land; and the latter have repeatedly shown by their votes in the last three years that they are more and more inclined to agree with this view.

Yet the Republican party has long been committed to the position that it knew better what was good for the workingman than he did himself. It may be something more than a coincidence that Hamilton's leaning towards a protective policy was associated with his profound distrust of the common people. At any rate the two things have since been often seen in suggestive union. President Harrison in one of his messages referred offensively, if unconsciously, to what "we" could not allow "our working people" to be subjected to. In short, the general Republican and protectionist attitude to-day, as regards the laboring classes, is one of assumed tutelage and guardianship over them. This attitude has been based upon certain suppositions which have at last been shown to be so false that workingmen can be no longer deceived by them.

The first false supposition is that protection is primarily for the benefit of the laboring men, or that employers can be depended upon to make a fair division with their workmen of their profits due to tariff taxes. Even Senator Sherman admits that there is a difficulty here. He says: "I know sometimes that in the distribution of the results of protection there is controversy between the employer and the employed. . . . I am not wise enough to see any way by which this could be settled. . . . If some wise statesman can devise a mode by which that distribution should be more fairly made, I would gladly hail him as one of the benefactors of our human race." With this may be put the view of the great expert in the theory and practice of protection, Prof. R. E. Thompson. He admits that trades-unions do more than protection to raise wages, but maintains that, if protection did not enrich manufacturers, it would not be possible for strikers to frighten them into yielding a part of their profits. As he puts it: "You cannot get blood out of a stone." So his advice to workingmen is to keep on voting money into the pockets of their employers, and then make as hard a fight as possible to compel the disgorging of a part of it. Nothing could more clearly mark the final break-down of the "benevolent" theory of protection, which assumes that if manufacturers are voted a large bonus, they will have a tender regard for their employees, and all will dwell together in Arcadian happiness.

Another unfounded assumption, which is more and more losing its power over workingmen, is, that it is possible for the great majority of them to be protected. They are coming to see that, even granting that what the Republicans say of the blessings of protection is all true, those blessings cannot in the nature of the case be extended to all of their class, and that to vote for the benefit of a favored few is unjust, even if those few be workingmen. The occupations of the people of this country, as classified in the census of 1880, fall under the following general groups: Professional and personal service, 4,074,238; trade and transportation, 1,810,256; agriculture, 7,670,493; manufacturing, mechanic arts, and mining, 3,837,112. Now, the slightest consideration suffices to show that in but one of these groups, amounting to only about 20 per cent. of the total, is it possible for a tariff on imports to have any effect in raising wages or salaries. And even in the manufacturing group, it has been estimated by Edward Atkinson, "it is difficult to set apart in a discriminating list over 1,000,000 whose product is such that one of like kind could be imported, even if there were no duty upon imports." The same careful writer takes up the case of Pennsylvania in detail, and shows that in that State "less than 12 per cent. of the people who did the work could, in 1880, be subjected in part to an import of a product of like kind." The question he asks is the one that is coming to be heard with frequency in the mouths of workingmen, "How can we protect the 88 per cent.?"

Finally, the increasing alienation of the labor vote from the Republican party is due to the breaking down of the assumption that, even in the small group for which alone it is possible to make a pretence of securing higher wages by protection, the tariff does what is claimed for it. Senator Carlisle showed from the results reached by the Senate Finance Committee that wages in non-protected industries had risen, while in protected industries they had fallen. Mr. Schoenhof has some carefully tested tables of comparative wages which prove that the difference between wages in this country and Europe is greater in trades not affected by protection than in those that are. For example, in the building trades the hourly wages paid in three different countries are, in cents, as follows:

	Germany.	England.	New York.
Bricklayers.....	8½	16	45
Stonemasons.....	8½	16 to 18	45
Carpenters	7½	16	30 to 35

No such enormous difference in wages, over both protected Germany and free-trade England, can be shown in any industry where protection has any influence. The inference is unavoidable that it is not protection which makes the difference in wages, and that, viewed purely from the workingman's standpoint, its only effect upon wages is to diminish their purchasing power.

ENGLISH AT HARVARD, AND ELSEWHERE.

THE size to which our college classes have grown, with a steady annual increase, is putting a severe strain upon the capacity to house, handle, and instruct

them. To one branch at least of instruction it is nothing less than formidable—we mean that of English. This is forcibly displayed in a report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College, just made public. In what is called English A—a prescribed course for all freshmen—more than 6,000 compositions have to be criticised every half-year and returned for rewriting, while the number of separate exercises annually handed in to all the instructors of the English Department is estimated at 38,000. The themes in English A are "of the most elementary description," and the examination and correction of them in the most cursory manner not only exacts a prodigious amount of time, but produces a mental stupefaction which seriously interferes with the rate at which they can be despatched. No one accustomed to editing manuscript need be told that, under the most favorable conditions of penmanship, style, and matter, the drudgery is immense. At Harvard, as the Committee demonstrate, the unhappy instructors are confronted with immature thoughts set down in a crabbed and slovenly hand, miserably expressed and wretchedly spelled; and yet the average age of admission is nineteen.

In order to fix the responsibility of the preparatory schools for such a state of things, the Committee summoned each of last year's freshmen to write down in the class-room answers to these questions: What was the number and nature of written exercises at the school where he was fitted? What was the relative amount of time devoted there to English composition? Did the applicant pass the Harvard entrance examination in English? Some 450 confessions were thus obtained, and upon these the Committee report by a representative selection covering about forty institutions, the names of which are withheld, though in a few instances they may be guessed with certainty. A two-fold practice has been pursued: the answers are printed where it seems desirable, or else they are given in reduced facsimile; and the facsimiles speak volumes. Purposely, and not unfairly, these have been chosen by the Committee from among the worst specimens, for the aim is to show the deficiencies in preliminary instruction which the preparatory schools ought to be called upon to repair, with a view in the end to relieving the college of all elementary work in composition and rhetoric. The exhibit is enough to raise a blush on the cheek of every principal who reads the report—and the Board of Overseers will take care that none go unsupplied. But the public at large will never fathom the depths of the prevailing neglect of our mother tongue until a corresponding exhibit is made of the proficiency of the graduating class at Harvard; for then it will appear how little is and probably can be done in four years of the higher education to overcome the illiteracy which is brought to college.

The applicants of 1892 were no better equipped than their immediate predecessors. Nearly one-half of those examined in June last either passed unsatisfactorily or were conditioned. The Committee plainly recommend a still greater rigor of examination until the preparatory schools are forced to put English on its proper footing, even at the expense of a sudden check to the growth of the college and the addition of a year to the preparation of the first victims of the change of standard. Should this course be adopted, the schools will certainly respond, as they have heretofore done in divers particulars. It is, indeed, manifest that they have followed but too closely the indications of the college as to English, and have at most taught only so much as would insure passing, with no view to general culture. The Committee now bid them teach the vernacular—*i. e.*, the written English—"as an incident, and not as an end." They hold up as an example one school in which "the preparation of English was carried out in every other subject." "My translations from other languages," says a pupil, "were carefully criticised for their English; my geometry propositions I have rewritten many times on account of poor English." In the words of the Committee: "If, as a part of the necessary school discipline, the scholar were compelled to use his pen instead of his tongue for one or two hours a day, what skill in composition [we should say *expression*] would he not attain?"

This is the substance of the Committee's finding and recommendations. They do, indeed, perceive that the preparatory schools, in order to distribute the burden sought to be thrust upon them, must in turn cry out against the grammar school and the primary school. But the difficulty increases as we descend the scale of age, of text-books, and of qualified teachers; and if the Harvard movement really succeeds, it will prove the best form of "university extension" yet known. For this reason the report ought to make its way to every Normal School as well as to the academies. Nine-tenths of our public-school children never go beyond the grammar school, and it ought to be discreditable to graduate them at fifteen with no better command of their native language than is evidenced by these Harvard facsimiles of the work of men of nineteen; yet we must suppose them more badly off. It is this consideration which will most impress students of the report, and will, we hope, lead to a widespread discussion of the causes of the evil complained of, as well as of the proper remedies. When the Committee say, "It is little less than absurd to suggest that any human being who can be taught to talk, cannot likewise be taught to compose," we do not understand them to mean more than that writing can be made as correct as habitual speech. How large a part "compositions" will play in such a consummation, they wisely refrain from arguing. Some will be disposed to maintain that this exercise (according to the methods now in vogue) and the typical text-books of English grammar have been the chief obstacles to the delightful pursuit of the English language and literature by children of all ages.

Correspondence.

A HOUSE-TO-HOUSE PRIMARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Democratic Committee of Louisville has taken a step further in the ballot-reform movement than has ever been attempted before in this country—so far as I am informed—on anything like a large scale. A house-to-house canvass, combined with an iron-clad system of secret voting, promises apparently the utmost fairness possible in a *primary* election. This experiment was tried on October 12 and 13. The suffrage was limited to those persons only who had voted in August, 1891, for John Young Brown, the present Democratic Governor. The scheme was arranged in somewhat of a hurry, and, consequently, there being hardly time to provide a system of transfers, those voters who had removed from their former precincts necessarily lost their votes, in almost every case. This was the only actual injustice committed, and will no doubt be remedied on the next trial.

The first attempt was certainly a great success, since it secured 8,350 votes out of a possible 13,000, and this number includes a far larger proportion of respectable citizens than can ever be persuaded to mix themselves with the dirt and corruption of the ordinary party primary. But there is one terrible difficulty in the successful working of the system, which will be understood after an explanation of the *modus operandi*. Each candidate for a nomination—in this case there were five candidates for two offices—is entitled to appoint a representative in each precinct, and to the committee formed of those who report as such are intrusted the ballot-box, ballots, etc., together with a list of voters. They set out together, and visit the *residences* of the voters on their list, and are required to faithfully hunt up each one if possible. When a person is found desirous of voting, his name is written on a stub, the ballot torn off, marked by him in private, placed by him in an envelope which is then clasped shut by one of the committee, the number on a projecting subsidiary stub is compared to that on the main stub and torn off, and the voter deposits the enveloped ballot in the box. It will be observed that the desideratum of fairness and secrecy is attained by the system, and bribery is absolutely prevented, if it is faithfully carried out. But there comes the rub. The recent election had the attraction of novelty, a number of good men were induced to take part in it, and the result was probably nearer a true expression of the people's will than could have been obtained in any other mode. However, while the convenience of the voter is raised almost to the rank of a luxury, on the other hand the labor imposed on the 120 representatives of each candidate is arduous in the extreme. Trudging back and forth, enduring abuse and ridicule, explaining the system for the intelligent citizen to the verge of hoarseness, from three to nine o'clock on two successive days—these are hardly the attractions to offer to gentlemen of ordinary patriotism (no party principle being in-

volved) unless in case of close personal friendship with the respective candidates. The opinion is therefore very general that the carrying of the ballot-boxes will fall into the hands of the bum and professional politician, and, in that event, the mind stops aghast at the endless possibilities of fraud. One need only consider the chance of one representative's selling out to the other, and the result of the election in that precinct would be a foregone conclusion. And so on to the end of the chapter.

However, *Nil desperandum*. I understand to be the motto of the ballot-reformers; perhaps experience will point out a remedy for this apparently formidable defect in the system.

A. L. D.

LOUISVILLE, October 15, 1892.

THE HEAT AND THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Leicester Ford's extract from the Diary of Jefferson, showing the low range of the thermometer at Philadelphia, July 4, 1776, printed in the October *Scribner*, and quoted in No. 1424 of the *Nation*, undoubtedly disposes of the tradition referred to so far as relates to Independence Day; but the story given on page 191 of Jefferson's 'Life' by Parton—presumably Mr. Ford's "one of our popular history writers"—relates to "the final signing of the Declaration of Independence," which took place on the 2d of August—a day far more likely to be hot and infested with flies than the 4th of July. It is true that Parton refers the story to the 4th of July; but whatever else may be in dispute, there is no doubt—for all are agreed—that the final signature of the engrossed copy was on the 2d of August. Therefore, unless Mr. Ford can give us other "cool facts" for that day—and even if he can—the tradition will survive; for, in our unromantic early history, piquant personal anecdotes are rare and not readily given up by their readers.

C.

CHELSEA, MASS., October 15, 1892.

TINTORETTO'S ST. MARK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct a statement in Mr. Stillman's recent article in the *Century* on Tintoretto. There is no such picture in Santa Maria dei Angeli at Murano as the "Finding of the Body of St. Mark," described by Mr. Stillman. That canvas, forming part of a series with the ones now in the Royal Palace at Venice, has been, ever since the days of the Napoleonic kingdom of Italy, in Milan. It is catalogued in the Brera under the number 233, and has been photographed by Marcozzi of Milan.

B. B.

VENICE, October 4, 1892.

Notes.

A MEMOIR of the late Professor of Modern History at Oxford, Mr. E. A. Freeman, is about to be taken in hand. Friends who may be willing to contribute letters, reminiscences, or other biographical materials, are invited to forward them as soon as possible to the Rev. Prebendary Stephens (Woolbeding Rectory, Midhurst, Sussex, England), who, at the request of Mr. Freeman's family, has undertaken to edit the work.

We understand that Dr. Elliott Coues's edition of Lewis and Clarke's Narrative will probably fill three stately octavos, a fourth being required for the maps and index.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'Persian Tales,' edited in two volumes by Justin H. McCarthy; and 'The History and the Theory of Money,' by Sidney Sherwood of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy.

D. Appleton & Co. have in preparation a fine illustrated edition of Émile Souvestre's 'An Attic Philosopher in Paris,' in English, the designs by Jean Claude; also, 'Three Centuries of English Love-Songs,' edited by Ralph Caine; a new edition of the late W. H. Herndon's 'Abraham Lincoln,' with an introduction by Horace White; 'Zachary Taylor,' by Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, in the "Great Commanders" series; 'North America, Vol. III., The United States,' by Élisée Reclus; 'Man and the Glacial Period,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright; 'Appletons' Atlas of Modern Geography'; 'Moral Instruction of Children,' by Felix Adler; 'English Education in the Elementary and Secondary Schools,' by Isaac Sharpless; a translation of Rousseau's 'Émile,' by W. H. Payne; and 'Idle Days in Patagonia,' by C. H. Hudson, author of 'The Naturalist in La Plata.'

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce further 'The Nature and Elements of Poetry,' by Edmund C. Stedman; 'At the Beautiful Gate, and Other Songs of Faith,' by Lucy Larcom; and 'The Change of Attitude towards the Bible,' by Prof. Thayer.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'Missionary Landscapes in the Dark Continent,' by James Johnston.

From Macmillan's latest list we extract 'The Beauties of Nature, and the Wonders of the World We Live In,' by Sir John Lubbock, with illustrations; 'Life in Ancient Egypt,' from the German of Prof. Erman, by Mrs. Tirard; 'Sketches of Life and Character in Hungary,' by Margaret Fletcher; 'The English Town in the Fifteenth Century,' by Alice Stopford Green; 'The City State of Greek and Roman Antiquity,' by W. Warde Fowler; 'A Relic of the Past: Memorials of Sutton Place, Guilford,' by Frederic Harrison; 'The Inns of Court,' by W. J. Loftie, illustrated by Herbert Railton and others; 'Gothic Architecture,' edited from the French of E. Corroyer by Walter Armstrong, with 238 illustrations; 'Studies in Modern Music: Berlioz, Schumann and Wagner,' by W. H. Hadow; 'The Life of Cardinal Manning,' by E. S. Purcell; 'English Prose Writers,' in five volumes, by Henry Craik; and 'The Purgatory of Dante,' in verse, by C. L. Shadwell. The same firm will publish early in November Lord Tennyson's new volume of poems, uniform with their edition of his "Foresters." It is entitled 'The Death of Œnone, Akbar's Dream, and Other Poems,' and the contents, with one exception, are quite new, including the lines entitled "The Silent Voices," which the poet wrote and dedicated to his wife but a few days before his death, and which were sung at the funeral services in Westminster Abbey to music written by Lady Tennyson.

Elkin Mathews & John Lane, London, are about to issue six essays on 'The Art of Thomas Hardy,' by Lionel Johnson, with a bibliography by John Lane; 'Excursions in Criticism,' by William Watson; 'Stephania: a Tragedy,' by Michael Field; and 'Silhouettes,' poems by Arthur Symons.

'Mansfield Park' is the latest addition to the charming reprint of Jane Austen's novels edited by R. Brimley Johnson, and well illustrated by William C. Cooke (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). It is in two of the little pale-green volumes.

The new edition of Miss Strickland's 'Lives of the Queens of England' which we receive from J. B. Lippincott Co. in eight handsomely bound volumes, is, we believe, the amplest yet manufactured on this side of the water. It is illustrated, somewhat sparingly, with portraits of the queens and with desirable photo-mechanical views of buildings and places. The letterpress is in fair print.

The same publishers have brought out in five volumes Lord Mahon's edition of the Earl of Chesterfield's Letters, with a strict chronological arrangement. The typography of this reprint is more open than that of the foregoing, and the binding more studied—white and gold backs with wine-colored sides. Both sets make an attractive bid for a place in "every gentleman's library."

A large folio volume, sumptuous to a degree which makes the term "popular edition" seem somewhat incongruous, describes 'The Life and Works of Jean Léon Gérôme' (Cassell). The author, Fanny Field Hering, is a devoted admirer of the great painter and sculptor, and had the advantage of a friendship with him which makes her work "authorized." Gérôme was indeed persuaded to supply a preface, which should by no means be skipped, as he modestly advises, for it is redolent of the man and of the artist, and passes a very sane judgment on the vagaries of contemporary French art. His American friend is absolutely uncritical, and for much of her eulogy, as for her descriptions of Gérôme's productions, she draws on the writings of others. She is so unsystematic an author that she consumes forty-five pages before arriving at the birth of her subject. From that time her progress is chronological; and she borrows freely from Lencir's journal of his tour with Gérôme in the East in 1867, and towards the last she cites a good many interesting letters to herself from the artist. Especially noteworthy here are his opinions about the nude in art and about our barbarian tariff on works of art. The least hackneyed of the numerous photogravures and "photo-etchings" is the profile view of the colored statue "Tanagra." The plates, by the way, are not carefully associated with the text, nor is there any index to the latter—a grave fault in a work well calculated for reference.

One of the first publications of the Goethe-Gesellschaft was a small volume of letters written by Goethe's mother to the Duchess Anna Amalia of Weimar. The edition was soon exhausted, and, as the Society decided to leave the further issue of the work to the book-trade, a new edition, containing also the letters of the Duchess to Frau Goethe, was prepared with interesting annotations by Dr. Karl Heinemann, and published by Seemann in Leipzig. It is a volume of 174 pages, and gives the complete correspondence of these two remarkable women. The illustrations consist of two portraits of Frau Goethe, of which the most striking is here engraved for the first time, from a chalk-drawing in the collection of the late Prof. Zarncke. We may add that Dr. Heinemann's 'Goethe's Mutter,' to which we called attention on its first appearance, has just been issued in a fourth edition, thoroughly revised and considerably enlarged, with a number of new illustrations.

After a long pause, Prof. Moritz Heyne of Göttingen puts forth another portion, the fourth, of his distinctive 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' (Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Westermann). Its vocabulary extends from *Licht* to *Quittung*. Stress is laid upon the literary quotations, and, while it cannot be said that any period is neglected, among contemporaries one is particularly struck with the recurrence

of Freytag, Heyse, and Grillparzer, Bismarck and Moltke. The last two are quoted with extreme frequency; and in fact the very first and the very last rubric in this half-volume contain each an extract from Bismarck's speeches. Sometimes the great Chancellor's commonplaces are selected, as, under *Mönch*, merely the three words "Mönche und Nonnen" are given; but occasionally we have a characteristic phrase, like this under *Messe*: "Die Messe kann gelesen werden ohne Gemeinde," and so of Moltke, *e. g.*, under *Neckerei*: "Die Neckereien der franctireurs müssen durch blutige Repressalien erwidert werden." The vocabulary of this part is prefaced by a first enumeration of the sources, beginning with (1) literary monuments and (2) dictionaries, philological journals, etc.

To any one engaged in studying the rudiments of Sanskrit it is undoubtedly helpful to have mastered its more ordinary grammatical paradigms before grappling with the intricacies of the Devanâgarî alphabet. The matter which he has memorized cannot but avail to transform for him those intricacies into comparative simplicities; and his subsequent progress will certainly be more rapid than it would have been if he had set out with attacking strange symbols and strange words simultaneously. Looking to these facts, a welcome, from those whom it may concern, is due to the appearance of a manual entitled 'Useful Sanskrit Nouns and Verbs, in English Letters,' by Mr. Charles Johnston, of the Bengal Civil Service, recently published by Luzac & Co., London. There is, however, in this little book of thirty pages, more than is promised by its title; seeing that it includes under "nouns" substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and specimens of participles. At the end, moreover, is found a list of "a hundred useful roots," with their meanings, which it will prove serviceable to the beginner to learn by heart.

Rand, McNally & Co.'s 'Handy Guide to Chicago' is on a lower plane than Schick's and Flinn's. It has a folding sheet with maps of the city, on a smaller and a larger scale, backing each other. From Rufus Blanchard we have a large folding map of Chicago, with a convenient index to the streets, with approximate street numbers.

A modest little quarterly, *Employer and Employed*, begins its existence this month under the editorship of Mr. N. P. Gilman, Secretary of the Association for the Promotion of Profit-Sharing. It will be published by George H. Ellis, Boston, at 40 cents a year.

The first number of the *Art Student*, "an illustrated monthly for home art study," has reached our table. Its editor is Ernest Kauff, and place of publication, No. 40 East Twenty-third Street, in this city.

M. Octave Uzanne, who founded *Le Livre*, after editing it for ten years substituted for it, in 1890, a simpler publication called *Le Livre Moderne*, which survived two years, having been followed last January by a third periodical called *L'Art et l'Idée*, and devoted like the others to the art of the bookmaker, the illustrator, the printer, the engraver. The first six numbers are now obtainable in a single stout volume (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern), clad in a cover made of an embossed paper, pretty enough in itself, but catching the light arbitrarily, so that the smaller type of the title is almost illegible. In the main, *L'Art et l'Idée* resembles M. Uzanne's earlier periodicals: it is fantastic rather than academic; the editor has the courage of his convictions and he has abundant belief in his own taste. Perhaps the new periodical gives more attention to art—the art of the designer—than did its predecessors. One plate reveals M. Carlos Schwabe as a French pre-Raphaelite, if such a personage is conceivable. One article is devoted to M. Félix Vallotin, a wood-engraver who seems to have gone back to the old block-books for his inspiration. Perhaps he is to be called a pre-Dürerite; certainly he is an interesting workman and his blocks have character and vigor. Another paper is devoted to a decorator of vases, M. Joseph Chéret, brother of the designer of pictorial posters. This essay is illustrated with reproductions of some of M. Chéret's most striking vases. The editor acknowledges the receipt of Mr. De Vinne's recent Specimen Book, and remarks that it could not be equalled by any Parisian printer.

Readers of Mr. Douglas Campbell's 'Puritan in Holland' should turn to Mr. S. S. Rider's (Providence) *Book Notes* for October 8, in which that work is criticised in so far as it touches the origin of Rhode Island institutions. Thus, Mr. Rider plausibly denies that Roger Williams "taught the [Dutch] language to Milton," the two having rather read to each other in tongues they were acquainted with; or again that he derived his doctrine of "soul liberty," or his concern about the English title to the soil, or the use of paper ballots (not secret, as alleged), from the Dutch. Mr. Rider follows up his proofs with a humorous parallel between the Greek republics and the Rhode Island colonies, in support of the thesis that "the origin of things in Rhode Island was far more Greek than Dutch."

A New England pedigree of ex-President Cleveland in the September-October number of *Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine* (Salem, Mass.) will attract attention. On his mother's side (Neal) he is of Southern descent, and this line is not pursued; but the paternal lines, direct and collateral, are very extensively worked out and charted, with brief biographical notices. His great-grandfather, Rev. Aaron Cleveland (1744-1815) introduced a bill in the Connecticut Legislature of 1779 looking to the abolition of slavery, was the father of the Rev. Charles Cleveland, a well-known former city missionary of Boston, and was also an ancestor of the Rev. Arthur Cleveland Coxe, the present Bishop of Western New York. His great-great-grandfather, another Rev. Aaron Cleveland (1715-1757), died in the house of his friend Benjamin Franklin, who wrote his obituary for the *Pennsylvania Gazette*. Through Major Stephen Sewall (1657-1725), a brother of Judge Samuel Sewall, the diarist, Mr. Cleveland is related to many of the Higginsons of Boston and Salem; and through the father, Henry Sewall (1614-1700), to Longfellow. Another noted stock is that of Dummer. The *Magazine* has a tribute to Whittier, and we suggest that it examine hereafter the claim to a kinship between the poet and Daniel Webster—to mention no other celebrities.

In the matter of deciding the fate of vanquished gladiators, the vexed question of thumbs up or thumbs down is discussed anew with learning and fairness by Mr. Edwin Post in the current *American Journal of Philology* (No. 50). The greatest confusion prevails among the authorities on the subject, and Mr. Post makes a strong argument in favor of the view that the death-sign (*pollicem vertere* or *convertere*) was one readily distinguishable in a vast amphitheatre, and that it involved a movement of the whole hand, with the thumb pointing downwards, symbolizing the Roman short sword. An investigation of the oratorical *pollex infestus* seems to confirm this view. As for the sign of mercy (*missio*), expressed by *pollicem premere*, Mr. Post takes it to have been a concealment of the thumb across the palm of the hand under the four fingers. He cites, with a cut of it, a terracotta relief in the museum at Nîmes.

Most people will remember that Guy de Maupassant made his first appearance as a writer in a story called "Boule-de-Suif," which he contributed to a volume, entitled 'Les Soirées de Médan,' that came out some time about 1880. This was a truly masterly piece of work, and one that its author, in the opinion of some critics, has never surpassed. But there will be few who will not hear with some surprise that the story was in the main a true one, and that Boule-de-Suif was an actual person. Her real name was Adrienne Legay, though she was commonly known in Rouen, where she lived, by the name that Maupassant gave her. She is just dead there by suicide, to which she was driven by the direst straits of poverty. Her age was forty-four.

A good many persons may be interested to know that Prof. A. C. Merriam, Chairman of the Committee on Publications of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, can supply photographs to the number of 274 from a list of negatives taken in Greece in 1891-2 by Dr. Clarence H. Young, a member of the school. This list has been printed, and can be had of Prof. Merriam, whose address is 640 Madison Ave., New York.

—Mr. Edmund M. Barton, in his current semi-annual report, as Librarian, to the American Antiquarian Society, tells of a "suggestive call" on him, to wit: "Have you any merchant's account-books from 1760 to 1770, invoice or journals that would give items, or can you tell me where there are any?" As this meets our eye in the newly published Proceedings, we receive an answer to the inquiry from Mr. Rowland Hazard, President of the Washington County (R. I.) Agricultural Society, in the shape of a pamphlet distributed on the Fair grounds, entitled 'Sundry Prices taken from the Account-Book of Thomas Hazard, son of Robert (called College Tom), showing the depreciation of an arbitrary currency as compared with the actual value of corn and other produce; to which a few other tables of interest are added.' These entries run from 1750 to 1781, inclusive. They give, indeed, a glimpse of the dire confusion of old tenor, new tenor, lawful money, Spanish milled dollars, "Connecticut Prock, so called," and "any other medium current in the Colony of Rhode Island," besides liquidation in "Pork at 3⅝ d. per pound, Beef at 3 d. per pound, Cheese at 5 Pence per pound, Indian Corn at 3 shillings per bushel." Mr. Hazard made a forcible use of these family records in a speech on silver and fiat money before his Society at their eighteenth Fair, which will be found reported in full in the Wakefield *Narragansett Times* of September 16, and deserves a very wide circulation.

—Mr. Barton's inquirer has still another resource. In No. 45 of the Harvard Library's "Bibliographical Contributions," column 64, he will find that the Essex Institute at Salem, Mass., has, among its voluminous MSS., papers of sundry families "from the early settlement of the country down to recent times, such as deeds, bills, accounts, etc." We have already drawn attention to this truly important index to study and research, called "Notes on Special Collections in American Libraries." It is now completed and provided with an indispensable index, which is, how-

ever, far from being minute enough. For example, neither deeds, bills, nor accounts are entered in it, and one is thrown back for a numerical reference on "Manuscripts." Nor is the accuracy beyond reproach, the compiler's J resembling a T, which gives us T. T. Rousseau for Jean Jacques. Still, even without an index, we could not afford to lack such a clue as this to hundreds of departments and collections and millions of books. It ought to be maintained by revision every five years, and reprinted at the expense of the leading libraries, and be accessible in the smallest public library in the country. The first half broke off at the beginning of New York's entries, and now we have the best brief exhibition ever made of the treasures of the Lenox Library. Among the scattered manuscripts are the note-books of Lewis and Clarke's expedition in the library of the American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia; the field-book and map of the Mason and Dixon boundary survey in the library of the Historical Society in the same city; the remarkable literary group of complete MSS. possessed by the neighboring Drexel Institute—a sermon of Cotton Mather's, Poe's 'Murders in the Rue Morgue,' H. Martineau's 'Retrospect of Western Travel,' Dickens's 'Our Mutual Friend,' etc., etc.; the papers of Moses Brown, the Providence merchant, in 18 volumes, in the library of the Rhode Island Historical Society; and many more impossible of enumeration here. Perhaps the most curiously placed collection is Prof. Horsford's gift of more than 400 works for the study of comparative philology, with special reference to North American languages, in the library of Wellesley College. Yet when we think of Miss Alice Fletcher's work among the aborigines, the location does not seem so odd. The greatest lacuna in this conspectus is caused by the National Library at Washington, which is in too dreadful a jumble at present to make it practicable to set forth its characteristic features.

—The thirty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is well stuffed with great names and interesting characters, beginning with John Lambe, the astrologer, who was mobbed to death in 1628 for calling up phantoms in a crystal glass, corrupting chaste women by magic, bringing on the great London storm of June 12, 1626, and for other naughty behavior. Daniel Lambert, a prodigy of a different kind, succeeds; and two more victims of superstition, Latimer and Laud, together with the Quaker Leddra, hanged on Boston Common in 1661. The article on John Law lacks the embellishment derivable from Prof. Beljame's recent disquisition on the French pronunciation of his name. Artists are numerous—the engraver Landells, one of Bewick's pupils, who founded *Punch;* the Landseers; Sir Thomas Lawrence, who is very frankly dealt with; Edward Lear, and John Leech. Layamon and Langland head the list of authors, with Mrs. Landon and Landor at the other extreme of time and style. Landor is portrayed by Leslie Stephen in his best manner. "Meanwhile," he says of Byron's Bœotian Savage, "he found that his neighbors—as was always the case with Landor's neighbors—were utterly deaf to the voice of reason." In sum, "he was for nearly ninety years a typical English public-school boy. . . . Intellectually, he was no sustained reasoner, and it is a mistake to criticise his opinions seriously. . . . The peculiar merits of his prose are recognized as unsurpassable by all the best judges." Landor's villa in Florence is now the property of an American scholar. Other American connections in this volume are through "Junius Americanus" Lee; Joseph Lancaster, who followed his system of instruction to this country and died in this city in 1838 (one may still see "Escuela Lancasteriana" on the front of more than one school-building in the city of Mexico, and find these schools forming a category in the official statistics of education); Benjamin Lay, the anti-slavery apostle, who died in Philadelphia; Dr. Lardner, who feathered his nest handsomely by his lectures on this side of the water; and John Ledyard, the traveller, who was a native of Groton, Conn. Another traveller, John Lambert, introduced Irving's works to the British public. The musical Lanier family, of French extraction, is said to have despatched to America the branch which produced Sidney Lanier.

—'Richard Wagner's geistige Entwickelung,' by Hugo Dinger, the first volume of which has just appeared (Leipzig: Fritzsch), is perhaps the most elaborate and exhaustive effort hitherto made to trace the course and study the causes of Wagner's intellectual and artistic development. It begins with a critical appreciation of Wagner's personality, which, however, contains nothing new, and then proceeds to the "periodification" of his career. The first period of "conventional imitation," extending to 1840, is represented by "Die Feen," "Das Liebesverbot," and "Rienzi." This was followed by the period of emancipation ("Der fliegende Holländer") and the reformation of the musical drama ("Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin"), ending in 1849. From 1849 to 1854 Wagner was under the influence of neo-Hegelianism, which was the extreme left of Hegel's tripartite school, radical in philosophy and religion, and revolutionary in politics; to this period belongs "Der Ring des Nibelungen." From 1854 to the time of his death in 1883, neo-Hegelianism is gradually supplanted by the *Weltanschauung* of Schopenhauer, most distinctly traceable in "Tristan und Isolde" and "Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg." It may be well to state that every attempt of this kind to categorize Wagner's ideas, and to discover in his musical dramas conceptions corresponding to certain philosophical systems, must be more or less arbitrary and subjective, and that there are no two of his interpreters who agree in the details of their analyses and classifications. If Schopenhauer's doctrine of "the negation of the will to life" forms the fundamental idea of "Parsifal" and "Tristan und Isolde," it appears no less clearly in the first scene of "Tannhäuser" and the final scene of "Lohengrin," and even still earlier in the devotion and sacrifice of *Senta*, faithful unto death to her ideal of duty. There is no doubt, however, that the teachings of Schopenhauer exerted a controlling and constantly increasing influence over Wagner during the last years of his life, and excited in him an ardent sympathy with the metaphysics and ethics of Brahmanism, and especially of Buddhism, from which he derived the motives of a projected musical drama, "Nirvana." In this work, which unfortunately was never composed, the pessimistic principle of "the negation of the will to life" was to find its highest artistic expression and, as it were, religious consecration. Herr Dinger devotes a long chapter, and also prints two hitherto unknown contributions of Wagner, to that rabid organ of insurrection, August Röckel's *Volksblätter*. These articles are entitled "Der Mensch und die bestehende Gesellschaft" (February 10, 1849) and "Die Revolution" (April 8, 1849), and, although they are anonymous, the evidence that Wagner was the author of them seems to be quite direct and conclusive. One argument urged against the Saxon Government was that it expended 19,000 thalers for improving the breed of horses, and only 12,700 thalers for popular education.

—An interesting account of the progress of Egypt under the English occupation was given by Mr. Justice Scott, Judicial Adviser to the Egyptian Government, on the occasion of his receiving the freedom of the borough of Wigan. His testimony is the more important since he has been in Egypt in various capacities the greater part of the time since 1872. After a brief allusion to the condition after the Arabi rebellion, when the country was in a state of anarchy, without an army or police, and burdened with a debt of more than five hundred millions of dollars, he reviewed in detail the present state of the various departments of the Government. In doing this he paid a high tribute to the young Khedive, who "has already won golden opinions from all classes; and I can say with knowledge," adds Mr. Justice Scott, "that he shows the keenest interest in the reforms which his father initiated." His Ministers, also, are "able men, who are earnestly desirous of improving their country." While the heads of departments are still mainly foreigners, Egyptians are being systematically trained to fill places of trust. "Indeed, already they hold one or two of the highest posts, and their capacity for such positions increases yearly." There is a regularly paid and impartially levied army of 13,000 men, and a police force rapidly gaining in efficiency. The revenue has increased and the debt decreased, while the area of arable land has been enormously extended by improved methods of irrigation. The cotton crop alone has doubled in the past ten years. Forced labor has been abolished, and there are "native courts of justice at every town throughout the country whose judges are well paid and whose judgments are respected." The value of education is being appreciated by parents, and school fees are paid in thousands of cases. A civil service is being gradually established on the "principles of efficiency, security from arbitrary dismissal, and sufficient pay and promotion according to service rendered. Local self-government is also being cautiously introduced. Alexandria now governs itself, and eight other big towns are to be endowed with municipal rights." A department having in charge the ancient monuments has been thoroughly organized, and all systematic pilfering and unlicensed excavations have been stopped. In conclusion, Mr. Justice Scott spoke unreservedly and strongly in favor of the continuation of the English occupation. "The good England has done will not be permanent, will not last, unless she remains in the Valley of the Nile some years longer as Egypt's friendly guide and Power."

—Mr. E. E. Barnard, Astronomer at the Lick Observatory, who has added very greatly to the distinction of that institution by the discovery of a new satellite to the planet Jupiter, has made good his title by the publication of detailed micrometric observations in the last number of Gould's *Astronomical Journal*. Since July 1 Mr. Barnard has been a regular observer with the great telescope of the Observatory one night each week, and has devoted much of that time to a search for new objects. Nothing of special importance was encountered until September 9, when, in carefully examining the region immediately surrounding Jupiter, a very faint star was found

close to the planet, and he at once suspected it to be a new satellite. Subsequently measures of precision confirmed the suspicion, and, after a few days of observation, the periodic time of the satellite was sufficiently well known to enable the prediction of its times of visibility at the greatest elongation east and west of the planet. The new satellite revolves about its primary in nearly the same plane as the other four satellites; and as the radius of its orbit is only 112,500 miles, it is distant only 68,300 miles from the surface of the planet, or considerably less than Jupiter's own diameter. Of course the accurate measurement of a body so minute is out of the question, but a rough estimation makes the diameter of the little satellite about one hundred miles. Mr. Barnard thinks this object much more difficult to see than the satellites of Mars; if so, there are hardly more than a half-dozen telescopes in existence with light-gathering power sufficient to show it. It has just been detected by Mr. Reed of the Princeton Observatory.

GREEK EPIGRAMS.

Select Epigrams from the Greek Anthology. Edited, with a revised text, introduction, translation, and notes, by J. W. Mackail, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. Longmans.

THE Greek Anthology is a mass of heterogeneous material which may well dismay anything but the hardihood of scholars and editors like Jacobs and Dübner, or the professional student who mines in it for antiquarian or philological lore. It has discouraged the enterprise of Prof. Mahaffy, for instance, who goes so far as to say that "no study seems to him more wearisome and profitless than the Anthology." It is easy to sympathize with him in this feeling. The Anthology, as it stands, is not a selection, in any proper sense—it is simply a vast reservoir, with some subdivision, into which about 4,000 little poems have been thrown that bear a certain mechanical resemblance in brevity and in metre. So far from being a "garland of flowers," a metaphor which was applied legitimately to the earliest selection by Meleager, it is a garden run to weeds, in which the weeds predominate with varying degrees of worthlessness and noisomeness. But the flowers are there; it would be the greatest mistake to despair in the search, and to miss the exquisite bouquet which Mr. Mackail has culled from the wilderness. His work shows that patience, a sympathetic spirit, and a refined literary method were all that was needed to reach the true worth of the collection. Even the scholar may thank him for this labor; and every reader of taste will accept with delight the gleanings which are here presented, with luxurious clearness of arrangement, with useful translations and notes, and with an introduction which combines at once learning, literary skill, and the sympathetic appreciation that a poet may bestow upon poetry.

It is true that many minor works dealing with the Anthology have already been published in English—some excellent versions by Merivale, by Mr. Butler, and by Mr. Andrew Lang, the verses edited by "Graham Tomson," and in particular the luxurious collection of renderings in many languages edited by Dr. Wellesley. But Dr. Wellesley's book, with all its merits and its undeniable fascinations for the dilettante, enshrines some doggerel, and concerns itself too much with quips and cranks. Sometimes it lapses into bad taste, as where Moore's weak version of Plato on Aster is appended to Shelley's, and, in the main, it is an apotheosis of the Musa Etonensis and her sportive but uninspiring sisters. It does not at any rate represent the Anthology in its spirit and its integrity. Mr. Mackail's is the only serious attempt in English to do for the Anthology what Mr. Matthew Arnold did for Wordsworth. It is a great deal to say that the Anthology needs this process fully as much as 'The Excursion.'

The selection is arranged on a principle which confers on 500 bits of verse something of the unity that is naturally craved by the reader. The editor's intention, as he himself explains, is, apart from the value of the poetry in itself, "to draw in little a picture of the Greek ideal, with its virtues and its failings: to give an epitome, slightly sketched with a facile hand, of the book of Greek life." If, in composing his sketch, he has omitted some ugly spots and dark lines entirely, he has every reason of decency to justify him, and perhaps even of truthfulness. It by no means follows that the large proportion of libertinage and coarse language in the epigrams fairly represents their proportion in Greek life, any more than the prevailing French novel fairly represents the average of French life and manners. The beauty and unity of the selection are increased by the same device which Mr. Palgrave used so happily in the 'Golden Treasury': each epigram has its descriptive heading, and they are so arranged as to strike a sort of symphony of varying and harmonious notes.

There is a great deal of posing in the Anthology, and it is natural to talk, as Mr. Lang does in one of his pretty essays, as if there were nothing but posing—as if the epigrams were mere literary exercises, forced sighs and laughter, composed on paper and without inspiration. Our author has succeeded better by taking his work seriously. His introduction contains a careful and scholarly sketch of the growth of the Anthology, and an appreciation of its literary quality which is, on the whole, the best that has been said on a subject which Sainte-Beuve himself has treated. One of the most remarkable features to which he calls attention is the long period embraced by the Anthology—the continuous literary tradition which it illustrates. It is a chain which reaches from Simonides—perhaps one might say, from Mimnermus and Theognis—down to Rufinus and to Cometas Chartularius; it begins with the invasion of Xerxes, its last links were gathered by Planudes, who served as ambassador from Constantinople to the Venetian Republic in 1327, at a time when Petrarch first saw Laura, when the 'Divina Commedia' was already written, and when the star of Chaucer was about to rise on the horizon of English literature. These later links, it is true, were but silver or leaden, but the vocabulary is much the same as that of Callimachus, and a couplet of Cometas is expressed in words which are partly Homeric.

Some of Mr. Mackail's gleanings from Kaibel's collection of monumental inscriptions recall us to the original meaning of the word epigram, from which the best Greek examples were developed, and from which the best usage never greatly swerved. The epigrams of Martial and of the later writers in the Anthology are indeed pointed and "epigrammatic." Most of them will answer to Boileau's definition, "un bon mot de deux rimes orné," but it is well to remember that "no good epigram sacrifices its finer poetical qualities to the desire of making a point, and none of the best depend on having a point at all." A stroll through a churchyard, it is needless to say, will introduce us to as much posing and as much false sentiment as one finds in the epitaphs of the Anthology. One encounters less art upon the tombstones, but quite as large a proportion of artifice and affectation. Kaibel's collection of epitaphs illustrates this generally; but one of the sixth century B.C. recalls by its pathos as well as its reserve those melancholy, tearless eyes which gaze from the funeral reliefs at Athens:

"Looking on the monument of a dead boy, Cleoetes, son of Menesæchmus, pity him who was beautiful and died."

A long remove from this in subject and in provenance is the following epitaph found in Florence. Simonides did not disdain to write an inscription in his grand manner for a Thessalian hound; and "the man of petty ambition" in Theophrastus follows a fashion in erecting a monument to a Maltese lap-dog. The unknown master here followed no fashion, but wrote from the heart:

"Thou who passest on the path, if haply thou dost mark this monument, laugh not, I pray thee, though it is a dog's grave; tears fell for me, and the dust was heaped above me by a master's hands, who likewise engraved these words on my tomb."

The section headed "The Human Comedy" reminds us how ancient are the immortal jests which rise again oftener than the Phœnix to fly through our newspapers. The physician whose glance is fatal; who has made an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the undertaker; who, like Achilles, sends his tens of thousands to Hades before their time; or, again, the thin lady who was accidentally fanned out of doors, and that other who wears her own hair bought with her own money—this gallery is probably prehistoric as well as contemporary. The following shows that the Greeks were entirely capable of a species of exaggeration which is supposed to be American humor. It is headed "Slow and Sure":

"Charmus ran for the three miles in Arcadia with five others; surprising to say, he actually came in seventh. When there were only six, perhaps you will say, how seventh? A friend of his went along in his great-coat crying, 'Keep it up, Charmus!' and so he arrives seventh; and if only he had had five more friends, Zoïlus, he would have come in twelfth."

This other is more pungent and Attic in flavor:

"All hail, seven pupils of Aristides the rhetorician: four walls and three benches."

The predicament of the two deaf men who pleaded before a deafer judge has lately been renewed by a case in Paris, where the plaintiff's replies in court seesawed at random from his wife to a mad dog. It is even possible that the Parisian case is a myth based on the following original, which to its verisimilitude adds a spice of 'Alice in Wonderland':

"A deaf man went to law with a deaf man, and the judge was a long way deafer than both. The one claimed that the other owed him five months' rent, and he replied that he had ground his corn by night. Then the judge, looking down on them, said, 'Why quarrel? She is your mother; keep her between you.'"

Just as it stands, this is much funnier and clearer-cut than an exceedingly clumsy paraphrase in doggerel printed by Dr. Wellesley.

The humor and a delicate tipsiness of fancy which fits the subject, make the following apostrophe to a jug of wine quite worthy of Charles Lamb in his best vein:

"Round-bellied, deftly-turned, one-eared, long-throated, straight-necked, bubbling in thy

narrow mouth, blithe hand-maiden of Bacchus and the Muses and Cytherea, sweet of laughter, delightful ministress of social banquets, why, when I am sober, art thou in liquor, and when I am drunk, art sober again? Thou wrongest the good-fellowship of drinking."

It is impossible to quit the Anthology without a word about Meleager. Mr. Mackail notices that his love verses are distinguished from most earlier Greek poetry by the whole gulf which divides ancient and modern sentiment. Between him and Sappho there is set a world of feelings and ideas. Sappho, as far as we know her, simply expresses passion—the sudden Oriental passion of the 'Arabian Nights'—with Greek directness and imagination; Meleager, in spite of the sensualism of some of his verses, has crossed the bridge toward the romantic and mediæval spirit—the spirit which issues in the *Rime* and the *Paradiso*, and, *longo intervallo*, in Mr. Coventry Patmore's "Angel of the House." His mysticism is in itself another note of division from the Greek spirit—a note of harmony with the world of Petrarch and of Dante. No Greek before him had ever thought of Cupid as "the Artist who sets his signature beneath the Soul which he has created"; as "Love the Helmsman, steering the Soul, like a winged boat, over the perilous seas of desire"; as "the Child playing idly with his dice at sundawn and throwing for human lives." And, if we take him in another vein, was ever the lover's impatience—the swift reversal of his magnetic currents—hit off more exquisitely than in this little picture, which catches the instantaneous flashes of his mood with the camera, and fixes them with the finish and permanence of a cameo?

"Take this message, Dorcas; lo again a second and a third time, take her all my message; run; delay no longer; fly. Wait a little, Dorcas, prithee a little; Dorcas, whither so fast before learning all I would say? And said to what I have just said—but no, I go on like a fool; say nothing at all—only that—say everything; spare not to say everything. Yet why do I send thee out, Dorcas, when myself, see, I go forth with thee?"

Our extracts have already illustrated sufficiently the quality of Mr. Mackail's translation. At rare intervals one might complain that it is a little severe and bald, following with superfluous closeness the idiom and the participles of the original. But this is, probably, a matter of artistic conscientiousness, and in any case the result is far removed from the slavishness of the crib. The exchanges of idiom which our editor permits himself show that he might safely trust his taste a little further. His book is not only a piece of scholarship, but a work of art, which offers the reader the pleasure of things beautiful in themselves, and at the same time presents a succession of authentic miniatures of Greek life and ideas.

FRÖBEL IN PUBLIC LIFE.

Ein Lebenslauf: Aufzeichnungen, Erinnerungen und Bekenntnisse von Julius Fröbel. Vol. II. Stuttgart: Cotta.

THE second volume of Fröbel's autobiography begins with his return to Europe in 1857, and ends with his resignation of the German consulship at Algiers and his retirement to private life at Zurich in 1888. After an absence of eight years, which had been passed for the most part in the wilds of the New World, and had been full of varied experiences and perilous adventures, he was at first rather painfully surprised to find how completely he had become alienated from ordinary European life, and how narrow and ignoble it appeared to his "Americanized eyes." Even in Paris, the chief centre of Continental culture and refinement, where he spent the first ten days after landing, the prevailing spirit seemed to him "petty, sordid, and mean." In Germany he felt like one who, having left in early youth the insignificant village of his birth and grown to manhood in a great metropolis, perceives on his return that the trees are not half so tall, nor the houses half so stately, as he had fondly imagined them to be. As this feeling was fully shared by his wife and intensified by the wanton annoyances to which he was subjected by the Frankfort police, until the energetic intervention of the American consul put a stop to them, he resolved to pass the winter of 1858-9 in London and to sail for New York in the following spring. But the sudden death of his mother-in law, Countess Armansperg, in January, 1859, caused this plan to be deferred and finally abandoned altogether.

Having reëstablished himself in his native land, Fröbel could not long refrain from taking an active part in public affairs. In 1858 he published a small volume entitled 'Amerika, Europa, und die politischen Gesichtspunkte der Gegenwart,' in which he indicated and emphasized the rapidly increasing influence of the United States as an important but hitherto neglected factor, that could not be safely overlooked in future plans for determining and preserving the political balance of power in Europe. This work was followed in 1859 by a pamphlet, 'Deutschland und der Friede von Villafranca,' containing suggestions for the reconstitution and unification of Germany, to the realization of which he devoted all his energies until the events of 1866 revealed the full extent of the fatal mistake he had made in supposing Austria capable of initiating and accomplishing the federal reform he so earnestly desired. Indeed, this error, so strange in a man of such large experience and remarkable sagacity and soundness of judgment, continued to color Fröbel's political views in a greater or less degree till 1870. "I did not," he says, "presuppose in Prussia either the power or the will to solve the German question; and but for Bismarck, who was then as little known to the rest of the world as to myself, I am inclined to believe that I should have been right. To this plea one might reply that Prussia alone was able to produce a Bismarck, and this is perfectly true." A young lady from Königsberg, to whom he communicated the drift of his pamphlet, was greatly incensed at its contents, and begged him not to print it; at the same time she submitted to his consideration the five cardinal points of Prussia's political programme: 1. Subversion of the Austrian system. 2. Liberal constitutions in Italy. 3. A liberal constitution in Hungary. 4. Repulsion and repression of France and liberation of Italy by Prussia. 5. Union of Germany under Prussia. Such, she assured him, was the sum and substance of the policy of the ministry of Prince Hohenzollern, and urged him, as a lover of liberty and a true patriot, to support it. This incident is interesting as showing what definite plans Prussia had already formed as early as 1859 touching her relations to Austria and the other German States, and how far the youthful townswoman of Kant surpassed the veteran publicist in her knowledge and appreciation of them.

Fröbel, if not the originator, was at least the ablest advocate and most strenuous promoter of the political scheme known as "the German Trias," and it was for the purpose of carrying this project into effect that he consented to enter the service of the Austrian Government in the spring of 1862. His position in Vienna was a peculiar one, and, in the words of the aulic councillor Von Gagern, "unexampled in the history of governmental usage." Without portfolio or even official recognition, he virtually directed the whole domestic and foreign policy of the Empire in its relations to the German States, as well as in its diplomatic and commercial intercourse with the other leading nations of Europe.

We need not follow our author in his minute expositions of the means by which he endeavored to secure at least the triunification of Germany, for the subject has long since ceased to have more than an academical or autobiographical interest. Suffice it to say that he proposed to establish a sort of triarchy, which was to consist of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia as hereditary members, and a sovereign to be chosen periodically by and from the heads of the smaller principalities. The directory thus constituted was to be invested with executive power and presided over by the Emperor of Austria, upon whom were to be conferred the hereditary title and dignity of German Emperor. The legislative power was to be vested in a parliament consisting of two branches: a House of Princes, composed of representatives of ruling families and free cities and presided over alternately by the kings of Prussia and Bavaria; and a House of Commons, whose members were to be elected, not by popular suffrage, but by the legislative councils or local diets of the several States. Provision was also made for a federal court competent to examine and decide constitutional questions, and to exercise supreme judicial functions in all matters not falling within the jurisdiction of the single States. Fröbel confesses that this complicated and rather clumsy political machinery was very far from realizing his ideal of a perfect constitution, but it seemed to be the best attainable under the circumstances.

We may add that the informal state papers prepared by Fröbel for the information and guidance of the Austrian Cabinet and printed in this volume, his correspondence with the most prominent public men of Germany, and his contributions to the press, especially to the semi-official Vienna *Beobachter* and the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, are very creditable to him as a patriot and a publicist, and reveal diplomatic ability and statesmanlike qualities of a high order. These documents are important as throwing new light on the personal intrigues and political plots and counterplots which preceded the foundation of the German Empire, and contain valuable material for the future historian of that formative and fermenting period.

After several years of rather annoying journalistic experiences as editor and proprietor of the *Süddeutsche Presse* in Munich, Fröbel entered the service of the German Empire in 1873 as Consul at Smyrna, and it is significant of the strictness with which the civil-service regulations are observed in Germany, that a man who had reached the sixty-eighth year of his age and distinguished himself in politics, and of whose general ability and eminent fitness for the office he sought no one entertained the slightest doubt, could not receive the appointment without first passing the prescribed examination.

The most entertaining portions of the present volume are Fröbel's characterizations of the various persons with whom he was brought into contact and had occasion to converse on the

topics of the day. Thus, in the spring of 1869, being in Paris, Ollivier invited him to breakfast, and remarked suddenly in the course of the conversation: "I will tell you the secret of French politics. We take it for granted that there will be war with Prussia. We assume that in a few days after the declaration of hostilities there will be a battle, and that of ccurse we shall win. French prestige will thus be saved. We shall then offer peace to Prussia, permitting her to do what she pleases in Germany and demanding for France only Belgium and some rectifications of the frontier." "But suppose that France should not win the first battle?" asked Fröbel. "Dans ce cas l'Empereur ne rentrera plus à Paris," replied Ollivier; "and Germany would have no longer the Emperor, but the French nation to deal with." Shortly afterwards, Fröbel had an interview with Prince Napoleon, who seemed to share Ollivier's opinions on the probable results of the impending war, but at the same time censured the policy pursued by the imperial Government towards Prussia: "D'un pouvoir comme la Prusse on doit être ou le complice ou l'ennemi décidé. Nous n'avons pas été ni l'un ni l'autre. Mais ce n'est pas moi qui fait la politique française." Bismarck, whom Fröbel first met in December, 1868, and whose policy he had formerly opposed and severely and even maliciously criticised, he sums up as "a man of clear intellect, bodily strength, terrible force of will, confidence of purpose, fidelity, and great good-nature." To the reproach that Prussia had stopped half way in the work of unifying Germany, Bismarck replied: "We must not require that the great objects we are striving after should necessarily be attained within our lifetime"; adding that the final union of Germany must not bear within itself the seeds of an irremediable hostility between the South and the North, but must be accomplished willingly and gladly, even if it should take thirty years. In his dealings with Austria he expressed the desire to reduce to a minimum the tension which it was the policy of Beust to increase between the two States, and was willing to show his vanquished rival the leniency and indulgence which leads a strong man to gratify even the whims of a capricious woman to whom he is bound for better or for worse. But Austria should not put this kindly feeling to too severe a test: "Zwischen einer Sammethand und blankem Stahl giebt es für mich Nichts in der Mitte."

Readers who care little for the vicissitudes of European politics can hardly fail to be interested in Fröbel's account of affairs in Munich after the accession of Ludwig II. and during the ascendency of Wagner as royal favorite. He characterizes the latter as "full of the thought that his confidential relations to the young king imposed upon him great and high obligations; he certainly had the noblest intentions; but for political efficiency his conception of the matter was altogether too poetic, not to say too theatrical or operatic." Even the youthful and romantic monarch detected this weakness in his protégé, and forbade by ministerial decree the further publication of a series of articles on "German Art and German Politics," which Wagner had begun to issue in the Munich *Süddeutsche Presse*.

COLUMBUS AUTOGRAPHS.

Autógrafos de Cristóbal Colón, y Papeles de América. Madrid: M. Murillo. 1892. Pp. 203.

SOMEWHAT more than a year ago the Duchess of Berwick and Alba, Countess of Siruela, published at Madrid a volume of 600 pages, containing a selection of documents from the archives of the house of Alba, which are of great value for the history of Spain and the other nations of Europe during the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. Among these papers are several relating more or less directly to the discovery of America. Thus, in the last will and testament of Janoto Berardi, a Florentine merchant of Seville, bearing the date of December 15, 1495, the Admiral Don Cristóbal Colón is instructed to pay to Berardi's executors, Jeronimo Rufaldi and Amerigo Vespucci, the sum of 180,000 maravedis (8540) besides other compensation for three years' services rendered by himself, his brothers and his sons. He also commends his little daughter to the care of the Admiral as "a good Christian and servant of God." There are also checks of the year 1504, signed by Christopher Columbus and drawn in payment for shipstores and sail-cloth. A document of still greater importance is a long letter written by the Bishop of San Domingo from Mexico, February 12, 1533, and addressed to the Empress and Queen Isabella, wife of Charles V., in which much sensible advice is given concerning the ecclesiastical and economical administration of the Spanish provinces in the New World. The Bishop censures the cruel policy of the conquerors, and denounces the theory that the resources of the country cannot be developed without enslaving the natives, as a mere pretext by which apparent zeal for the commonweal is made to serve as a cover for individual cupidity. In this connection he extols the humane and just treatment of the Indians by a certain Quirona. Still later, in 1578, we find a lively epistle written from San Domingo to the Duke of Alba by Donna Marcelina Colón de Toledo, who recommends to his Excellency her father-in-law, Capt. Adriano de Padilla, now about to return to Madrid. This lady was a granddaughter of Christopher Columbus, and remarks: "Our family is in straitened circumstances, for my grandfather, Don Cristóbal, discovered the treasures of India in order that others might enrich themselves and his descendants remain poor."

As a supplement to the aforementioned work, the Duchess of Alba has just printed another collection of 'Autógrafos de Cristóbal Colón,' containing forty-six documents which had been thrown aside as waste paper. The Duchess, who is an adept in deciphering the obscure characters and abbreviations of mediæval Latin and Spanish manuscripts, reëxamined this supposed rubbish, and was rewarded by discovering autograph letters and other records not only of Christopher, Ferdinand, and Diego Columbus, but also of Hernando Cortes, Diego Velasquez, and Diego Mendez, so that the contents of the volume is more varied than its title indicates. Of special interest are the full instructions given by the King and Queen to Juan de Aguado, who was sent out in the spring of 1495 to examine into the state of affairs in Hispaniola. The text of these instructions hardly confirms Mr. John Fiske's statement that Aguado's appointment was made in a spirit friendly to Columbus, inasmuch as gross abuses are spoken of and complaints brought against the administration of the colony for leaving the aborigines to die of hunger while "the discoverers are up to their necks in gold." It is evident, as Mr. Justin Winsor affirms, that Aguado was sent as "an inquisitor to the colony," and that his mission originated in dissatisfaction with the conduct of the Viceroy.

The material of the book is on the whole interesting, but not of the first importance, though some side-lights are thrown upon persons and events. For instance, we have known that one Muliar (as the name is generally given) married a sister of the wife of Columbus, but we have known little more of him. Here we find a mutilated letter of this person (unfortunately without date) addressed to his "illustrious and most magnificent" relative, showing how this brother-in-law was at one time in debt to Columbus for 25,000 maravedis. He signs the paper Miguel Molyart, while Columbus's endorsement on the paper calls him "migel muliart." The papers of Ferdinand Columbus are not without value, particularly one written for his father, in which he explains the charges incurred in Jamaica. The chief help to the student, however, is found in several papers concerning the Viceroyal Government of Columbus's successor, the second admiral, Diego Columbus, including his instructions to Jerónimo de Agüero, and the petition in furtherance of his interests which he made at one time to the Emperor. Diego hardly proved equal to the task which fell to his lot as the heir of the Discoverer, and nothing in this volume will raise the opinion which has been entertained of him.

We find in depositions made against Sebastian Cabot some not unexpected indications of the opinion in which he was held in certain quarters in Spain. Indeed, there is little in any of the documents here disclosed to make one have a very exalted estimate of the characters of the leading Spaniards of the time associated with American events, either from modern or from their own standards. Cortez, Pizarro, Guzman, Nicuesa, and even one of the most interesting of the group, Diego Mendez, come before us in the stray glimpses which these chance documents afford as accusers or accused. Most of them are little worthy, all things considered, of such consideration as the world is accustomed to bestow on honorable conduct.

We may add that the greater part of these "autographs," of which a portion are reproduced in facsimile, belong to the sixteenth century, only a very few bearing an earlier date.

A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the Thirteenth Century. Edited by Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers. 1892.

THERE is nothing more striking to the student of the Roman church organization than the development of institutions within the body of the Church, which, originally creations of the papacy and subject to its direction, become in time practically independent of it and at times even superior to it. The best-known illustration of this tendency is found in the Inquisition, nominally always the servant, but capable of showing itself on occasion very plainly the master, of the Roman policy.

In an earlier work, already classic in its field, Mr. Lea has given us a complete study of the Holy Office; and now he presents us with what ought to be the first contribution towards a history of a second great Roman institution, not less potent in its effect, and not less influential, perhaps, in calling the attention of the world to the evils of the papal system. The Roman Penitentiary is that branch of the papal administrative machinery which has to do with the fixing of penalties in cases of appeal from local ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and with the granting of dispensations from local decisions. On the good Roman

principle of "as it was in the beginning," the Penitentiary claims for itself an indefinite antiquity; but Mr. Lea, in his introduction, gives it as his opinion that it did not exist as a definitely organized institution before the second quarter of the thirteenth century—a point of time, in fact, when all branches of the church life and doctrine were going through a reorganization into forms destined to be permanent. Mr. Lea's argument here is not positive; it is the argument from silence, never quite convincing when applied to periods of meagre literary productiveness; but, so far as it goes, it seems to be a sound one. In the case of an institution dealing with such varied and intricate problems, it can hardly be supposed that reference would not have been made to an organized board of appeal if such had existed.

Having settled this point as to time, Mr. Lea concludes further, chiefly on internal evidence, that the collection of formulas now for the first time printed represents a very early stage of the institution, offering a model for the future drawn from the irregular and more irresponsible practice of the past. The cases presented are plainly not *a-priori* ones, but such as had actually been decided, and were probably selected as typifying classes of cases likely to occur again. Here and there names of persons can be identified with some degree of certainty, and serve thus to fix approximately the date of the collection between the years 1220 and 1255.

The formulas themselves fill the greater part of the volume. They are grouped under 179 rubrics, and under one rubric there are frequently two or more cases, so that the whole number would be nearly 400. They include every variety of offence, from the vague scruple of conscience of a clergyman, whose only sin was that he had for years been following the wars, up to the eager personal repentance of self-convicted murderers. In almost every case the point at issue is a doubtful one. The questions are not usually such as could be readily settled in accordance with some established precedent or rule. These complicated problems of the clerical conscience form the natural justification of the institution of the Penitentiary. In a church system whose very essence was uniformity and authority, it was of the first importance that there should be some tribunal before which doubtful cases might be brought. It could only seem scandalous to the standard of the Middle Ages that local decisions should vary one from the other. If, then, as was inevitably the case, this tribunal grew to claim and exercise a fatal influence over the rights of local authorities, it should be remembered that, during the time of its development, local powers were hopelessly inadequate to the solution of such problems.

It is on this point that we find our only disagreement with Mr. Lea's conclusions. He has no good word to say for the element of actual service rendered to the peoples of Europe, during their semi-barbarism, by the very existence of a tribunal like this. Naturally its action was resisted by all local and national tendencies, whenever these were able to speak for themselves, and unquestionably there were times when abuses were abundant. No doubt the crisis must come when Europe had reached her majority and needed papal control no longer; but, on the other hand, the deep debt of gratitude that Europe owes to Rome is nowhere more clearly shown than in this attempt to put in place of a wavering and uncertain complication of legal and moral principles a uniform and authoritative practice.

Aside from the controversial aspects of the subject, this publication must be of great interest to all mediæval scholars from the peculiar light it throws upon the whole ethical spirit of the Middle Ages. It is easy to discern the opportunity for fraud, for money-getting, and for tyrannical interference offered by an infallible absolving agency; but no institution can live which is not supported by the general consent of the community, and the ethical standards here reflected were undoubtedly sincerely held. Mr. Lea emphasizes, and justly, the temptations to perjury on the one hand and to hasty and partial judgments on the other, but it would be monstrous to suppose that the trouble of conscience which was the moving impulse in most of the cases here cited was not genuine and a fair reflection of the temper of the age.

It is matter for regret that the editor has not been able to get any information as to the history of the manuscript from which his text is printed. Since this is a first edition, scholars may have a reasonable curiosity to know upon how substantial a basis of genuineness it rests. A facsimile page of the original shows it to have been carefully written, with a moderate degree of ornamentation.

France under the Regency. With a Review of the Administration of Louis XIV. By James Breck Perkins. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892. Pp. xvii, 603.

THE main title of this book is derived from the lesser half of it, the review of the administration of Louis XIV. exceeding in space the account of the Regency. It is the work of a man who is at home in his subject, judges fairly, and writes well. It is therefore pleasant reading; but we do not know that it much modifies our opinions, except, possibly, with regard to the character of Dubois. Mr. Perkins claims, as others do, for the centralized monarchy of Louis XIV. the credit of having put down feudal anarchy and introduced uniformity of administration and, in some measure, of law. Richelieu had done this to a great extent, and the Fronde was an interlude not so much of revived feudalism as of personal cabal directed against an unpopular minister. Feudalism is such a political ogre that to be opposed to it is a title to approbation; but if it had an apologist, he might ask what feudalism, supposing its reign to have been prolonged, could have done much worse than waste the substance of the people in wars of ambition or the expenses of a prodigal court, throw the whole burden on the laboring class, reduce that class to want of bread and the barbarism which attends it, expel the flower of it from the country by religious persecution, debauch the noblesse, estrange them from their rural duties, get the finances into hopeless disorder, and lay the train for the Revolution. The despotism of the Great Monarch was highly gilded, and we are ready to take its gilding at a fair valuation. It was æsthetically an improvement on the coarse despotism of the East, and even on the more artificial autocracy of the Cæsars; while it scarcely had the justification which the first had in nature and the second had in the circumstances of the Empire. But St. Simon and other writers of memoirs present us—in this court of superfine manners—with instances of ill-breeding, indecency, and even filthiness, apart from the licentiousness, which would have disgraced the most plebeian home. The root of really good manners is in the heart, and where selfishness prevails, there may be polish; true courtesy there will not be. If, as Mr. Perkins reminds us, Louis bowed to every woman he met, few did more than this ostentatious adulterer to defile and degrade the sex. That the constellation of intellect which illustrated his reign was not the fruit of his despotism, but a survival from a less despotic era, has been conclusively proved by Buckle, whose demonstration Mr. Perkins repeats. Than the character of the King himself there never was one more revoltingly selfish, or, saving outward grace and majesty of demeanor, in which no doubt he excelled, further from the ideal of a Christian gentleman. That he was misled by ministers or priests is a poor excuse. He must have known perfectly well what he was doing when he bombarded Genoa and ravaged the Palatinate. He must have known pretty well what he was doing when he drove the Huguenots from their homes and sent their ministers to those galleys the horrors of which, described once more by Mr. Perkins, rival anything in the most cruel tyrannies of the East.

It is pleaded that the King, when he ordered the dragonnades, was under the dominion of his priests, and that on them the chief blame must rest. But he was not under the dominion of the priests when they bade him keep the Ten Commandments or the precepts of the Sermon on the Mount. He obeyed them only when their injunctions coincided with his own tyrannical passions. He did not scruple, when his pride was affronted, to bully the Pope; and had the priests interposed on that occasion, the limits of their dominion would have been quickly seen.

Mr. Perkins has failed, we think, to point out with sufficient clearness the social and economical mischief which Louis did by drawing all the land-owners away from their estates in the country to Versailles. There is something to be said for the manorial system so long as the lord is resident and does in any tolerable measure his duty to his tenants; but when the lord is an absentee, racking his tenants through a bailiff, the system becomes an unmixed curse, and this was what Louis XIV. made it. The comment of history on his system is the Revolution.

Mr. Perkins, we think, is successful in the defence of Dubois against the charge of corrupting his royal pupil. Nature had probably been beforehand with the tutor. It is possible, also, that, amidst the unspeakable profligacy of the Regency, the character of Dubois might have passed muster if he had not been a priest and a prince of the Church. But then he *was* a priest and a prince of the Church. It is very curious to see the intense desire of such a man to obtain the highest position in what he called the Church of Christ, and his delight when, by the most flagrant simony, a cardinal's hat had been obtained for him. That the Regent Orleans was a good-natured man, and not without light till the light in him was quenched by debauchery, would, we suppose, be generally admitted; and he and Dubois deserve credit, as Mr. Perkins says, for having done their best to keep the world at peace. To this extent France owed to them the progress in wealth which during this period she made.

Mr. Perkins seems inclined to smile on Law. Nobody doubts that Law was very clever, or that he had an inkling of economical truths. But it is hopeless to defend an economist and financier who could issue an enormous volume of paper with no other basis than the highly problematical gains of a settlement in Louisiana, and imagine that he

had to that extent increased the wealth of France.

From the moral infamies of the Regency Mr. Perkins has no deduction to make. He exhibits them once more in their well-known foulness. On the whole, the feeling with which we lay down his essay is one of increased thankfulness that, whatever may be the evils and perils of democracy, we have escaped from hereditary and personal government.

Against one incidental judgment of Mr. Perkins we must enter a caveat. He seems to think that the Jansenists were little better than the Jesuits, having no advantage over them except such as is common to all sects winnowed by persecution. It is probable that the Jansenist was hardly less narrow than the Jesuit, and that, placed in power, he might have been hardly more tolerant; but he was not, like the Jesuit, casuistical and political; he was moral, and it is reasonable to believe that, even had he been placed in power, his morality would have told. The spirit of Pascal would surely, in any circumstances, have been better than that of his antagonists.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Anne R. Songs about Life, Love and Death. Scribners. $1.25.

Austen, Jane. Mansfield Park. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.

Bandelier, A. F. Final Report of Investigations among the Indians of the Southwestern United States. Cambridge: University Press.

Bendall, H., and Laurence, C. E. Graduated Passages from Greek and Latin Authors for First-Sight Translation. Parts III., IV. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Billings, Dr. J. S. Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office. U. S. A. Vol. XIII. Sialagogues—Sutugin. Washington.

Buchanan, Rev. S. H. The World and the Book. Clarksville, Ark.: S. H. Buchanan.

Catlin, W. W. Echoes of the Sunset Club. Chicago.

Dall, Caroline H. Barbara Fritchie: A Study. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Daniels, Cora L. As It Is to Be. Franklin, Mass.: C. L. Daniels. 50 cents.

Dole, N. H. Selected Poems of Robert Burns. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.

Donnelly, Ignatius. The Golden Bottle; or, The Story of Ephraim Benezet of Kansas. D. D. Merrill Co. $1.25.

Dumas, A. Louise de la Vallière. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.

Dumas, A. The Vicomte de Bragelonne. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.

Elliott, O. L. The Tariff Controversy in the U. S. 1789–1833. Palo Alto, Cal.: Leland Stanford Junior University. $1.

Ellis, E. S. On the Trail of the Moose. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

Falkenhorst, C. With Columbus in America. Worthington Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 27, 1892.

The Week.

THE report, first published by the Detroit *Free Press*, that ex-Judge Thomas M. Cooley had determined to vote for Cleveland has been denied vigorously in many Republican quarters, and the Chicago *Inter-Ocean* has gone so far as to print a despatch from Ann Arbor, in which Mr. Cooley was credited with saying that the report was "entirely unauthorized and without foundation." In order to get at the truth in the matter, we wrote to a member of the Faculty of the University of Michigan, asking him to give us, if he were able to do so, the facts in the case. His letter contains the following:

"Judge Cooley authorizes me to say to you that he stands by the statement published in the Detroit *Free Press*, and that the supposed despatch of the *Inter-Ocean* is wholly false. He is willing you should say, if you care to, that he does not believe in the McKinley Bill, and that he expects to vote for Mr. Cleveland. More than this he does not care to have said, and he is entirely unwilling to publish a letter or to take any active part in the campaign."

We are confident that if the truth were known, the number of men, hitherto Republicans, who with Judge Cooley will vote for Mr. Cleveland because they do "not believe in the McKinley Bill," would be found to be very large and to be increasing steadily. The whole tendency of the Republican campaign has been to force that party upon the extreme high-tariff ground, and to make it plain to all voters that if Harrison were to be elected, the party would be committed to a still higher tariff than the McKinley Bill embodies. The *Tribune* takes that position almost daily, saying, as on Monday, that the decision at the polls "will either sustain the Republican verdict of 1888 so emphatically that *protection will become the settled policy of the Government*, or will repeat the adverse verdict of 1890 so strongly that the country will thenceforth move toward free trade." It is difficult for the McKinleyites to realize that there is, even in the Republican party, a large number of men who do not wish to have "protection become the settled policy of the Government." These men have for several years been coming to the conclusion that the country has had more protection than was good for it, and, instead of being alarmed by the prospect of a tariff policy that will "move towards free trade," they are convinced that a policy of that kind is just what the country needs.

Amherst College, in Massachusetts, has thirty-three professors. Twenty-three of them favor the election of Grover Cleveland to the Presidency, as against seven for Harrison; and eighteen of the twenty-three have signed the following address:

"With Mr. Cleveland's views on public questions we agree. We admire his courage, his constancy, his public spirit, his studious neglect of his merely personal interests where they conflict with the calls of public duty. We remember his tariff message, his pension vetoes, and his letter against free silver as conspicuous instances of disregarding personal considerations for the public good. We therefore urge all our fellow-citizens to give Mr. Cleveland their hearty support."

The significance of this action can be fully comprehended only by people who are familiar with the history of political parties and the attitude towards them of educated men, particularly in New England, for a generation past. It is hardly necessary to say that, so far as selfish considerations are concerned, the professors would be moved to conceal their preference for Cleveland if they could not support Harrison. Massachusetts is a Republican State. A majority of the fathers who send sons to the College are strong Republicans. The institution has received more and larger gifts from Republicans than from Democrats, and among its benefactors are Republicans who have acquired their wealth through the high-tariff system which these professors denounce. Only a strong sense of duty could impel a body of men thus circumstanced to take a step which they knew must offend a majority of the supporters of the College. But in taking it they only illustrate that principle of "disregarding personal considerations for the public good" which is their ground of appeal for support of Mr. Cleveland.

A short time ago the New England Tariff-Reform League, in order to test the proposition that the foreigner pays the tariff tax on imported goods, made a proposition to the Boston Home-Market Club that they would give 13 shillings a box for 100,000 boxes of tin plate, the Liverpool quoted price being 12 shillings per box. They would give this to any foreigner who would pay the duty on the consignment. If, under existing conditions, the foreigner pays the duty, receiving only 12s. per box, here is an offer of 1s. per box as a bonus to him, or about $25,000 on 100,000 boxes. Moreover, the League offered an additional bonus of $10,000 to the Home Market Club for getting the contract, which it could well afford to do, seeing that the League would clear $200,000 out of the operation by merely selling the tin plate at the prices prevailing in this country. This reasonable offer the Home Market Club rejects with scorn. It has no doubt that an order for 100,000 boxes of tin plate would be "a great boon to your British allies," and that it would tend to "relieve their distress." (There it is again—they are in distress, and this fills us with joy.) "If we had any orders to place," it continues, "we should prefer to give them to our new American industry, which has grown up entirely since the duty was made protective, which doubled its production in the second quarter of the year, more than doubled it in the third, and more than doubled it again in the fourth, and which has already developed a capacity equal to nearly one-third of the home demand, and has brought the foreign export price down to within a few cents per box of the duty." According to this calculation of the progress of the tin plate industry, the time has nearly arrived for the establishment of a Trust, to continue as long as the Republican party remains in power. The glass industry was started in this country in 1638, and has been in continuous operation ever since. After an existence of 254 years it has ended in a Trust, or in a "combine" equivalent to that. Why should not the tin-plate men have an equal chance?

Mr. Blaine, in his often-quoted letter of July 11, 1890, on the pending McKinley Bill, used these words: "There is not a section or a line in the entire bill that will open a market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." The so-called reciprocity clauses tacked on the bill before its passage have not made Mr. Blaine's prophecy any less certain of fulfilment. The course of our foreign trade under the McKinley Bill is shown by the following statement of imports and exports of merchandise, received from the Treasury Department on Thursday morning:

EXPORTS.

	1891.	1892.	Decrease.
July	$62,668,893	$58,401,758	$4,267,135
August...	72,685,541	64,843,761	7,841,780
Sept.	82,854,085	72,949,526	9,904,560

IMPORTS.

	1891.	1892.	Increase.
July	$67,042,035	$71,526,414	$4,484,379
August...	65,953,360	77,200,127	11,246,767
Sept.....	61,504,737	72,993,023	11,488,286

These figures show no "broadening" of any foreign markets for American produce, and no "narrowing" of our own markets for foreign goods, as would be the case if reciprocity was providing new foreign buyers of our produce, and the protecting influence of higher duties was supplying our own wants with domestic products. Nor do we find in the prices of the articles named by Mr. Blaine any alteration that conflicts with his statement. Wheat closed in Chicago on July 11, 1890, at 88¼ cents a bushel, and on October 19, 1892, at 77¾

cents. Pork on the same dates was quoted at $11.25 and $11.85 a barrel, but the increase at the later date is due to other causes than "reciprocity"—the advance in corn and the broadening of our market by the admission of American pork to certain foreign markets from which it had been excluded on sanitary grounds. If Mr. Blaine is induced to make another speech for the Harrison ticket, we suggest that he take credit for his prescience.

A bit of incidental evidence showing that the McKinley tariff has not increased wages, but has decreased them if it has any effect on wages at all, is found in the recent report submitted by Mr. Geo. M. Pullman to the great company of which he is President. From the general information submitted with the report we make the following extract:

> "The average number of names on the pay-rolls at Pullman for the year was 4,942, and wages paid $2,918,997.41, making an average for each person employed of $590.65, against $610.73 for the previous year. The total number of persons in the employ of the company in its manufacturing and operating departments is 12,809, and wages paid during the year $6,619,156.63. The number of employees for the previous year was 13,885, and wages paid $7,303,108.42."

So it appears that in this particular instance not only was there a decline in the average rate of wages, but there was a less number of men employed by 1,076 than during the previous year. The explanation of the reduction in the number of men is found in the falling off of business in the car works to the extent of about $1,500,000. But this is exactly what the McKinley tariff was to prevent, or rather it was to increase business and make employment for more men instead of less, and at higher wages than before. The Pullman car works are not a protected industry, but the virtue of the McKinley tariff was to be of that overflowing kind that diffuses itself and spreads to all industries. Like the quality of mercy, it was to bless him who gives and him who takes. But it will puzzle the company's employees, we think, to view the subject in that light.

One of the boasted fruits of the McKinley tariff has made its appearance in the form of a circular issued at Providence by the Anchor Pearl Company, boasting that it is making profits of 21 per cent. in the manufacture of pearl buttons, and inviting subscriptions for $150,000 of capital stock in order to enlarge the works. When Senator Vest alleged that Mr. Whitman's woollen company was making 20 per cent. profits out of the tariff legislation that Mr. Whitman helped to frame, that gentleman denied the charge with great fervor, as though a crime had been imputed to him. No such modesty daunts the Anchor Pearl Company, whose 400 per cent. tax is perhaps the most odious item in the whole McKinley tariff. For the benefit of intending investors as well as of inquiring voters, we will add that all inquiries should be addressed to William W. Rickard & Co., Bankers, No. 25 Westminster St., Providence, R. I.

In a paper contributed by Sir Thomas Farrer to the *Forum* magazine, entitled "English Views of the McKinley Tariff," the fact is mentioned incidentally that the poor Cobden Club has been obliged to stop giving its annual dinner at the Ship Hotel, Greenwich, for lack of funds, and that it is barely able to scrape together enough money to pay its printing bills. Sir Thomas says that this is the actual condition of a society "which is credited with the expenditure of millions in order to bribe foreigners to buy English goods." He thinks, apparently, that the stoppage of the annual dinner will be accepted on this side of the water as an answer to the charge that millions are expended by it in this country to buy votes for the Democrats. On the contrary, it will have the very opposite effect. It will carry conviction to thousands of loyal hearts that the charge is true, showing that the Club, whose main, if not sole, purpose is to carry elections in the United States, has spent so much money for that object that it has been obliged to economize in its food and drink. No, Sir Thomas, we can see through all that.

Charges of "colonization," illegal registration, and frauds upon the ballot-box of every sort are now made by each party against the other with daily increasing volubility. Three arrests are reported as having been made on Friday of Albany Democrats who were trying to register men illegally, and the Democratic managers say that they are going to have a number of Republican rascals arrested for attempting similar frauds. Good citizens will hope that all the "fine workers" on both sides who are trying to tamper with the election may be caught and punished. The most important thing is that all arrests for such alleged offences should, so far as possible, be made before election day. The worst feature of Supervisor Davenport's system in this city is his practice of arresting men on election day, locking them up until after election, and then letting them off, after causing them to lose their votes. The Republican United States Marshal for this district has just admitted before the Congressional Investigating Committee that he cannot recall a single conviction which has followed an arrest on a warrant issued by Davenport, although such warrants have been issued by the hundreds. It is a prostitution of power to disfranchise an innocent voter in this way, and the extent to which it is done by Davenport in this city gives a faint idea of the vast abuses which would grow up under the Force Bill system if applied to the whole country.

A great many readers of the *Tribune* must have shared the feeling of profound relief which took possession of us on Thursday when we opened the paper and learned from its leading editorial article that the letter of the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, accepting the Republican nomination for the Vice-Presidency, met the unequivocal and even hearty approbation of such a stern critic as the Hon. Whitelaw Reid himself. There has been a good deal of natural anxiety upon the subject among Republicans lest the *Tribune* might go back on the letter, or "damn it with faint praise," but this is all dispelled now. The *Tribune* says, without the slightest hesitation that we can detect, that it is not only a very good letter, but a far better one than Mr. Cleveland's. It is, says Mr. Reid, "plain-spoken, intelligible, and uncompromising," and is "markedly in contrast with the nebulous utterances and disingenuous silence of Mr. Cleveland." Mr. Reid himself was so relieved when he saw how highly he appreciated his own letter, that he started for Chicago immediately after committing his flattering views to paper.

One of the most melancholy incidents of the canvass is the suspension of Mr. Smalley, the Tory Squire whom the *Tribune*, for some unaccountable reason, pays for furnishing to its columns views of British politics diametrically opposed to those of the editor. The effect of this on the mind of the reader must, of course, be at times a little confusing, as for instance when the editor expresses the opinion in one column that Gladstone is a glorious old man, of whom England may well be proud, and the Squire in the adjoining column intimates that he is a wicked old charlatan, bent on the ruin of the empire. But then a regular *Tribune* reader is used to contradictories, and, for the most part, swallows his dose like a man. There are times, however, when it is impossible to allow Mr. Smalley to range at will, and the approach of an election in which the Irish vote is needed is one of them. His opinions about Gladstone, home rule, and the Irish nation are such that to pay him for printing them in the *Tribune* just now would cause large bodies of our Irish fellow-citizens, it is supposed, to deny that the McKinley tariff had raised prices, and to allege that the consumer paid the duty, and that Egan was a bad man, and to vote accordingly. To prevent this extremely undesirable result, Mr. Smalley has, we understand, been "laid off" until after election, and his place has been filled by an English Liberal of much humbler origin and in lower social position than Mr. Smalley, who takes the regular Republican view of Gladstone and Egan. But, suitable as this arrangement may be for the *Tribune*, it is a very bad one for the English people, for there is little question that the watchful eye which the Squire has kept on both

Gladstone "and the Gladstonian organ," and the reproofs he has administered to them in the *Tribune*, have had a most wholesome restraining influence on both of them. On the excesses into which they have probably been led by Mr. Smalley's retirement, we do not like to speculate, and we are weary thinking of his load when we picture to ourselves the trouble he will have when he gets back, in reducing them once more to decency and morality after so long a period of unbridled license.

Webster Flannagan, the Texas Republican who leaped into fame by asking in the Republican National Convention of 1880, "What are we here for if not for the offices?" now comes before the public again, this time through the action of a Grand Jury. Flannagan some time ago got what he was after, in the shape of the Collectorship of Customs at El Paso, Tex., but, not satisfied with the lawful emoluments of that office, it is charged that he has been making money illegimately by conniving at the entrance of Chinamen into the United States. For some months past Chinese have been entering El Paso in great numbers, and it is charged that they have been conducted across the line by officials of the Government which has passed a law against their admission. Besides Flannagan, a special deputy collector was arrested on Monday, and an indictment is understood to have been found also against a special agent named Irvin, who is now making Republican stump-speeches in Nebraska. The Grand Jury also criticises the customs officials for making unwarrantable seizures of stock found grazing along the border, and altogether Flannagan must be inclined to wonder whether it is worth while to serve so censorious a community.

Touching the Tammany nominations, that of Mr. Gilroy for the Mayoralty is the best the Boss could have made without going outside the Tammany circle. Mr. Gilroy is by general consent of those who have had to do with him an able man, perhaps the only one of the lot who would be recognized in business circles as a business man. He has, according to all accounts, administered his department well, with an apparent avoidance of jobbery and corruption, although he started with an assistant in the person of "Barney" Martin, who was then fresh from an untraversed indictment for bribery. In short, there is no better Tammany man for the Mayoralty than Mr. Gilroy, and if he could get rid of his associates, his administration of the Mayoralty would probably compare favorably with that of anybody who could be nominated by any party. But he is a Tammany man. He owes all he is to Tammany, and has been identified with it in good and evil fortune since the days of Tweed, under whom he began his political career. The very goodness of his administration—should it be as good as there is reason to expect—will go to strengthen the hold of Tammany on the other offices which it reserves for the riffraff. It will redound to the credit of the Boss and of the Boss system of government.

But the nomination of Frank T. Fitzgerald for the additional Surrogateship is a different matter and calls for more comment. The Surrogateship is a judicial office of the highest importance, especially in a great city like ours. His jurisdiction covers the proving of wills and all contests over their validity, the administration of the estates of deceased persons, and the appointment of administrators and guardians of children. No judicial office, in fact, is saddled with more responsibility, or needs to be filled by men of a higher grade of character. Old New Yorkers will remember when Alexander W. Bradford, one of the foremost men at the New York bar, ranking with Charles O'Conor and Daniel Lord, was thought none too good for it. Now, Mr. Frank T. Fitzgerald has filled the office of County Register since 1888, being when elected already a member of Congress, and he drew salary from both offices for nine months. He was examined as to his administration of the Register's Office by the Fassett Committee in 1890, when he confessed that his office was "a Tammany heirloom"; and it appeared that the custodian whose duty it is to guard the books of record in behalf of the city was a head-bartender in a liquor-saloon, dividing his time between bartending and the public service, the latter getting much the smaller share. Another custodian was discovered who divided his time between a pawn shop and the Register's office; and although the business of the office was much smaller than it used to be, its subordinate working force had been increased from 16 to 50, and its salary list for them from $125,000 to $153,000. There was more entertaining evidence of the same sort, showing that the office under Mr. Fitzgerald was really a sort of roosting-place for Tammany drones and incapables. Yet his administration of it is now treated as proper preparation for one of the most important judicial trusts in this State, or, indeed, in any civilized community, just as Barney Martin's corruption in the Sheriff's office was treated as proper preparation for the Deputy Commissionership of Public Works at a far larger salary than he had ever received.

The death of Mrs. Harrison has been so long anticipated by her physician, her family, and the public that the announcement of the event does not take anybody by surprise. Although it does not produce a shock, it does move profound sympathy for the President among all classes, and none will feel this more deeply than those whose sense of political duty compels them to vote for Mr. Cleveland. Indeed, we can well believe that there will be no more sincere sympathizer, outside of the President's immediate circle, than Mr. Cleveland himself. Mrs. Harrison was an irreproachable wife and mother, possessing all the dignity which her position called for.

The statement of foreign commerce and immigration for September shows the effect of the President's proclamation enforcing a long quarantine upon immigrants. During September, 1891, there arrived at this port 41,954 immigrants; during September just past, only 21,824. Most of these, of course, had embarked before the new orders were put into effect, and the figures for October will show a still greater falling off. Some of the steamship companies manifest a disposition to resume business in this line as fully as possible, but the Cunard Company has issued a circular announcing that until further notice the ships of the line will bring from Europe in the steerage American citizens, residents of the United States who may not be citizens, and wives and children of residents of the United States, as well as aliens who may desire to visit the United States without intending to remain or reside here, but no aliens whose purpose is to remain and reside in the United States.

Every week brings the news that some last survivor of the forces hostile to the French Republic, some newspaper, or some man hitherto supposed to be irreducible and unreconcilable, has toppled over and fallen at last. M. Paul de Cassagnac's own provincial newspaper, the *Électeur*, of Gers, a younger brother of the *Autorité*, has just been fatally touched. Its old supporters have, for the most part, deserted it, and M. de Cassagnac announces, almost with tears, that it will follow them and hoist the Republican flag. The faithful few among its subscribers will henceforth receive the *Autorité* gratis. But far more astonishing even than this is the conversion of M. de Mackau, which he himself has recently announced in a speech at Carrouges. The man who has been so long the unchallenged head of the anti-constitutionalist Opposition, the leader of the Union des Droites, the most ardent apostle of "parallel action" with the Boulangists, the President of the famous Committee of Twelve, who, as the *Temps* says, during that furious campaign concentrated in himself and incarnated all the plots and compromises and tricks and hates of the Republic's adversaries—even M. de Mackau at last accepts the Republic! Political observers may well enough ask, Who will be the next? But they will have no greater surprise than this—not even if they shall see M. Paul de Cassagnac himself beating his breast and saying his "Confiteor."

"A GIGANTIC BUNCO GAME."

THE above is the name which Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia gives to the Democratic canvass. The epithet occurs in a long article in last week's *Independent* on "The Duty of Political Independents." The reason why the Democratic canvass is a bunco game, and Mr. Cleveland the "bunco-steerer in chief," is that although the party has declared that a tariff for protection is unconstitutional, it nevertheless declares also that it has no intention of establishing immediate free trade. This is "bunco" No. 1. It is about as sensible as would be a charge of fraudulent pretence against a party which declared that the Government issue of legal-tender notes was unconstitutional, and yet also declared that it had no thought of repudiating such notes as were already afloat.

His next charge is that, in proposing the resurrection of State banks of issue as the best mode of providing an elastic currency, which Government paper is not and cannot be, the Democratic party must of necessity have intended to revive also all that was bad in the old State banks—that they must mean to restore the "red-dog" and "wild-cat" currency; that they cannot have had in their mind such banks as the Scotch or Irish, or the old New York or Massachusetts banks, and he describes the "red-dog" and "wild-cat" currency with some detail. Curiously enough, unconscious, we are sure, of the figure it makes him cut in the forum of morals, he then proceeds to accuse Mr. Cleveland of "dishonesty" for taking his stand on this currency plank of the Chicago platform. Any elementary book of ethics will tell him that to put the worst possible construction on an opponent's language, when an entirely different one is not only possible but far the more probable, and base on it a charge of fraud, is recognized by all moralists as a departure from truthfulness as well as from decency. We should pass such a performance on the stump from Major McKinley or "Tom" Platt without notice, but from Mr. Henry C. Lea—oh, the pity of it! He does take passing notice of the fact that there is "a vague pretence that restrictions can be imposed which will diminish the admitted evils of the old State banks," but, after arguing that in his opinion such restrictions would not be effective, he politely intimates that suggestions of this sort "can scarce deceive even those who make them."

These are, however, comparatively trifling matters. This article in the *Independent*, in which Mr. Cleveland is treated as "a bunco-steerer" because he does not agree with Mr. Lea on the tariff and the currency, was written by the same gentleman who, on the 10th of April, 1890, in an open letter to President Harrison, accused him in terms of having entered into an "alliance," after full warning of his character, with a man who ought to be "in the penitentiary," namely, Quay; of having accepted "his man" Wanamaker as a Cabinet officer; of having placed in the hands of this Quay, with this full knowledge of his character, increased opportunities for a fraudulent and corrupt use of the public service; and summed up by informing the President that "he had degraded his party to its lowest level, till it no longer deserved or enjoyed public confidence," and had "earned for it the denunciation of the Hebrew prophet, 'The heads thereof judge for reward, and the priests thereof teach for hire, and the prophets thereof divine for money, yet they lean upon the Lord and say, Is not the Lord among us? Therefore shall Zion for your sake be ploughed as a field and Jerusalem become heaps!'"

Now, neither President Harrison nor the party has changed in the smallest degree in the two years since this was written. Quay is as potent as ever in its councils, and Wanamaker is still in the Cabinet, and is carrying on the old games which Clarkson initiated, and the President has continued to use his patronage in exactly the way Mr. Lea had in his mind when he accused him of having "entered into a political partnership" with Mr. Quay. Yet when the Independents undertake to plough this corrupt Zion as a field, and turn this rascally Jerusalem into heaps, and chase away the venal judges, priests, and prophets, Mr. Lea turns on them and abuses them, and actually urges his friends to give another term in the Presidency to the partner of Quay and Wanamaker.

This is not all. He passes over without notice the fact that the Republican party introduced and forced through the McKinley Bill, as a means of making things dear. This is the object of any protectionist measure. It can have no other. If it did not make things dearer it would not protect, and would, in fact, be mischievous child's-play. Knowing this, President Harrison praised dearness, and denounced cheapness as un-American and degrading; so did McKinley; so did Lodge; so did Reed; so did they all. At the election of 1890, however, the voters expressed in a very forcible way their disapproval of dearness, and their desire, in common with the sane portion of the rest of the human race, for cheapness. Thereupon the Republican leaders turned round, and declared that the McKinley Bill was intended to promote cheapness and had done so. Here is a small specimen of this thimblerigging:

PRESIDENT HARRISON.

In March, 1888.	*In September, 1892.*
"I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap, so that *I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats.*"	"In view of this showing of an increase in wages, *of a reduction in the cost of articles of common necessity*, and of marked advance in the prices of agricultural products, it is plain that this Tariff Law has not imposed burdens, but has conferred benefits, upon the farmer and the workingman."

MR. M'KINLEY.

Speech at Kalamazoo, October 11, 1890.	*Speech at Boston, October 4, 1892.*
"Well, now, they say you would have things cheaper if you only had a Democratic revenue tariff. Cheap! I never liked the word. *'Cheap' and 'nasty' go together. This whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country*, and that is not the kind our fathers builded. Furthermore, it is not the kind the sons mean to maintain."	"But they said this protective tariff law of 1890 was going to increase the price of food and diminish the wages of the laborer. It has done neither. *The necessities of life are cheaper to-day than eighteen months ago, the commodities that go into the household of every man and woman are cheaper than eighteen months ago*, and the price of labor has increased to some extent."

Now, what would Mr. Lea say to a man who sold him a freezer guaranteed to make ice, and, when it was found to produce nothing but hot water, should impudently maintain that hot water was what it was always meant for, and that hot water was far better than ice even for cooling purposes? Would he not promptly put the law in force against him? Could "Hungry Joe" play a worse trick on a confiding farmer? But bad as it is or would be, is it not in all respects worthy of the President's "political partners"? Nevertheless, not one word of mention does Mr. Lea make of this fraud in his letter, but actually bestows on Mr. Cleveland the epithets which it has earned for McKinley and his tribe.

ANTI-BOODLE LEAGUES WANTED.

A STEP has been taken in Massachusetts which ought to be imitated in this State and in the few others which have corrupt-practices acts. The new act of that kind which was passed by the last Massachusetts Legislature will have its first trial in the present campaign and election. In most respects it is the most stringent law of the kind yet enacted in this country. It requires a full accounting by both committee and candidates of all money spent, sworn publication being required after election. Its promoters are not content, however, with the enactment of the law, but have formed an association for the purpose of securing the law's enforcement. They have chosen Mr. Edwin L. Sprague of Boston President of their organization, which they have named the Election Laws League of Massachusetts. Mr. Morrill Wyman, jr., of Cambridge is the Secretary, and Mr. Richard H Dana of Boston is Treasurer. Among the vice-presidents are men prominent in both political parties, such as Mayor Matthews, Eben S. Draper, Sigourney Butler, Col. Henry Lee, Samuel W. McCall, Josiah Quincy, and William Endicott. The Executive Committee is also made up of representatives of the Republican, Democratic, and People's party, and one or two Independents. The constitution of the League declares its objects to be the dissemination of information relative to existing legislation designed to prevent corrupt practices in election,

and the exertion of zealous effort by the League's members to enforce the Massachusetts law and bring all violators of it to punishment. This is precisely the machinery needed in every State having such a law. So long as it is nobody's business to enforce the law, just so long will it be defied by the corrupters of the suffrage; but the moment there is not only danger of detection and punishment, but very positive assurance of both, the law will be respected and obeyed.

In New York State the need of such an organization is made more and more imperative daily through the publication of the remarkable series of "boodle circulars" which Mr. Hackett, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Republican State Committee, is sending out. There have been a half-dozen or more of these captured by the enemy and published. Of the lot, three are such palpable confessions of corrupt designs that the *Tribune* and other Republican organs do not dare print them. The first one was dated August 31, and was directed to all the postmasters of the State. In it Mr. Hackett said:

"I desire to obtain from you the names of from eight to twelve of the most active, earnest, discreet, and *trustworthy* young REPUBLICANS *who will get their mail at your post-office.* I particularly wish, also, that you keep this request a secret, even from those whose names you furnish me. I want twelve names, but if there are but ten or eleven, send the ten or eleven; if only eight or nine, send them. *Your prompt service in this matter will not be forgotten.*"

When he had obtained the names of these "discreet" Republicans, Mr. Hackett sent out, presumably to them, his second and more famous circular, which the *Tribune* refused to print even as a paid advertisement, and which stated as follows the service he wished them to perform:

"DEAR SIR: I know you are an active, earnest, and sincere Republican, and that Republican success is dear to your heart.

"It is the desire of the New York State Republican Committee to be permitted to request you to do some particular service for the Republican cause from time to time during the canvass. *Such service will call for the exercise of caution and the ability to keep a secret.*

"Are you willing to undertake such duty to help secure Republican success? If you are willing to do so, *send me the name of a Democrat among your acquaintances who you believe can be induced to vote the Republican ticket this fall.* If more than one, give their names and place your letter in the enclosed envelope. Please sign the list with your full name and post-office address plainly written.

"*You may be sure that any service you may be able to render will not be forgotten.*"

There has never been any doubt as to the meaning of these two circulars. They reveal a "boodle campaign" as plainly as possible. On Thursday morning a third circular was published in the same series, which, while further revealing the plan of the campaign, shows that the boodle distribution has begun. It is addressed to the Chairman of the Republican County Committee of Schenectady County, and reads as follows:

REPUBLICAN STATE COMMITTEE,
FIFTH AVENUE HOTEL,
NEW YORK, October 17, 1892.

MY DEAR SIR: I enclose you check for $300. This is to be used in getting a full registration in your country districts. I don't expect any of it to be used in the cities, as you should have those taken care of by this time. Please acknowledge receipt.

Yours truly, C. W. HACKETT,
Chairman Executive Committee.

Henry Bradt, Esq., Schenectady.

In the rural districts of Schenectady County there are only about two thousand registered voters, of whom less than one-half are Republicans. To be able to devote $300 to the work of registering less than one thousand voters shows a very affluent condition of finances in Mr. Hackett's Headquarters. As the circular to the Schenectady Chairman has undoubtedly been sent to the chairmen of all other counties in the State, the scale of expenditure allowed for getting the country vote registered in each of the sixty counties can be readily calculated. The total is placed by Mr. Sheehan at not less than $260,000. Mr. Hackett says expressly that the cities have been provided for in other ways; and as the expense of doing this must obviously be far greater than that of the same work in the country districts, experts place the total outlay of Mr. Hackett's committee, for registering expenses alone, as high as $750,000.

It is preposterous to say that anything like such a sum of money is needed for the work. The use of it confirms the suspicion that has been prevalent for some time that the Hackett boodle plan is to bribe as many Democrats as possible to refrain from registering. After this work has been completed, other boodle will be used to bribe Democratic voters who have registered to stay away from the polls on Election Day. Offences of this kind are expressly prohibited by the Corrupt-Practices Act, under severe penalties. The offences of bribing a man to refrain from voting and of accepting such bribe are pronounced "infamous crimes" by the act, and a person convicted of offering such a bribe, in addition to imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than a year, will also be compelled to forfeit any office to which he may have been elected; and a person convicted of accepting such a bribe will, in addition to the imprisonment prescribed, be excluded from the right of suffrage for five years. It ought to be easy to obtain proof of Mr. Hackett's wholesale operations, provided there were an organization of men who should make it their business to collect such evidence; and the friends of honest elections in all parts of the State cannot do a greater service to the country than to make such organizations without delay. Let Mr. Hackett and his boodlers be given to understand that if they buy the Presidency, they do it at the cost of imprisonment and disgrace both for themselves and the men whom they bribe.

AN OLD BUBBLE PRICKED.

ONE of the oldest bubbles of the protectionist school, perhaps the oldest of all of them, is the affirmation that the manufacturing prosperity of France dates from the introduction of the protective tariff by Colbert, the Finance Minister of Louis XIV. This was a favorite argument of the late Judge Kelley of Pennsylvania, and has done good service in many a "campaign of education." This bubble is so effectually pricked by Mr. James Breck Perkins in his new history of 'France under the Regency' that it can never, we think, be inflated so as to do any valuable service again. Mr. Perkins proves conclusively that protective tariffs were in force in France before Colbert came into power, that he merely raised the duties, in the McKinley fashion, and that the result was a great depression of trade, and especially of manufactures, in France. It is shown that Colbert did introduce order, system, and personal honesty into the finances of the kingdom; that he abolished a lot of special privileges, and removed a lot of blood-suckers from the body politic. To this extent he was a public benefactor; but even these blessings did not offset the malign influence of his high tariffs, which ground the faces of the poor and eventually crushed the manufacturing industry which they were intended to promote. It should be added here that Mr. Perkins, the author of this notable work, is a Republican in politics, and was formerly elected by his party to the office of District Attorney in the city of Rochester in this State.

We take up this subject not because we consider the arguments drawn from Colbert by the protectionists very potent, but because the course that protectionism ran in his time and under his auspices has very much in common with our own economic history. Mr. Perkins shows first that protective tariffs can be traced back as far as the seventh century: "they can be found wherever trade was sufficient to attract the attention of the Government, and the facilities of transportation made it possible for one country to deal with another." Colbert found the "American system" (we believe that was what Mr. Clay and some others since his time called it) existing when he came into office. It had been enforced more or less by Philip the Fair, by Francis I., by Charles IX., and by Louis XI. French manufactures were not inferior to any other in the world at that time. Colbert set out with the fixed idea that money was the only form of wealth, or, as he put it: "It is the abundance of money in a State which alone makes the difference in its greatness and its power." In order to secure an abundance of money, it was necessary, in his view, to prevent the buying of foreign goods, and this, he reasoned, would have the additional blessed effect of providing employment for "our own people." We have heard something of this sort from our Mr. McKinley the present year.

It was a peculiarity of the period in which Colbert flourished that he did not need to consult anybody but the King

Practically he did not need to consult anybody about the finances, because the King concerned himself only with the spending of money, not with the raising of it. So all Colbert needed to do was to map out a policy and put it into execution. And here we can see how great minds run in the same channel, for Colbert, like McKinley, not only adopted tariffs, but bounties also, and monopolies on top of all. Foreign workmen were imported "under contract," and among these were some workers in tin from Saxony—not from Wales. Colbert had another idea, and that was that large establishments where multitudes of people are congregated together constitute manufactures, while the same number of people working at home do not. So he granted monopolies or gave subsidies, here and there, to carry out this conception. For example, he gave a monopoly for ten years in the making of point lace, which enabled the proprietors to pay 30 per cent. dividends, but he was obliged to protect the establishment against riots of the working people, who claimed that 8,000 persons had been forced to abandon the craft by which they had long obtained their livelihood, and the girls employed in the new manufactory complained that they were forced to work for less wages than they had formerly earned when working for themselves at home.

Another peculiarity of Colbert's system was that none of the manufactures started by tariffs, bounties, or monopolies was ever able to go alone afterwards, or to continue long on the amount of Government pap allotted to it, but was always asking for more. It was not necessary in those days for the protected or bountied classes to contribute money to carry the next election. Therefore, Colbert felt free to express his opinion about them. He never had any doubt about the efficiency of the system he was pursuing, but he berated the inefficiency of the particular persons whom he had chosen to illustrate it. "The merchants," he wrote in 1671, "do not try to surmount by their own industry the difficulties which they encounter so long as they hope to find easier means through the authority of the King. They seek to obtain advantages of every sort, and declare that unless aided their manufactures will be ruined." This might be said of the Dolans and Whitmans of the present day. Forty years after the manufacture of laces had been undertaken by the royal assistance, one of the subsidized manufacturers who had failed, applied to the King for a pension and it was granted. "Never have manufactures decayed so fast in the kingdom," wrote the superintendent from Rouen in 1685, "*as since we have endeavored to increase them by the interference of the Government.*" The system had then been in operation twenty-one years.

Mr. Perkins distinguishes between the disasters caused by the wars of Louis XIV. and those caused by the industrial policy of Colbert. A potent cause of the triple alliance against France and the war of 1672 was Colbert's tariff of 1667. As years rolled on, Colbert became more and more a protectionist and a pedant, and French industry sank lower and lower. He applied the paternal principle to the dyeing of cloth as well as to the making of it. Regulations were issued prescribing the width and the margin and the color of woven fabrics. "The artisan who, by accident, made a piece of cloth a few inches shorter or longer than the size prescribed, might be exposed in the public square, and consider his offence while boys threw rotten eggs at him." The same interference was applied to the industry of the colonies. "The planter in the West Indies had to raise and prepare his sugar to comply with usages established at Bordeaux. Girls were sent out to become wives of the colonists, and Colbert wrote the Governor that they must all be married within fifteen days at latest."

The thirty-eight pages which Mr. Perkins gives to the industrial policy and achievements of Colbert are very instructive and amusing, and especially so if one is inclined to make comparisons between the economic policy of those days and of our own time.

WAYS OF CHOOSING PRESIDENTS.

THE recent decision of the Supreme Court, sustaining unanimously and unreservedly the constitutionality of the district system of choosing Presidential electors which has been adopted in Michigan, brings up the whole subject of the best method of filling the chief executive office. This was one of the hardest problems which the framers of the Constitution had to solve, and so many and conflicting were the schemes proposed that for many days it seemed as though no agreement could ever be reached. The plan finally adopted was theoretically almost an ideal one—that each State should select a number of electors equal to the number of its Senators and Representatives, these electors to be the most eminent citizens of their respective States, and that they should pick out the most eminent statesman in the whole nation for its chief magistrate. So beautiful, indeed, was this theory that Hamilton, writing in the *Federalist*, thought it "not too strong to say that there will be a constant probability of seeing the station filled by characters preëminent for ability and virtue." Never did a theory more utterly collapse in practice. The framers of the Constitution were not dead before the Presidential elector had sunk into a mere machine, without a particle of independence, obliged to cast his vote for a certain candidate.

The method of choosing Presidential electors was originally left to the Legislatures of the various States simply because it was thought that different States might find different plans worked out by themselves better than any uniform system which could be devised. As the Supreme Court has just decided, the grant of power to the Legislatures was absolute. They might adopt any "manner" of appointing the electors which they chose, and various manners were immediately adopted. In half-a-dozen States the Legislatures named the electors. In New Hampshire an act was passed under which the people virtually nominated the electors, but the actual appointment was reserved for the Legislature. In Massachusetts the people of each Congressional district brought in their ballots for two candidates for electors, and the Legislature chose one of these two for each district, besides naming the two electors-at-large. The Legislatures of three States passed laws providing for popular election of the whole number of electors.

It is obvious that the absolute vesting of the appointing power in the Legislature of each State affords opportunity for sharp practice, and the "fathers of the Republic" were not above that sort of thing. Pennsylvania had chosen electors by popular vote in the first, second, and third Presidential elections, and although it was the practice to pass a law every four years which expired after each election, the system was regarded by everybody as a permanent one. In 1796 all but one of the fifteen electors thus chosen had been supporters of Jefferson. During the Adams Administration, however, the Federalists carried the State, and as the State Senators were elected by classes, for four years, that party in 1800 controlled the upper branch of the Legislature by 13 to 11, although more recent elections had given the other (Jefferson) party the Governorship and House of Representatives, and shown that it would again carry the State on a popular vote. Obviously the Jefferson men were entitled to the State. But the Federalists in the Senate would not consent to either a popular election or an election by joint ballot of the Legislature, where they would be outvoted. They held their ground firmly, and finally compelled a compromise by which a Jefferson State was made to give seven votes for Adams, as against eight for Jefferson, receiving therefor this glowing tribute from a Federalist organ:

> "The Federal thirteen deserve the praises and the blessings of all America. They have checked the mad enthusiasm of a deluded populace and the wicked speculation of designing demagogues. On reviewing the present aspect of our political affairs, it may be figuratively said, *They have saved a falling world!*"

The desirability of an amendment to the Constitution which would prevent a resort to such "dodges" as this was early perceived; and when the changes demanded by the Jefferson-Burr controversy were made, it was suggested that one part of the new system should be a provision for the choice of all electors by popular vote, the States to be divided for that purpose into districts. But the matter never got beyond the stage of newspaper discussion until 1813, when a proposition for such an amendment was made by a Congressman

from North Carolina, where the Legislature had suddenly deprived the people of their traditional right to choose Presidential electors. After some debate, the proposition was rejected by a narrow majority, but three years later the same member secured a good majority for his plan, though not the necessary two-thirds. During "the era of good feeling," under Monroe, it appeared as though the amendment would be carried through Congress. Between 1817 and 1822 the Senate twice sent such a proposition to the House, besides endorsing the principle a third time by nearly the requisite two-thirds; but the House each time either laid the matter on the table by a close vote, or failed to give it the necessary two-thirds, and finally, in 1822, refused to consider it at all. After this last rebuff the advocates of the change seem to have lost heart, and no further attempt to secure the amendment of the Constitution was made.

The drift towards the system of choosing all the electors of a State by popular vote, which was evident from the first, became so pronounced that after 1832 no State pursued any other method except South Carolina, which stuck to the practice of choice by the Legislature down to the civil war. The generation which has grown up since that time is so accustomed to the existing system that Congressmen and editors were found in Michigan who actually declared that they had never heard of any other, and that the adoption of the district plan would be "revolutionary." The Supreme Court has decided that the Michigan plan is entirely constitutional, but every candid man must admit that it is unfair and unjust for one State to adopt a system which gives one party an advantage over the other, as this does. All of the other forty-three States elect by popular vote, and the minority will not secure a single elector in any one of those forty-three States. It is not right that the Democrats of Michigan should get four or more of the fourteen electoral votes from that State, even if the Republicans have a majority of the whole popular vote, while the Republicans of New Jersey, for example, do not get a single electoral vote, although they may carry, as in 1888, a majority of the Congressional districts.

Obviously there ought to be uniformity in the matter, and the only way to secure such uniformity is by the adoption of a constitutional amendment. Only three systems will be seriously thought of—the common one, of electing all a State's electors by popular vote on one ticket; the district system in some form, most naturally by the choice of one elector in each Congressional district, and the two electors-at-large by the Legislature; and the election of President by popular vote of the whole Union, without the intervention of electors—the candidate who receives the most votes to secure the office.

THE COLLIERY STRIKE AT CARMAUX.

PARIS, October 12, 1892.

FOR nearly two months the miners belonging to the collieries of Carmaux, a small town in the Department of the Tarn, have been on strike. We have had in the last few years strikes more important in many respects—for the number of workmen idle, for the dis arrangement threatened in the public services, or for the sanguinary conflicts they have provoked. Of all such strikes, however, that at Carmaux is at once the most interesting and the saddest to note. Certain trouble-boding tendencies, hitherto more or less clearly outlined in the distance, have suddenly developed into concrete shape in a manner that causes anxiety; and, whatever happens, the counter-effects of present events will make themselves felt for a long time to come. It may even happen that the Ministry will be so affected by them as to fall upon the reopening of the Chambers.

One of the consequences of the principle of the liberty of labor, so say the political economists, is the right of workmen to combine together in order to obtain from their employers the advantages to which they may think themselves entitled by circumstances—such, for instance, as the raising of wages or the diminution of the hours of labor. Though the principle of the liberty of labor has been long recognized in France, it was only in 1864 that the workmen succeeded in making good their claim to be allowed to strike. Twenty years later a new law was passed, which considerably increased the facilities at their disposal when engaged in a struggle with the employers. After a series of debates that continued for several years, the Chambers voted in 1884 an important law in reference to kinds of trades unions (*syndicats professionnels*). By the terms of this law—affecting, it is true, the interests of the workingman in the greater proportion—both workmen and employers can freely combine; in other words, can form associations, without let or hindrance, of which the members shall belong to the same trade or profession. These associations, which are authorized to acquire property and to plead in a court of justice, may in their turn associate together and form larger amalgamations.

These trades unions were no sooner formed than they assumed great importance from the very fact that they grouped and disciplined large bodies of workmen, taught them how to agree on the claims to make, and how to act with greater unity. Certain large firms wished to prevent their workmen from thus acquiring greater power, and sought to hinder the growth of the unions. They refused to treat with them, or endeavored to weed out the workmen that belonged to them. As a result of this attitude, strikes ensued in which the workmen had generally the best of it; and so up to the present time the influence of the unions has grown, until now they are beginning to go beyond the purpose for which they were originally formed. Their original object was, as a matter of fact, a wholly economic one. According to the law, they exist for "the study and the defence of industrial, commercial, and agricultural interests." But by a kind of natural tendency and by reason of the close relationship existing between economic, social, and political questions, they come at length often enough to take up an attitude distinctly political. This is so at Carmaux. If in preceding strikes one might see political issues involved, yet industrial questions were clearly preponderant, and the ordinary strike, as I said above, was always one arising out of their treatment. In the Carmaux case the question is entirely different. There is no dispute here as to wages, hours of labor, or the recognition of a union. The workmen have struck for a reason purely political.

Among the workmen in the employ of the mining company was a man named Calvignac, who possessed considerable influence among the members of the trades unions. At the last municipal elections he was elected town councillor, and was chosen subsequently by the Council to be Mayor of the town. Absorbed by his new duties, he began, from the day of his election, to be more and more irregular at his ordinary work. Intimations were given him in reference to this state of things. It was either out of his power or not in his desire to take notice of them, and ultimately the company discharged him. This step at once caused a great commotion. The workmen protested. They declared that Calvignac had been sent away for the sole reason that he had been chosen Mayor, and that the company, with their capitalist and middle-class sympathies, were not willing to admit that such duties should be performed by a workman. So the workmen demanded his reinstatement. The company replied that it did not matter to them whether Calvignac were Mayor or not; but that since he did not attend regularly to the work he was engaged to do, they did not intend to keep him, and should maintain their first decision. The strike was forthwith declared, and the union that had given the order began to make arrangements for its continuance until such time as the company would yield.

As soon as this state of things was made public, a veritable swarm of politicians descended upon Carmaux, as indeed always happens in like circumstances—Socialist and workingmen Deputies who have made a sort of specialty of this kind of affair. In general these latter are men who reach the position they occupy by means of working-class agitations. For instance, one of them is a former innkeeper from the Department of the Nord, who, having been the ringleader in a certain number of strikes—innkeepers are only too willing to play this part, since suspension of work often enough fills their bar-rooms—acquired a notoriety among the Socialist party, and succeeded in getting himself elected as one of the Deputies for Paris. Men of this kind, who have nothing else to keep them in power but the popularity they acquire among the workmen, introduce themselves everywhere that an agitation arises, take the lead of the movement, and fan the passions already excited into greater activity. They know neither the difficulties nor the responsibilities of the employers, and if the strike is prolonged they are not the ones who suffer. Accordingly they never advise conciliation even when they are charged with a mediatory mission. They always seek to give the dispute the greatest importance possible, and, thanks to them, Parliament, which has really no concern in the matter, generally intervenes. A strike such as this one at Carmaux, being placed from the very first on a political footing, furnished these agitators with an admirable opportunity, which they have not been slow to take advantage of. They went about declaring, in one public meeting after another, that the discharge of Calvignac was an attack on the right of universal suffrage, which "Capital" sought to annihilate, and that the dispute between the company and the workmen was one of the highest import, since the latter were fighting

to maintain the rights of the people as a nation. Thus, through the action of these political agitators, the strike is being organized in a way hitherto unknown in France.

There is not, however, at Carmaux an entire unanimity of the workmen in reference to the strike. A certain number of them would be only too glad to go back to work, these being naturally the miners who do not belong to the unions, and who consequently are not amenable to the same spirit of discipline nor subject in the same degree to the agitators' influence. But their good-will is powerless. The trades unions will not permit these "suspects," as they are called, to come, even indirectly, to the aid of the company, and employ every means in their power to prevent the least resumption of work whatsoever. This situation ought, it would seem, to have brought about an intervention of the public authority; for if the principle of the liberty of labor authorizes the strike, it likewise forbids the strikers to prevent others from working. But the Government throughout the whole business has shown a weakness that cannot be too strongly condemned. It is true it has arrested some individuals concerned in a riot; and, in spite of the political pleading of their barristers, among whom figured naturally a Deputy of the extreme radical section, the court condemned them. But, on the other hand, the strikers have been considered as a regularly organized power. They have been permitted to organize a special police patrolling the town, and exercising in reality a watch over the "suspects," and, in order not to discontent them, the Government has countermanded the orders issued to troops that were to be sent to Carmaux to maintain order. What is more, during the parliamentary vacation which is still unfinished, at a time when Deputies lose their privilege of exemption from arrest, and can be arrested on the spot like ordinary mortals, certain Deputies have been allowed to make speeches constituting an offence in the eye of the law, and, clad with their official sash, to interpose between strikers guilty of some offence and the police who were proceeding to arrest them.

The reason of the Government's attitude is apparent enough: it is afraid of the attacks of the ultra-radical party. It is a constant rule, at least in France, that moderate majorities always yield to the pressure exercised by ultra minorities—our parliamentary history of the last few years furnishes a long list of examples. And the Government is all the more disposed to give satisfaction to the radicals in that there is often enough a very slender line of demarcation between them. The fundamental principles are oftentimes the same in both camps; and nothing is more embarrassing for a government with little that is homogeneous in it, and obliged to rely on a fickle majority, than to see itself attacked in the name of the very principles which it invokes, and to listen to reproaches from other republicans of not being really democratic or of betraying sound republican principles.

The humiliating attitude adopted in the present case by the Ministry does not, however, seem to succeed. First of all, it is a mistake to suppose that one can ever in politics succeed in maintaining power by means of indecision. The Radicals and Socialists will never rest content, and will become all the more exacting as they meet with less resistance. On the other hand, the Ministry will probably lose a good number of its supporters. Those who are beginning to be called the conservative republicans are of opinion that this compliance is going really too far; and the newspapers that seem as a rule the most disposed to admire the Government in everything, do not hesitate to blame its weakness. The session about to open is expected to commence its parliamentary labors with violent interpellations, and the fall of the Ministry is currently spoken of as almost certain to happen. But even if this prediction is not fulfilled, the Government will nevertheless be considerably weakened, and should it subsequently fall on some other question, most probably in the majority that will overturn it will be found Deputies who have fallen away from it in consequence of its attitude over the Carmaux affair.

Meanwhile, the situation at Carmaux remains the same. The workmen apparently are not willing to yield, and the company on its side is equally inflexible. It is to be supposed that a solution of the difficulty will ultimately be found; but even when work is resumed, there will remain more than the material loss for both shareholders and workmen—more even than a Ministry weakened or overthrown. This first strike of a purely political order will form a significant precedent that will not fail to be imitated. S.

THE FUNERAL OF RENAN.

PARIS, October 12, 1892.

WHEN I was living in the Latin Quarter, I often took long walks with a friend who had some literary ambition. He wrote afterwards a book which is well forgotten and which never had much success. I remember well, after so many years, what he said to me about Renan, who was at that time entirely unknown outside of the smallest circle of friends. I did not then know Renan myself and had never seen him; he had written nothing except a *thèse* on "Averroès et l'Averroïsme," not a very attractive subject, and this I had not read. "Renan," said my friend to me, "is the most surprising man you can imagine. Could you suppose that a few days ago he quietly unfolded to me his plan of life, in these terms: 'I am preparing a work on the history of Christianity; after the first volumes I shall be elected a member of the Institute. I prefer to enter first the Academy of Inscriptions—it is the most serious; afterwards I shall enter the French Academy. I intend also to be made a Professor at the Collège de France. For the present I am not going to meddle with politics; but later, when my reputation is made, I shall offer myself as a Deputy.'" All this was said, so I was told, in the most simple manner, with a decisiveness which did not admit of doubts or difficulties.

I have always kept this conversation in mind; it gave me the impression, which nothing has changed, that there was a very positive and practical side to the character of Renan, though, if you judge him only by his books, he appears merely an idealist. He had his way to make in the world, and he made it. I often saw him afterwards, when he became a candidate for the Academy of Inscriptions, at the house of M. Mohl, who was one of the most important members of this Academy. Renan became a member of it himself, he became a member of the French Academy; he did not become a Deputy or a Senator, and, whatever he may have said, his disappointment on this score was very great. Renan insists too much in many parts of his writings on his utter want of that practical spirit which is a necessity in politics; there is practicality enough in the electoral circular which he addressed in May, 1869, to the electors of the second district of Seine-et-Marne. It was the year before the war; the Empire seemed strong and secure. Renan said to the electors: "No revolution! I belong to no party; my conviction is that the best revolution would be mischievous, would impede material progress. . . . I am persuaded that the regular development of the present order of things will bring France into a situation in which the country will carry out its own will through the hands of its Government, and will realize without shocks the profoundest reforms." This language does not differ from the language of all the candidates of the time, official or non-official.

Renan was not elected; he received fewer votes than two other candidates. He was surprised. He had so well fulfilled every part of his programme that he found it difficult to explain to himself why the field of politics remained shut to him. He did explain it, however, and attributed his defeat to very remote causes. In his description of Tréguier, his native place, he speaks with inimitable grace of the cathedral, of the great monastic buildings surrounding it, of the legends of the saints of Brittany.

"It was," he says, "in this place that my childhood was spent and that I contracted an indestructible tendency. This cathedral, a masterpiece of lightness, a mad attempt at the realization of an impossible ideal, distorted me first. The long hours which I spent in it have been the cause of my utter practical incapacity. This architectural paradox has made of me a chimerical man, a disciple of St. Iltud, of St. Cadoc, in a century in which the teaching of these saints can have no application."

There is a page in his 'Souvenirs d'Enfance,' the book which will probably be the longest read, where Renan, analyzing himself (and nobody was ever more given to self-inspection), finds in his character and his aspirations two different tendencies, derived from hereditary causes. On his father's side he was a complete and true Breton; on his mother's side he was a Gascon. The Gascony explains many traits, many things, which the Brittany could not explain nor approve. Renan's case is, in some senses, unique. He began life in a clerical atmosphere, being destined for the Church. He was already on the steps of the altar; he was for many years in the state of mind and of heart of a true believer. This places him quite apart from so many other writers who have attacked or merely analyzed the Christian dogma. The scientific and critical spirit met in him the Catholic spirit; his infidelity, mingling with the remains of the lost faith, defended this faith against sarcasm, contempt, or hatred; the memories of his youth remained sacred to him, and enveloped themselves in poetic associations; in short, his soul became a sort of laboratory where conflicting elements constantly met—the theatre of unknown combinations of sentiment.

I witnessed the funeral of Renan from the window of a restaurant in the Place de la Madeleine. Many people were waiting on the flight of steps of the church and on the Boulevard. When the procession approached, a waiter kindly informed me of it, as well as the other people who were taking their breakfast. Everything was done with the precision which characterizes all French ceremonies. First came two lines of policemen to clear the way; then came dragoons, with their lances and their gay little flags, red and white, moved

by the wind; heavy gendarmes, on their strong horses, with shining helmets; an old general, on a fine Arab horse, looking very careworn and disconsolate; battalions of infantry, moving with unusual slowness behind their military band, which played a funeral march. Then came the crowns of flowers —immense crowns, carried each by two or four men; the crown of the *Intransigeant*, Rochefort's paper, followed by all the venders of the *Intransigeant* in their uniform; the crown of the Freemasons, the Great Orient of France; of the *Journal des Débats*, of the *Temps*, of I don't know how many societies and associations, each crown followed by a troop of people who seemed delighted at producing an effect on the bystanders. Now comes the funeral hearse, an immense catafalque, the same which was used for M. Thiers, drawn by black horses, each led by the hand. Under the immense structure, all black and white, I distinguish the green uniform of the Academician spread over the coffin; four Academicians, in that same green uniform, march by the car which carries their illustrious colleague. Now there is a movement in the crowd; there comes a fine coupé, with two beautiful horses, the coupé of the President of the Republic. The crowd admires the style of the Presidential vehicle. Then comes a crowd, somewhat disorderly, of Ministers, Senators, Deputies, Academicians, conversing with each other; among them are noticeable two or three generals in uniform, Gallifet, Saussier—"le reste ne vaut pas l'honneur d'être nommé." Great black carriages with black horses succeed; then come more soldiers, more infantry, more cavalry, more gay lances, and finally stern and gloomy batteries of artillery, with their shining silent guns, all ready for a fight.

This great pageant, I must confess, inspired me with nothing but sad feelings. This pomp of war, this theatrical show, seemed to me in bad taste. The crowd was indifferent—it knew but little of Renan. I could not remain indifferent—I had known him, and should have preferred that his funeral should not be the occasion for a sort of demonstration. I remembered that during the Second Empire, when Béranger died, who had never been a friend of the Second Empire, the imperial police surrounded his coffin and took him to his grave; afflicted, but inflexible, the police never allowed the people to break through its ranks. There was in the character of Renan, in his habits, in his domestic life, a simplicity which was not in harmony with the outpourings of official eloquence, with the pomp of state ceremonies. Nobody would have felt more keenly than he the incongruity of the military splendor of such a funeral; he would have delighted in analyzing the sentiment of some of these peasants' sons, dressed as soldiers, who followed to the grave a man who was a pure civilian, and of whom probably they had never heard before. If, hidden behind one of the columns of the Madeleine, he could, like Charles V. in his convent, have witnessed the rehearsal of his own funeral, what ironical remarks could he not have made!

M. Mohl, of whom I have spoken, and who was one of the first patrons of M. Renan, had a friend called Fauriel, the author of the 'Histoire de la Gaule Méridionale' and of the 'Histoire de la Littérature Provençale,' two very distinguished works. When M. Fauriel died, he left no family, and his funeral was at the expense of the Institute. M. Mohl, as his intimate friend and a member of the Executive Committee of the Institute, had to see to the details of it. I remember his telling me how he negotiated with the agent of what we call the "Pompes funèbres." "The Institute wishes to give M. Fauriel a funeral suited to his importance and his character, without making an extravagant outlay." "Of course," said the agent, "you will have green Bengal lights burning in the church at the corners of the catafalque?" "Green lights!" said M. Mohl; "no, I think we will do without green lights." "But surely, you will have silver tears on the hangings?" "As for that, no; we will shed the tears ourselves."

Renan had the silver tears and the green lights, and God knows what; he had the spontaneous generation of I don't know how many speeches and newspaper articles; but it would have been more agreeable to his real friends and his real admirers if his end had had something of the poetical simplicity of his beginning.

ASSISI AND ST. FRANCIS.

ROME, October, 1892.

ST. FRANCIS of Assisi, the great unrivalled mediæval reviver of the power and vitality of the religion of Rome through the new addition to its appeals to the devotion of simple minds, in that great scheme of self-abasement and self-sacrifice which seems to have held such thrall over the Southern European races, and especially the Italian, has made his native Assisi a place of pilgrimage for six centuries. Reared on an eminence of the great central plain of Umbria, the city (chief among its buildings the great convent and double church which was the school of ascetic Christianity) is a landmark for many leagues around. Across the valley of the Tiber, which drains the underlying plain, rises on another hilltop Perugia, birthplace also of a form of worship which, like the Franciscan, still keeps, though a fading reflection, the fascination of a past phase of true human life and aspiration. The Umbrian art and the Umbrian religion are things of the past, but live in the reverence of the pilgrims who throng to both cities.

Looking from Perugia towards Assisi, we recognize the landscape so often painted by Perugino, Pinturicchio, and Raphael—the river winding with serpentine grace at first through green and brown hills, then away through a series of mountains growing blue in fainter shades and melting into a silvery sky as they succeed each other in the distance. Those old Umbrian masters never wearied of repeating this landscape with the changes their foreground and figures demanded; and they were right, for no country is more decorative in form and color than this. Dante, also, mentions Perugia, with the mountains seen in the distance, and Assisi. In his day the fame of St. Francis was at its zenith; the monument in honor of this follower of poverty, the marvellous church, had already been completed, and the memory of the saint was cherished by a multitude of followers. To this day the principal buildings which stud the hillside and the vast plain, and even Perugia, are convents, monasteries, and churches in honor of St. Francis and of Santa Chiara. One is awakened by the sound of convent bells for matins, and for this reason the traveller who sleeps lightly need never miss the opportunity of seeing the sun rise in all its glory above the ultramarine blue hills (Subasio, in a cleft of which lies Assisi, being the principal) that form a cup round the mist-covered plain. It is in this vaporous light and amid the exquisite golden haze of sunset, like an atmosphere of miracles, that the naïve stories told in the "Fioretti" of St. Francis by his followers seem credible.

We happened to be at Assisi while they were hanging small crystal prisms around the lights in the lower church, and were told that these preparations were being made for the Festival of St. Francis on the 4th of September. The monk who showed us about said there would be splendid music; we inquired if they would chant a mass of any of the old composers, but he answered with dignity "that they used old music on ordinary occasions, but a maestro of their own had written something new in honor of the great day." He added that this festival attracted all the peasants from the neighboring villages and towns, bringing together a great concourse of people. We were curious to see if religious feeling still remained among these Umbrian peasants, whose manners are so gentle and courteous, so we determined not to miss the festival; and in order to see all there was of fasting and feasting, we arrived in Assisi the afternoon of the 3d, the vigil of the feast.

We were too early for vespers, so we walked up to the higher church, which is still in the hands of workmen restoring the handsome sixteenth-century choir which had been removed by the orders of the Government, and which is now being put back into its former place, since public opinion so much blamed its removal. We wandered through this splendid example of polychromatic architecture, admiring the tender pathos in Giotto's rendering of the "Fioretti," and the grandeur of the conception of Cimabue's angels in the roof of the nave. We sat on the red papal throne of Assisi marble, in order to judge better of the effect of the church from this central position; then we descended to the sacristy, where the splendid vestments were being prepared. The monks were not too busy to converse with us and give us all the information we desired. Above the door hangs a Byzantine-looking picture of St. Francis by Giunta Pisano, said to be the most authentic of his portraits, having been painted only two years after his death, in 1230. The abbot allowed us to examine the rich embroideries of the chalice cloths he was choosing from, and, on being questioned about the music, answered with a sigh: "We cannot produce anything really fine nowadays, and we are too poor to give any great work of our old composers. We are but fourteen in number here. The music they write now appeals only to the senses." He shrugged his shoulders with a pathetic gesture, and continued to deplore the want of appreciation for artistic things and the corruption of taste brought in by the new régime.

We next visited the convent, which has been turned into a Government school for the sons of municipal teachers. The dormitories looked airy and scrupulously clean. There is a splendid terrace on arches where the monks used to walk, and from which there is an extensive view of the plain cut up by brown serpentine lines, the changing bed of the Tescio, a river which flows into the Tiber at Bastia when the rains permit. This Umbrian plain, bordered with mountain-tops peering one above the other, has an ineffable melancholy, a sentiment of past activity and present inertia, although it is so highly cultivated and produces corn, wine, and olives.

It was now four o'clock, time for vespers. The acolytes were lighting the tapers as we walked into the solemn gloom of the lower church. The effect of so many thousands of lights in groups round the high altar is impressive, and the frescoes were much easier to

see than by daylight. The tawdry little chandeliers looked well once lighted up. The choir was reserved for the officiating priests and the canons. The archbishop's throne, which remained vacant, was covered with cloth of gold; the monsignori and abbots sat on seats covered with tapestry; the walls below the frescoes were hung with red cloth bordered with gold braid.

The chanting began to a full accompaniment of organ and stringed instruments (the organ, by the way, was always much too loud). The bishop and accompanying prelates, after walking in procession to their places, and the six officiating priests in vestments of gold cloth, knelt before the altar. The service being fully choral, the perfect immobility of the bishop was the chief characteristic in his part of the ceremony after the changing of his mitre, which is accomplished with great form. The music was disappointingly melodramatic; had one closed one's eyes to the surroundings, one might have supposed himself at the opera, the changes and variety of movement were so similar; there seemed to be a military march, a love duet, a ballet, and the never-failing solos, for soprano, contralto, tenor, and bass. It was all commonplace and poor, having no connection either with the church or with the saint we were there to honor. The church was by no means crowded; a row of nuns sat within the priests' enclosure, and there were children and country people in the body of the church.

As we walked to our inn, the streets leading to the upper town seemed as empty as usual. Some tame rabbits came down a side lane into the paved street to nibble the cabbage stalks lying in the gutter. The children we met begged persistently, as is their wont, although many of them looked well-to-do. The women were leaning out of windows, and chatting to those drawing water at the fountains; some were watering their red carnations in the iron brackets at the side of their window. We had been wondering at the fondness for scarlet carnations among the poor of Italy, but we were told they bring good luck, which explains why they are so carefully tended. They are to be seen in almost every window, in pots or old petroleum tins. The upper town, however, was more full of movement; booths lighted with strings of colored paper lamps were being set up, with every kind of cheap toy, and already the sound of the penny trumpet was painfully prevalent. At the theatre they were giving "Esmeralda." The prima donna was staying at our hotel—a handsome young woman with a powerful form, column-like throat, and large rolling eyes, which she had strongly emphasized with a bold line of black. She dined with her elbows on the table, discoursing meanwhile in a kindly vein with the head-waiter. We remained proof against her attractions, and resisted the temptation of the theatre in order to be up early the next morning.

The church bells broke the silence of the night at three and continued to peal forth at intervals till dawn. We had promised ourselves a walk to the "Carcere" in the early morning, the sanctuary to which St. Francis used to retire to pray, and where he is said to have wrestled with the devil. The road leading to this mountain gorge is up-hill all the way, through olive orchards whose pale, bluish foliage is here and there relieved by dark green cypresses; and as one climbs he sees the stone walls of Assisi and the castle overcapping the town. The good monks who live at the sanctuary were, like ourselves, going to attend high mass at St. Francis's Church below at ten, so we had no time to tarry. We looked into the Duomo (early twelfth century), dedicated to St. Rufinus, as we passed, to see the font at which St. Francis was baptized. It is a plain stone basin, entirely railed in with an iron grating to protect it. The streets were showing signs of life by this time; people were hurrying to the great church, dressed in their best garments; pigs roasted whole, stuffed with raisins and herbs, were being carried on long poles to conspicuous corners of the town, where they were to be cut up and sold by the pound. Along the arches leading to the church the omnibuses were drawn up after discharging a horde of visitors from neighboring towns. We were everywhere assailed by the inevitable beggars, who make capital by displaying their deformities at every festa. "For the love of the blessed St. Francis, give me a soldo, and I will pray daily for you." The venders of melon seeds, rosaries, and little medals were also clamorous. We found the church already crowded with people, for the poorer portion of the community, wishing to see and to hear all, had climbed up the little flights of stairs to the galleries and had gathered as near to the high altar as the railing permitted. There were children's schools brought from far and near. The peasant women wore yellow or orange handkerchiefs for the most part. We saw many extremely handsome faces with black eyes; one or two among them were of a singularly beautiful Etruscan type, like figures from an ancient vase.

The innumerable tapers being lighted, the chanting began, and the bishop, in most splendid vestments, attended by his cortège of monsignori and priests, went in procession round the church before officiating at the high altar, where the usual ceremonies of high mass were gone through, with all the pomp and form which are so imposing. As a spectacle this mass was singularly telling. The bright cold daylight, coming through the jewel-colored glass of the stained windows, blended with the warm yellow light of thousands of small wax tapers, and the clouds of incense produced a haze above the living figures in the comparative shadow below, while it lighted up the frescoes on the vault and showed them brighter and clearer than they are ever seen by simple daylight. This effect was concentrated round the high altar, where the most tapers were, while around through the chapels in the aisles a crowd of people was circulating—people come to see the show, greeting their acquaintances, whispering, staring right and left in search of friends, sometimes repeating a prayer at a side altar, but paying but little attention to the mass. The music was of the same popular, melodramatic quality as that of the night before, reminding one of the old Italian operas which since Wagner's time have fallen into discredit. Only at Assisi could this kind of music be produced as novel or composed for any special occasion.

A double flight of steps leads to a crypt beneath the lower church, in which the body of the saint was found early in this century. A priest was holding a silent mass in the underground chapel, in which only snatches of the music could be heard. Here we found people prostrate in fervent prayer, absolutely unconscious of any lookers-on. These few alone seemed to show any religious fervor.

At mid-day the mass was over, so we gladly repaired to our inn. We were amused at the incongruous mixture of guests round the same table—actresses, priests, artists, distinguished foreigners, and a sprinkling of titled folk from their country-seats, all good-humoredly eating and drinking together and joining in general conversation; only the priest, seated by the fascinating actress, persisted in keeping his eyes on his breviary when not occupied in eating.

The fair on the piazza was now at its height. The lamp-posts were decorated with little tricolor flags, and the booths extended down one street, though the objects sold were very similar and extremely limited as to choice. Penny toys, sweets, bad English cutlery made expressly for the foreign market, Venetian glass beads, chaplets, bright-colored handkerchiefs, felt hats, with cheap stuffs from Switzerland and tawdry silver ornaments, formed the staple of the show, from which the visitors chose remembrances to take away and exchanged presents with their friends.

At St. Francis's Church there was another full service for vespers, and between eight and nine the little paper lamps were lighted all over the town for the illumination; a few fireworks were also sent up from the piazza; but after nine all was quiet at Assisi, and the festa was considered a success. S. S.

Correspondence.

STATE BANK CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With all my respect for M. D. Harter as a man of sound financial views, I cannot assent to his position that the prohibitory tax on State issues of paper money can be repealed without bringing in many of the evils of the wild-cat currency before the war. Mr. Harter seems to think that if there is a large amount of good paper money in circulation, such as greenbacks, national bank-notes, and other notes fully secured and readily convertible, no other and weaker currency could be floated alongside of it. This is an erroneous view, and just the opposite of what is known as Gresham's law. The experience of our own country tells a different story. The paper money of New York and New England was always at par, yet many people in the South and West had to take in payment, and took in payment every day, notes depreciated from one to five per cent.

I am fully aware that banks will not receive any currency that is not legal tender and is less valuable than the best, unless at a discount; I am also aware that wholesale dealers, railroad officials, and tax-receivers will refuse any currency which the banks in their neighborhood do not receive on deposit at par; but it does not follow hence that the inferior currency cannot be floated. It will be taken—whether gladly or reluctantly, is indifferent for my purpose—by workingmen and workingwomen, when it is offered to them for their wages; the grocer and the saloon-keeper will accept it from them, reimbursing themselves fully for their loss by scant measure or a lower grade of goods. In fact, the men and women who toil and who can least afford to lose, will be the heaviest, probably the only losers, and the so-called bankers who issue the stuff the only gainers.

I can give you a little story by way of illustration. In the winter of 1879-80, when silver had become sufficiently depreciated to make the Mexican dollar worth about 88 cents in American gold, and thus considerably less than the "dollar of the daddies" to which people were accustomed, a couple of bankers in a

Kentucky town went into the speculation of importing a large lot of Mexican dollars, which they sold at a profit, but still at a discount, to a number of heavy employers of labor, who paid them out in wages at par. The workingmen paid these dollars out for a week or less without loss, the retailers and saloonmen being glad to get the shining disks, which were slightly heavier than the legal-tender dollars. But when these retailers and saloon men came to deposit the Mexicanos in bank, even in a bank the president of which had imported the deceitful stuff himself, they were thrown out, and, as the news gradually spread over town, these dollars became uncurrent, and every poor workman on whom they were palmed off lost ten or twelve cents on every dollar that he still held.

The same result will always follow from a mixed currency: business men will protect themselves, the toilers will be fleeced. I agree with Mr. Harter and Mr. Sherman that the national-bank currency must soon come to an end, as the people are unwilling to keep a national debt outstanding for the purpose of making the bonds a basis of good paper money; but it does not follow that State paper issues should again be allowed, unless it can be done under such a national guarantee as will prevent the floating of any currency which is liable to even the slightest discount.

Respectfully, LEWIS N. DEMBITZ.

LOUISVILLE, KY., October 20, 1892.

THE TARIFF ON TOBACCO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A bright and well-informed correspondent of the *Tobacco Leaf* (issue of October 19, p. 9), writes from Cleveland, O.:

"Tariff-prophet McKinley has been in receipt of many letters addressed to him by tobacco men in regard to the tobacco schedule. It is hinted that the Governor has promised, black on white, that the grievance would be looked into and remedied, provided his petitioners would be instrumental in helping the Republican cause of the nation in November. McKinley has been credited with veracity and honesty, and in the foregoing furnishes us with a direct means to find him out."

The way in which the Ohio tobacco-growers are to test McKinley's "veracity and honesty" is interesting. Bribery and corruption seem to taint every phase of protective-tariff politics.

Curiously, in the same paper is given an interview with one of the largest tobacco-dealers in New York, pointing out how the enormous duty of $2.00 per pound on imported wrappers has hurt American growers, owing to a striking peculiarity of the trade: "Cigars must be sold at the same price and have the same external appearance—that is, have *Sumatrá* wrappers." Hence, the cigar-maker must save on his filler—that is, buy the domestic article cheaper. T. B. B.

NEWBURGH, N. Y., October 21, 1892.

UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTION IN JOURNALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have only just now seen the thoughtful article devoted, in the *Nation* for October 6, to the consideration of what is proposed in the way of educational undertaking in the University of Chicago. I beg, on my own part, as member of the faculty of instruction, to thank you for the friendly freedom of your critical suggestions, both those that approve and those that doubt or even censure.

As to the one point of what is said about the course offered in "journalism," let me explain that no one feels more strongly than does the instructor immediately concerned, that such a course, considered as supposed to be adequate, would well deserve to be pronounced "delusive." But assuredly one might fairly hope to make in a good degree profitable instruction that should go no farther than, for instance, to put into just and effective comparison the very different ideals and standards of journalism represented respectively by two such dailies as the *World*, on the one hand, and the New York *Times* on the other; and, again, to put into like comparison the different types of journalism prevailing in the United States, on the one hand, and in Great Britain on the other. If the influence of the instructor should be decisively given in favor of what the *Nation* itself, with all other competent judges, would say was the better standard and ideal, would not something substantial have been gained? And if students should, besides, have practice in writing editorial articles and paragraphs on current topics, perhaps also in "reporting," under criticism carefully directed to make the product good in substance, in spirit, and in form, might not even a few weeks of such discipline be at least something better than nothing at all? In the end, there might be created a demand, which would be responded to here, for university education in journalism more like what the *Nation*, with the writer hereof, would regard as satisfactory. WILLIAM C. WILKINSON.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, October 14, 1892.

THE SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot see that the point raised by your correspondent "C." in the *Nation* of October 20 affects my statement, in *Scribner's Magazine*, as to the influence of the weather on July 4, 1776. The myth that the great heat forced the members to agree to the *adoption* of the Declaration, which I supposed I had ended, can hardly be revivified by claiming that the *signing* did not take place on July 4, but on August 2. The *adoption* was disputed, and so the weather might have formed an element in affecting the disputing members. The signing was never disputed, and indeed was mandatory. The heat of August 2, therefore, could not affect the *Declaration* of Independence, for it was already an accomplished fact.

As to the question whether the Declaration was not signed on July 4, we are hardly in a position to say positively, the most recent evidence tending to prove that there was a formal signing of a copy on that day. Certainly, if it was not signed on that day, it is to be questioned if there ever was such a formal signing. It is true that the "engrossed copy," according to the Journal of Congress, was signed on August 2, but the Journal is untrustworthy, and would have been apparently more accurate if it had stated that it was ordered signed. The truth is, that less than half of the fifty-six men whose names are attached to it were in Congress on that day, most of them, in fact, being in their own colonies. To give the proof of this in full would be too long, but a sample delegation—the Virginian—will illustrate it sufficiently. As inscribed on the engrossed copy, they stand thus: Wythe, R. H. Lee, Jefferson, Harrison, Nelson, F. L. Lee, Braxton. Of these, only Harrison was in Philadelphia on August 2, Jefferson being absent from the city for two days. Thus, as a curious bit of contradiction, the only Virginian delegate who could have signed the Declaration on August 2 was Harrison, who had opposed its adoption. On August 20 R. H. Lee arrived from Virginia, and was followed on September 3 by Nelson, and by F. L. Lee on September 7, while Wythe did not attend till well into the next year. The most curious case is Braxton's, who had left Philadelphia on July 22, 1776, and, not being reëlected, never returned to the Congress as a delegate. Yet he signed the Declaration, and was, so far as I know, the only man not a member of Congress who did so. It must, of course, have been done on some subsequent visit to Philadelphia. In short, the signing of the engrossed copy of the Declaration must have been a desultory affair, done by each member at his convenience, and in one case not inscribed till 1781.

Thus "C." will find that historic statements are ever subject to revision, as the investigation of history grows broader and deeper; and that even incidents hitherto not "disputed," and of which there can be "no doubt," may prove as mythical as the temperature of our nation's birthday.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

CENTURY CLUB, NEW YORK.

Notes.

A NEW work on the 'Local Indian Names of New York,' with names from other States, by the Rev. W. M. Beauchamp, will shortly follow his 'Iroquois Trail.' It will be published at Fayetteville, N. Y., by Howard C. Beauchamp.

The Cambridge (Eng.) University Press will issue during the present season, among other works, 'The Growth of British Policy,' by Prof. J. R. Seeley; 'The Science of International Law,' by Thomas Alfred Walker; 'Ancient Ships,' by Cecil Torr; 'The New History,' a circumstantial account of the Bábi movement in Persia, from its first beginnings to the death of its founder (A. D. 1844-1850), by Edward G. Browne; the fifth volume of the 'Collected Mathematical Papers of Arthur Cayley,' to be completed in ten volumes; and the second volume of the late I. Todhunter's 'History of the Theory of Elasticity and of the Strength of Materials,' edited and completed by Prof. Karl Pearson.

Longmans, Green & Co.'s fall publications will include 'Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History,' by Sir Henry Parkes, Prime Minister of New South Wales 1872-5, 1877, 1878-9; 'Twenty-five Years of St. Andrews,' being the second volume of reminiscences by Dr. Boyd (the "Country Parson"); 'A Selection from the Letters of Geraldine Jewsbury to Jane Welsh Carlyle,' edited by Mrs. Alexander Ireland; 'The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland,' an account of excavations and explorations 1891-2, by J. Theodore Bent; 'St. Peter and the First Years of Christianity,' from the French of the Abbé Constant Fouard, by G. F. X. Griffith; 'Letters to Young Shooters,' by Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey; 'The Formation of the Union, 1750-1829,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart; and 'Longmans' Object Lessons,' by David Salmon.

The second part of the second volume of the late Prof. Bernhard Ten Brink's 'Geschichte der Englischen Literatur' (Strassburg: Trübner) has just appeared, and comes down to the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The work will be completed in two additional volumes by the author's successor at the University of Strassburg, Prof. A. Brandl, who will use Ten

Brink's posthumous papers and treat the subject in the same general spirit.

Dr. Wilhelm Busch, a pupil of Maurenbrecher and professor in Leipzig, has published the first volume of 'England under the Tudors' (Stuttgart: Cotta), which is devoted to the reign of Henry VII., and traces the gradual growth of absolutism, culminating in Cardinal Wolsey's arbitrary rule under Henry VIII. The work is to be completed in six volumes and to conclude with the death of Elizabeth.

All published accounts of the character and contents of Ibsen's forthcoming drama are mere conjectures. The poet is exceedingly reserved in ordinary social intercourse, and almost morbidly reticent and absolutely interviewer-proof as regards his literary plans. The betrothal of his son, Dr. Sigurd Ibsen, to Miss Bergliot Björnson is an event invested with a certain literary interest on account of the well-known antagonism existing between the fathers of the youthful pair in their views of poetry and politics. The antagonism, however, is a disagreement in opinion, and has never degenerated into personal animosity. Björnson has a strong liking for young Ibsen, who sympathizes with his prospective father-in-law's political aims, while Ibsen shows a marked fondness for his son's attractive and highly intelligent bride.

The *Bookman* states that one of the illustrations in the new edition of Green's 'Shorter History of England' will be a portrait of Oliver Cromwell's mother, photographed from a picture in the possession of a direct descendant which was discovered by the historian himself in a country house. This October number of the *Bookman*, by the way, is itself noticeable for the portraits it gives—of Prof. Henry Drummond, of Emily Augusta Patmore, and of Mrs. W. K. Clifford. Mrs. Patmore's face would seem to have had a certain resemblance to George Eliot's, of which writer some unpublished letters are given in the same number. They belong to the period 1838-1850, and show a marked change in religious sentiment of Miss Evans, who begins with scruples against oratorio, and doubts if it be "consistent with millennial holiness for a human being to devote the time and energies that are barely sufficient for real exigencies to acquiring expertness in trills, cadences, etc." Her correspondent was a Miss Martha Jackson (now Mrs. Henry Barclay). The anonymous contributor to the *Bookman* of so many good papers about Carlyle now opens up several chapters on George Henry Lewes which promise to be not less piquant.

An important quarto volume, of 414 pages and 12 plates, by Capt. Charles Bendire, entitled 'Life Histories of North American Birds, with Special Reference to their Breeding Habits and Eggs,' is published by the Smithsonian Institution as Special Bulletin No. 1 of the United States National Museum. It deals with the gallinaceous birds (Grouse, Partridges, etc.), Tetraonidæ, Phasianidæ, and Cracidæ; the Pigeons or Doves, Columbidæ; and the birds of prey (Vultures, Falcons, Hawks, Eagles, and Owls), Cathartidæ, Falconidæ, Strigidæ, and Bubonidæ. The plates contain 185 beautifully colored figures of eggs, illustrating those of nearly two-thirds of the birds mentioned in the list. The title describes the contents of the book very well. Descriptions of nests, eggs, and habits and the geographical distribution are given, but detailed descriptions of the birds are not attempted. Only sufficient synonymy is introduced to fix the authorities directly responsible for the name adopted. From the nature of the case, the histories are the product of numerous detached observations, frequently by a number of different observers. The work is admirably done, and the author is to be congratulated upon having produced a standard work of so much excellence. In most cases of conflicting authorities his judgment is satisfactory; an occasional item still needs verification. Among the remarks on the burrowing owl (*Speotyto hypogœa*) the following occurs: "Frequently when within a foot or two of the nest proper, and before it was yet visible, the occupant made a rattling noise, produced by the rapid movement of its mandibles, which sounded very much like the warning of the rattlesnake when disturbed. This would easily impose on the average investigator, and, proceeding out of the burrow, somewhat muffled and subdued, is very similar indeed to the rattle of the latter." Others, who have kept the young owls in camp, are equally positive that the sound is a scream, and not a rattling of the beak.

The third edition of 'Berghaus' Physikalischer Atlas' (Gotha: Justus Perthes), of which the first sheets were printed in 1886, is just out. It comprises seventy-five maps in seven divisions, containing in all 514 graphical representations of the latest results of scientific research in geology, hydrography, meteorology, terrestrial magnetism, the distribution of plants and animals, and ethnology. The first edition of this work was prepared by Heinrich Berghaus and printed in 1836. The present one was edited by his nephew, Prof. Hermann Berghaus, who died December 3, 1890, and therefore did not live to see its completion. The price of this magnificent volume is eighty-two marks (820).

The extent and variety of the recent French contributions to geographical science are very well shown in the last Bulletin of the Société de Géographie. It opens with a brief description of the work of the recipients of the nine annual prizes awarded by the Society, among whom M. Élisée Reclus stands first with the "grande médaille d'or." This was given in consideration of the completion of his monumental work, the 'Nouvelle Géographie Universelle,' of which the publication began in 1875 and was continued in parts that appeared "with absolute punctuality during 900 weeks." Prince Albert of Monaco also received a gold medal for his researches during the past nineteen years into the direction and strength of the ocean currents, and the depth and temperature of the sea, as well as into the marine fauna in general. The result of these investigations since 1885 is now in course of publication. The other medallists were men who had made extensive explorations, often years in duration, in Indo-China, Persia, Guiana, Equatorial Africa, and Egypt. The Society very appropriately awarded a special gold medal to M. Ch. Maunoir, to commemorate the completion of his twenty-fifth year's service as its Secretary. It was also announced that his annual reviews of the progress of geography, accompanied by maps and an index, would be republished, forming a work in three large volumes. Among the papers in the Bulletin is one upon the temperature of the Arctic regions, illustrated by a map with the isothermal lines for July, 1882, and January, 1883, and an interesting account of a recent exploration of the Ivory Coast. In the latter the writer dwells strongly upon the evil effects upon the natives of alcoholic liquors sold them by the English merchants who have the monopoly of the trade upon this coast.

The poverty and destitution prevalent among the Europeans and Eurasians of Calcutta has at length become the subject of a Government investigation. From the minute of Sir Charles Elliot, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, it appears that nearly one-sixth of the Europeans and one-fourth of the Eurasians are dependent upon charity, and their number is increasing with each generation. This condition, which, he says, can scarcely be paralleled in any other community in the world, is attributed, apart from climatic causes, to the competition of Bengalis for the subordinate posts in the public service and in the mercantile offices, once filled wholly by the Indo-European community, to the maladministration of charitable relief, and to early and improvident marriages. What renders the problem more difficult to solve is that, as a class, a large proportion prefer to depend on charity rather than on their own exertions; the spirit of self-help is rapidly dying out. The Government is able to suggest no real remedy for this pathetic and dangerous state of things. It has apparently exhausted every effort to secure education and employment for the children of European parents without checking the evil. In the Sibpur Engineering College, for example, where, at a cost of $18 a year, there is given "a training fitting an apprentice to become a foreman mechanic," there are a large number of vacancies in what may be termed the Government scholarships. The fall in the value of the rupee, too, tends to intensify the evil, since many parents are now unable to send their children to England to be educated; and apparently to bring them up in India is practically to condemn them to "the submerged Fifth."

The whole of No. 63 of Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute (Annapolis, Md.) is given up to six illustrated lectures on "First Aid to the Wounded and Transportation of the Wounded," by Surgeon H. G. Beyer. It forms a useful physiological summary even for the general reader.

The October Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is distinguished by several interesting facsimiles of Revolutionary broadsides of the years 1773-1775, and by a list of the Columbiana in the Library, where a rare Columbian exhibition is in progress.

Prof. E. Lattes, the well-known archæologist of Milan, reviews in the *Perseveranza* of October 5 Prof. J. Krall's memoir on the inscribed Etruscan mummy-bands in the Agram National Museum, just published with illustrations by the Vienna Academy of Sciences. Prof. Lattes will make a report on the same subject before the Royal Lombard Institute on November 10. He considers the inscriptions to be especially concerned with funeral rites, and to be comparable to the *acta* of the ancient priestly body of Fratres Arvales. He enumerates the probable gains to the scanty Etrurian vocabulary, particularly in the numerals. He concludes that while in some aspects the language is clearly next of kin to that of Latium, and in others hardly recalls any known tongue the world over, the problem is no greater or more hopeless than would arise in the study of any of the Italian dialects under like circumstances. It seems reasonable to expect that Egypt will still further enlarge our material.

In our recent article on "English at Harvard, and Elsewhere," we said, referring to the recent report of the Committee to visit the department of Composition and Rhetoric of Harvard College, that the report, which was calculated "to raise a blush on the cheek of every principal who reads it," "ought to make its way to every Normal School, as well as to the academies." The Committee by whom the report was prepared now request us to say

that copies of it can be obtained on application, by postal card, or otherwise, to Allen Danforth, at the office of the University, No. 50 State Street, Boston.

—Prof. Luigi Cossa contributes to the May number of the *Giornale degli Economisti* a discriminating review of the history of Political Economy in the United States. His classification and some of his comments possess especial interest as coming from a friendly as well as learned critic, who has given more attention to the work of Americans than any other European scholar. He remarks that the rapid evolution in the United States of a wonderfully varied economic life might have been expected to promote similar progress in economic research. Excellent monographs, historical and critical, and very instructive to the European student, have been produced, yet for various reasons the progress of the science has not kept pace with the increase of wealth. The special conditions prevailing in the United States seemed to impair the universal validity of the economic laws proclaimed by the classical school. Over-population, the law of diminishing returns, the theory of rent, and pauperism, the majority did not believe in; others thought them possible but of no practical importance. On the other hand, the questions of slavery, banking, currency, and taxation produced an abundance of writing which was of little scientific value, because economic reasons were steadily subordinated to the aims of political parties. Yet some statesmen, like Hamilton and Sherman, are to be excepted; and to Government officials, like Gallatin and Wells, we are indebted for important works on special questions.

—American economists are roughly classified into four schools. Of the National school, Franklin and Hamilton are the leading names; of the lesser writers, Cossa notes that Colwell's 'Ways and Means of Payment' is marked by subtle and accurate analysis. The second school are the Optimists, who took the attitude of opposition or incredulity towards the doctrines of the Classical school. They have been divided on the question of free or restricted trade. Such of them as have favored restriction are also known as the Pennsylvania school. Carey, their leader, was a writer with convictions, ingenious and in part original, but ignorant of scientific methods. His 'Unity of Law' abounds in errors in physics. Of the Optimists who have supported free trade, Perry, who combines the doctrines of Bastiat and Macleod, is conspicuous. The third, or Classical school, became prominent about the middle of the century, and particularly after the war had disposed of some of the older questions. Walker, Dunbar, and Sumner are its best known representatives. Henry George is considered by himself. 'Progress and Poverty' is full of strange contradictions, errors of fact, and fallacious reasoning, which reveal on every page the lack of scientific training. The brilliant success of the book, in spite of these blemishes, is explained by its sincerity, vivid descriptions, and its lively and picturesque style. The last ten years have seen a marked increase in the amount and quality of work in economics, and the rise of a body of able writers who in intellectual grasp, learning, and industry rival the best European scientists. So many of the younger men have been trained in Germany that a German-American school may be recognized. The division of this school into two distinct sections is noticed. One party, led by Ely, relies upon induction and historical and statistical research, and discards the study of pure theory as antiquated. The other party is devoting itself with more originality to the pure science. Patten is the most original of this group, but his defence of protectionism is specious. The effect of the polemical writing of the German school and the criticism it has received from older and more independent writers who follow the German methods less blindly, has been stimulating to all workers in the field.

—In a circular letter "agli amici della verità," Signor T. Cassini, an Italian Dante scholar well known for his full and accurate scholarship, informs us of the charges of plagiarism which Dr. Scartazzini brings against Cassini's commentary on the 'Divine Comedy' (Florence, 1888-91) with regard to his own larger and more widely known commentary (Leipzig, 1874-82). He accuses Cassini, first, of using his explanatory citations from the Bible, the early fathers, and especially Thomas Aquinas; second, of appropriating his references to parallel passages in classical authors; third, of reprinting in his notes the extracts which Scartazzini had already made from the older commentators; fourth, of following him closely in the history of certain doubtful points of interpretation; fifth, of following without acknowledgment the text used in his commentary. To these charges Cassini replies in a dignified and wholly satisfactory manner. First, the Biblical, patristic, and theological citations were either the common property of all commentators, from Della Lana down, or were obtained from the usual concordances, indexes, and other repertories. Second, the comparisons between Dante and the classical writers are likewise matters of common property, having long ago been definitely ascertained. Third and fourth, as Scartazzini's plan was to quote as fully as possible all the chief commentaries, Cassini could not help duplicating him in part; he had, however, always done this by direct reference to the originals, thereby avoiding numerous errors which occur in Scartazzini's quotations. Fifth, the text belonged to neither of them, but was that of Witte, which each had only slightly modified. In commenting a few months ago on Scartazzini's 'Dante Handbuch,' we noticed with pleasure his change of tone towards Witte, of whom he had formerly written with unnecessary severity, and hoped —in vain, it seems—the years were bringing him a calmer judgment. No one can see without regret such foolish jealousy against his brother scholars of one to whose persevering industry we owe perhaps the best existing commentary on the 'Divine Comedy.'

—No one of the many recent books about bookbinding is more sumptuous than the illustrated catalogue of the exhibition held at the Burlington Fine Arts Club in London a year ago. The catalogue has been revised since the exhibition closed, and it is now issued in a stately folio with two prefaces, one on stamped bindings by Mr. E. Gordon Duff, and one on gold-tooled bindings by Miss Prideaux, and with more than a hundred chromolithographic reproductions of book covers. Fine as have been certain of the bibliopegistic exhibitions held in New York, this one in London was richer, as it drew from more and from older collections, and it was well worthy of this noble memorial. The stamped bindings, by which the British set great store, are of interest historically rather than artistically. Indeed, a splendid collection like this emphasizes the decorative indigence of the English. The really artistic designs are seen at once to be due to some Italian or to some Frenchman. Most of the attempts at originality on which the British binders ventured now and again are pitiful. Exception must be made in behalf of the remarkable workman who is responsible for half-a-dozen of the bindings here reproduced; his name is unknown, but his handiwork is unmistakable; his chief peculiarity is the use of a curiously shaped tool not unlike the outline of a bent sausage. He is not equal to the good French binders of the period, but he shows a sense of design very rare in England at the time. Among the six-score bindings reproduced in this catalogue are half-a-dozen from the Grolier collection, and no year passes that one or more are not engraved for some sale catalogue. Has not the time come now for some book-lover to reprint M. Leroux de Lincy's list of the surviving books known to have been in Grolier's collection, making all possible additions, and appending to each number a note stating where and how often this binding has been reproduced? Probably three-quarters of the books known to have belonged to Grolier have had their covers reproduced, either in color or in black-and-white; and it will interest all who love the masterpieces of this art to have such a guide to the collection of one of the greatest of book-lovers. Here is a pleasant task for one of the members of the Grolier Club of this city, which has already done so much for the bookmaking arts.

PAYNE'S NEW WORLD.

History of the New World Called America. By Edward John Payne. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 546.

Mr. Payne, having sailed westward some years since, as supercargo on certain 'Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen,' returns, in these anniversary days, with nothing less in hand than a several-volumed history of America, the first instalment of which lies before us. No such ambitious work upon this country has appeared in Great Britain since Robertson. Indeed, Mr. Payne distinctly reminds us of his great predecessor in the conception of his task, though not in the execution. Dr. Robertson was familiar with the latest available research. Mr. Payne is oblivious of the recent literature of his subject. Apparently he ceased to read on the historical side many years ago, and has since devoted himself exclusively to elaborating his theory of aboriginal culture.

Mr. Payne is a mild disciple of Buckle. His faith in the logic of events is so strong as sometimes to give the impression that he could just as well have written much of the story in advance of its occurrence. Noting three physical pathways of westerly discovery, the arctic and equatorial currents and the trade winds, he assigns the Northmen to the first, the Portuguese to the second, and Columbus to the third. He develops the causes that led to these voyages from the earliest conception of the sphericity of the earth. Nowhere is there a better account of the geographical ideas of the Greeks and Romans, and their effect in moulding mediæval thought and action. Nowhere is the continuity of belief in these conceptions so well brought out. We begin to hope that the child of the next generation will not think that Columbus first discovered that the earth was round. Admirable, too, is the author's bearing toward those who in times past have in good faith held erroneous beliefs; there is a grateful lack of that asper-

ity of judgment which occasionally disfigures otherwise good work.

The purely historical narrative is not so satisfactory. We do not complain that all the writers consulted are not referred to—an author may properly decline to smother his text in notes; but we do complain that Mr. Payne, after adopting opinions which now pass for antiquated or rebutted, should so write as to seem ignorant of opposing evidence. He has either failed to read all that he should have read, or has ignored authorities whose dicta he does not accept. He has assumed ignorance if he has it not. That this is a charitable statement is easily shown. The account of the Norse discoveries is drawn chiefly from Rafn, whose identifications of localities are accepted with but one reference to another view, and that misleading. It is, of course, not true that the only alternative places Leif's houses in Greenland, and one must stare at the statement. Between Narragansett Bay, Charles River, Nova Scotia, etc., a man may have a preference, if he will not reject them all; but the evidence will not justify him in excluding all but one from mention. The "Old Mill" is said to be "not devoid of resemblance to buildings left by the Northmen in Greenland" (p. 77). True: both are built of stone. Has Mr. Payne not read Palfrey on the mill at Chesterton, to which that at Newport is still less devoid of resemblance?

Mr. Payne adopts Peschel's date of the birth of Columbus, 1456 (p. 108), and dwells on the youthfulness of the discoverer. He quotes, besides the older writers and Peschel, Muñoz, Navarrete, Humboldt, and D'Avezac. Not a word of recent Italian investigations, nor of Harrisse's skilful demonstration that Columbus attained his twenty-fifth year in 1471-1472. In 1501 Columbus wrote that he had been a seaman for forty years, and had gone to sea at a very early age. "Even taken literally," says Mr. Payne, "this tallies with the date 1456." It does indeed. 1501-40=1461; 1461-1456=5! In what capacity does Mr. Payne think that Columbus first went to sea? Since the declaration of October 30, 1470, was printed by Staglieno, it is self-stultification to accept a date later than 1451 without formally disproving the identity of our Columbus with the Christopher of this and the other notarial acts.

In regard to the character of Columbus, Mr. Payne ranks with the critics, not with the eulogists. He would sit on the right of Mr. Winsor, but on Mr. Fiske's left. Columbus, in his view, was an excellent seaman, and should have stuck to his trade. His estimate of Vespucius is unfavorable—more unfavorable, apparently, than he cares to say. While Varnhagen's argument in favor of Mariguana as the island of the landfall is accepted, his life-work on behalf of Vespucius is not recognized even in allusion. Upon the Cabots the author is not clear. Sebastian is disposed of as untrustworthy in a footnote of four lines, and the two voyages of John, who is somehow got to winter in Iceland, are apparently jumbled into one. No reference is made to Biddle, Deane, or Harrisse. It is characteristic that Mr. Payne, who is disdainful of American historians, accepts Sir John Mandeville as a veritable personage, and asserts the discovery of Punic coins in the Azores upon an unsupported statement of Chateaubriand.

Mr. Payne breathes freer air in the fields of physical geography and ethnology. He is good at generalities, and his second book is his best. While he derives the Indians from Asiatic Mongols, he believes their development upon this continent to have proceeded without foreign influence. After outlining the physical features of the country, he indicates the effect of these factors upon the fortunes of the various European settlements, and so comes finally to the main subject, the effect of the same factors upon the original inhabitants. He applies here a theory of human advancement which he thinks has not been previously enunciated: The grade of culture attained by a tribe is determined by the relation of that tribe to the food-supply. Subsistence is imperative upon all men, and the greatest change that ever occurred in human society was the substitution of an artificial for a natural basis of subsistence.

"Where such a change has not only been accomplished, but, owing to favorable circumstances, has completely wrought out the ultimate effects which it is capable of producing, the condition which results is called Civilization. Where an artificial basis of subsistence has been established, but the production of these ultimate effects is checked by unfavorable circumstances, the resulting condition, in default of a better name, is called Barbarism. Where society still rests on a natural basis of subsistence, the social state is called Savagery" (p. 276).

This thought is developed at length with much ingenuity; the results of the demand for food and for clothing are differentiated, the importance of a permanent food-surplus is indicated, and the contributions of the animal and vegetable kingdom to human advancement are analyzed. The flora and fauna of America are reviewed from this standpoint, and it is shown how, the pastoral stage being excluded, a large portion of the inhabitants were condemned to savagery or low forms of barbarism associated with migratory agriculture. Especially noteworthy are the remarks upon the effect of the want of milch animals in keeping down the increase of population, and consequently hindering rather than helping progress to stationary agriculture (p. 289). A few communities, however, upon the basis of artificial cultivation of maize, manioc, potato, and the llama, reached a culture just below civilization in Mexico, Central America, New Grenada, and Peru. Mr. Payne, by the way, promises to show in the next volume that the culture of Peru was lower than that of Mexico, and that Peruvian "state-socialism" is but a misnomer for despotic exaction of common labor. What else, we wonder, would state-socialism be anywhere?

The remainder of the volume is devoted to tracing out in these communities the ultimate effects of an agricultural basis of subsistence in social organization, art, and religion. There are some indications of apparent overlooking of recent research, and especially of recent American research, in this well-written and valuable chapter. Not to speak of the "Turanians," who are said to have once divided the Old World with the negro race, and who, with "Toltecs" and "Chichimecs," we had supposed to be as much out of place in modern ethnology as the first "r" in Tartar, we find Mr. Payne combating the theory of a mound-builder civilization by the aid of Schoolcraft and Waitz, apparently oblivious of all that has been done in the field by the American Bureau of Ethnology and the Peabody Museum at Cambridge, in the last few years, and ignorant of what has here been learned by the labors of Abbott, Wright, and others, about primitive man, and the glacial and interglacial periods—matters not without effect upon that theory of Asiatic origin of the Indians to which he adheres. Nor is this all. Had Mr. Payne been in the habit of reading American books, he might have seen Ward's 'Dynamic Sociology'; had he seen it, he would not, we are sure, have expressed himself quite so unreservedly upon the originality of his theory of civilization. For Mr. Ward, in his sections upon the origin of society, the production of food, the origin of acquisition, etc., has wrought in the same line as Mr. Payne, and established the same principles.

It is quite possible, however, for an historian to be unfamiliar with the literature in some portions of his subject, and yet have vision to see the true significance of facts, and skill to describe suggestively the operation of the great forces that weave the web of human fortunes. Mr. Payne's book will in parts repay perusal, but the reader must bear in mind that theory sometimes takes precedence of impartial research, and that what is magisterially asserted may none the less belong in the lumber-room of history.

Before closing we must quote a most remarkable instance of what has been called the depolarization of the Scriptures. Behold a new version of the story of the Fall! The italics are ours:

"The familiar Biblical narrative . . . furnishes us with a vivid picture of the fruit-eating savage. Naked, shameless, and fearful, feeble in force, and languid in desire, *largely dependent in the food-quest*, which principally occupied him, *on the industry of his female companion*, incapable of self-control, because moral restraint was necessarily unknown to a creature whose only guide in life was the food-taboo, though the penalty for the breach of this was death, he grovelled in superstition, heard the voice of the dreaded gods in every wind, and attributed to the sleek, well-nourished, and fatally armed serpent a higher degree of intelligence than he possessed himself" (p. 308).

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

The Glasgow Stage. By Walter Baynham. Glasgow: Robert Forrester.

Shadows of the Stage. By William Winter. Macmillan & Co.

How to Write a Good Play. By Frank Archer. London: Sampson, Low, Marston & Co.

Une Comédienne au XIXe Siècle: Virginie Déjazet. Étude biographique et critique d'après des documents inédits. Par Henry Lecomte. Paris: Léon Sapin; New York: F. W. Christern.

Victorien Sardou: Poet, Author, and Member of the French Academy. A Personal Study. By Blanche Roosevelt. Preface by W. Beatty-Kingston. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

FEW books are more useful in their way, humble as it is, than are the volumes of theatrical annals devoted to a single theatre—like the history of the Opéra-Comique, recently published in Paris—or to the theatres of a single town. The theatrical history of a city is as laborious a task and as thankless as a county history; and, when well done, it is as worthy of reward. Perhaps we may consider Dr. Doran's 'Their Majesties' Servants' as the earliest local theatrical history of this sort; but Mr. Clapp's 'Records of the Boston Stage' was almost contemporaneous with the annals of the London theatres. Then came Mr. Ireland's invaluable history of the New York stage, unfortunately not extended beyond 1860; and that was followed by Mr. Blake's volume on the Providence stage and by Mr. Phelps's on the Albany theatres. Only a year or two ago Mr. Dibdin gave us the annals of the Edinburgh theatre, and now Mr. Baynham has attempted a history of the drama in Glasgow. Mr. Baynham is an actor himself, and he

writes part of his story from his personal knowledge. His inexperience as an author is evident enough. In Glasgow, as in Edinburgh, the most popular plays for half a century were dramatizations of the Waverley novels; we have here a playbill of 1852 on which Mr. Mackay is announced to perform *Bailie Nicol Jarvie* for the 1,134th time. Mr. Baynham's book is neatly printed (in an edition limited to 400 copies), and has for its frontispiece a clear photogravure of the Dunlop Street Theatre.

Into a very pretty little volume Mr. William Winter has gathered a score or more of his minor theatrical articles, written from day to day as occasion served and as the passing show gave opportunity, and yet written always with abundant literary art and with the constant desire to pay due meed of praise to those features of the contemporary stage which were best worth commemoration. There are criticisms here of Mr. Booth, Mr. Irving, Signor Salvini, Miss Mary Anderson, Miss Ellen Terry, Miss Ada Rehan, Mr. James Lewis, Mrs. G. H. Gilbert, and Mr. Jefferson among the living, and of Charlotte Cushman, Lawrence Barrett, W. J. Florence, John McCullough, and Charles Fisher among the dead. These latter are supplementary, as it were, to the essays in the 'Brief Chronicles' which Mr. Winter prepared for the Dunlap Society two or three years ago, just as the former are, some of them at least, appendices to his longer studies of the theatrical career of Mr. Booth, Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Irving, and Miss Anderson. In spirit and in quality Mr. Winter's writing varies but little. Perhaps the best paper of all is the first, on "The Good Old Times," in which Mr. Winter, out of the fulness of knowledge—and no man has a more minute acquaintance with even the details of stage-history in Great Britain and in the United States—answers those who bemoan the decadence of the art of acting and ignorantly sacrifice the present to the past.

In the past four or five years there have appeared in Paris, in London, and in New York half-a-dozen manuals of play-making, each and every one pretending to set forth the whole art of the dramatist in ten easy lessons. Mr. Archer's book is the last of these, and its merits and its demerits vary but little from those of its predecessors. Its special characteristic is that its author is an actor, who looks at plays from the actor's point of view. It may be doubted whether a perusal of all these manuals would not confuse a novice more than it would help him; and yet the dramaturgic art is very difficult, and abounds in technicalities which the beginner must master somehow. Mr. Archer's analysis of Dr. Marston's "Favorite of Fortune," scene by scene and character by character, is likely to be of service to the beginner, as it reveals the method by which the skilful dramatist prepares his effects, leading up to them adroitly; and, as M. Dumas *fils* has put it boldly, "the art of the dramatist is an art of preparation."

Four years ago M. Henry Lecomte gave us a full and elaborate biography of Frédérick Lemaître; and he has now followed this with a biography of Lemaître's contemporary Déjazet, written according to the same method, but fortunately not extending to the same length. The longest chapter in the book contains the love-letters of Déjazet in 1850 and thereabouts to an actor whose Christian name was Charles, and whom the reader familiar with the Parisian stage will have little difficulty in identifying with the late Charles Fechter. Just how these letters came into the hands of the author is not explained, and the reason for their publication at the present time is equally inexplicable. What is most piquant in M. Lecomte's biography is the attack on M. Victorien Sardou, who owed his first chance as a dramatist to Déjazet, and who is here charged with the grossest ingratitude toward her.

But M. Sardou is used to attack, and he is generally able to give a good account of himself. It remains to be seen whether he can defend himself as successfully against the "personal study" which the lady who signs herself "Blanche Roosevelt" has recently put forth. A "study" this little book of hers is not, as any one could guess who had seen her earlier volumes on Longfellow and Doré and Verdi; but it is "personal" enough, and if M. Sardou has read it, and if he has approved of its publication, as we are told in the preface, then he must take the consequences. Even more absurd than "Blanche Roosevelt's" own writing is the preface in which a Mr. Beatty-Kingston declares that this volume, like the fair authoress's other works, is "suffused with the personality of its illustrious subject, while bearing the impress of its author's vigorous individuality." In this preface there is also a quotation from a preface of M. Arsène Houssaye's to one of the author's other books, describing her appearance at the age of seventeen, when she was "lovely with every loveliness." All that is of value in "Blanche Roosevelt's" book is the report of certain of M. Sardou's views in regard to the supreme importance of construction in the modern drama. The author not only is without a clear understanding of M. Sardou's real and obvious qualities as a dramatist, she is even at sea in regard to the facts of his career, blundering as to the dates of his plays—recording "Nos Intimes," for example, "as produced in 1869," and setting down on the list of his plays both "Séraphine" and "La Dévote," ignorant that these two titles refer to one and the same piece, originally called by the latter name and actually acted under the former. That "Les Ganaches" is here miscalled "Les Gauches" is probably only one of the misprints in which the book abounds—some of them very comic indeed. Perhaps most ridiculous is that on pp. 117-18, by which the sex is changed of those actors of the Comédie-Française who had parts in "Thermidor." But almost as humorous is the assertion that the Comte de Chambord threatened to come from Versailles "en Rio," which is probably a transmogrification of "*en roi*."

Select Cases on Evidence at the Common Law. By James Bradley Thayer, LL.D. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever.

THIS bulky volume, the preparation of which has been compelled, the compiler tells us, by the increasing demands of the classes in the Harvard Law School on the overtaxed library in Austin Hall, is the latest of a notable series of case-books which includes Langdell's 'Cases on Contracts,' Ames's 'Cases on Bills and Notes,' Keener's 'Cases on Quasi-Contracts,' and Gray's admirable and monumental collection of 'Cases on Property.' Prof. Thayer's book has departed a little from its models, of which the earliest contained nothing at all but cases, and in which nothing served to break the continuity but the heading of a new chapter; for each of his chapters and subdivisions of chapters is prefaced by liberal selections from standard text-writers, such as Maine and Stephen, and illumined by explanatory notes, which are, in many cases, selections from some of his own striking articles on the Law of Evidence that have appeared in the *Harvard Law Review*. This articulate development of the theme makes the book so suggestive that it is a pity the necessities of the School forbid that head-notes and an index-rerum should also make it easy of constant reference by the practitioner.

A selection from one of Prof. Thayer's articles, prefatory to the first chapter, surpasses, for reasonable and clear treatment of the Law of Evidence, almost anything ever written on it, and makes us impatient for the appearance of the author's long-expected treatise on that subject. "Evidence," Prof. Thayer thinks, "is any legal fact which is furnished to a legal tribunal—otherwise than by reasoning or reference to what is noticed without proof—as the basis of inference in ascertaining some other matter of fact." The Law of Evidence fixes the qualifications and privileges of witnesses, but chiefly determines what matters of logically relevant fact—for logic must first determine whether one fact be relevant to another or no, before the Law of Evidence is invoked at all—"shall *not* be received" in evidence. We have here a seemingly contradictory but historically correct definition; for, a Prof. Thayer explains, the law of evidence is a set of rules not as to the admission, but as to the exclusion, of things in themselves relevant, and various exceptions to those rules, which have been evolved from the separation in the English common law of the functions of a judge on the bench, who is to judge of law, from the jury, who are to judge of facts alone. From the jury's consideration must be removed all things, however logically relevant, whose importance may be distorted or whose distastefulness may prejudice their determination, although Scotch and French judges, and English chancery and ecclesiastical judges, sitting without a jury, would take such matters under consideration, as unlikely to affect unduly their disciplined minds. It is a question whether, if the jury were abolished, those rules of exclusion would relax as insensibly as they originally grew, or whether they are now such an integral part of the English law that nothing would substantially do away with them; but if the abolition of the jury system were to accomplish such an end, it would be another argument for that often-mooted but never-attempted revolution that it would greatly simplify trials of fact by facilitating proof.

It is at all events most interesting to follow Prof. Thayer's historical analysis of how the jury—the "fairest jewel" in the English judicial system—has in reality hampered the determination of cases by admitting in evidence on them only facts capable of comprehension by a gross intellect rather than a keen one; and how (the historical origin of this arbitrary rule of selective exclusion being lost sight of) a parasitic growth of rules of substantive law, affecting the production of evidence on the trial of cases, has come to make the very name of the Law of Evidence a terror to the student. It can be said of Prof. Thayer's book that it divests the law of this confusing growth, and permits the student to understand its original and derivative function, and the practitioner to understand how best to attempt to simplify and ameliorate it.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XIV. Nos. 1372-1450. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE papers contained in this volume relate to

the same subject as those in the thirteenth. They cover the dates from November 6, 1776, to March 14, 1777. We see Lord Stormont, the English Ambassador in Paris, a haughty, ill-mannered man, who yet thinks himself very polite and diplomatic, remonstrating with the French Ministers and trying to bully them. They are lying to him, and he knows it, but neither side is ready to throw away the mask. Both countries expect war, and both are willing to postpone it.

In a letter written by the American Commissioners in France to the Committee of Correspondence of Congress in Philadelphia, we get a glimpse of the methods by which the English Ministers are recruiting their armies in America:

"The Anspachers who were to be embarked in Holland mutinied & refused to proceed; so that their Prince was obliged to go with his Guards & force them on: A Gentleman of Rotterdam, writes us that he saw Numbers brought bound Hands & Feet in Boats to that place. This does not seem as if much Service can be expected from such unwilling Soldiers." (1448.)

The incident referred to was not unknown. The British Government, among its contracts for "Hessians," included one for a contingent of the subjects of the Margrave of Anspach-Bayreuth. The soldiers who were thus sold marched out from Anspach in two regiments, with 101 chasseurs and 44 artillerymen—in all, 1,285 men. They marched in good order to the neighborhood of the little walled town of Ochsenfurth, which is prettily situated on the Main, and which belonged at that time to the Bishop of Würzburg. Here, toward nightfall, they were put into the boats in which they were to float down stream to Holland. But one night aboard made the hearts of these landsmen sink within them. They had enlisted to face the enemy, but not the perils of the deep and rapid Main, or of that even greater expanse of water of which they had vaguely heard as the Ocean. They were willing to stand their ground, but they wanted ground to stand on; so they broke out into mutiny and rebellion, pushed their boats ashore, and refused to obey their officers.

Here was news to disturb the serenity of the Most Serene Highness, sitting there quietly in the palace at Anspach and wondering in a dreamy way on what day he might expect the first instalment of the subsidy he was to receive for the services of these very troops. A fine time he expects to have spending that money. He has planned a most charming journey to Paris. Visions of the Boulevards, with their rows of smaller theatres, of the Palais Royal and its mixed company, of Versailles and the court, are chasing each other in somewhat confused fashion through His Serene Highness's day-dream. The young Queen of France is smiling most graciously on a prince supposed to have leanings toward her native Austria—but a chamberlain has burst into the room: "The troops, Durchlauchtester Herr, the troops are in revolt!" "What does he say?" The Margrave is out of his arm-chair. "Bring me my boots! *Saperment!* not those things!—the riding-boots! Never mind the watch! No need of a carpet-bag. My gray horse and such cavalry as are on guard, and see that the pistols are in the holsters!" And so His Highness gallops off to Ochsenfurth, and appears among his naughty children by the waterside, and coaxes and drives them aboard, and even accompanies them down the river, stopping at Hanau to borrow some clean shirts, and brings them to Rotterdam, where Dr. Franklin hears of them; but His Serene Highness does not go with his men to America.

Perhaps it would have been better for their reputation and his own had he done so. Perhaps in that case Sir Henry Clinton would not have found it necessary to send the Anspachers round by water from Philadelphia to New York in the summer of 1778, with the invalids and the non-combatants instead of including them in his marching army. Perhaps the German prince would have shown himself a brave man if an unscrupulous one, willing to sell his own body for foreign service as well as those of his subjects. But no, the Margrave returned to Anspach, picked up his watch and pocketed his subsidy, and went off to Paris after all.

Distinction and the Criticism of Belief. By Alfred Sidgwick. Longmans. 1892.

MR. SIDGWICK enjoys a certain reputation, he carries an air of distinction and mundanity in his style, and he professes to discuss questions of logic in a fresh and enlightened way; so that we open his books in high expectation. But we lay them down with a sigh. All that has been accomplished in this department of thought since the days when it was possible for a Hegel to publish such attempts at analysis as Hegel's were, might as well have remained unrecorded as far as Mr. Sidgwick's teachings are concerned. Now, that a man can do fine work in logic without being well read in its literature, several eminent instances render more than evident. But the requisite to such fruitfulness is an extraordinarily vigorous mind, that brings forth genuine flowers of thought, bright, delicate, and redolent of suggestion, and not mere fabrications of tissue-paper, needing wires stuck through them to hold them in shape.

The author opens by explaining that the subject of his studies is Ambiguity. This promises well, for there is nothing thinkers of his quality need more to study. But we soon find ourselves wondering whether he knows what the word ambiguity means. He can hardly be unaware there is such a fault, but he appears to have little dread of it. The real topic of his book is not that, but vagueness. Ambiguity is a confusion between ideas quite distinct, such as the *unlimited* and the *immeasurable;* and though 'Distinction' does not *treat* of this, it richly illustrates it. Vagueness is an indeterminacy in the limits of the application of an idea, as to how many grains of sand are required to make a *heap*, and the like. It is not necessarily a fault of reasoning; in its lower degrees it is but an unavoidable and harmless imperfection of thought. The problem Mr. Sidgwick sets himself is to note the precautions needful that vagueness may not lead into positive error; and a problem of elementary simplicity it is. Yet 280 pages might suffice to muddle it, and this volume has 279. An efficient aid in treating such a subject, so as to satisfy the skimmer of books that he has gone over matter which would have been worth reading—and this class numbers important critics—is a vocabulary well chosen to render the meanings of dubious propositions questionable, and to dress up familiar ideas in queer disguises.

Mr. Sidgwick informs us that "distinction as such—distinction at all—is the separation of kinds; and the notion of separate kinds is unavoidably opposed to the notion of differences which are merely of degree." The first half of this statement is, of course, true, if the writer chooses to take the word "distinction" in the sense which makes it so. In the received language of logic the separation of kinds is called *division*, and *distinction* is restricted to a separation of significations; in metaphysics, *distinction* is any kind of otherness. But the second part of the statement, that a "distinction" cannot be merely quantitative, is a fair specimen of Mr. Sidgwick's logic. Is there any "distinction" between the color of scarlet iodide of mercury and that of Paris green? If not, we fear the new meaning of "distinction" is not a very useful one. The two colors are defined by the following equations:

Scarlet = .78 R + 0.10 G — 0.05 B.

Emerald = — 0.03 R + 0.91 G — 0.12 B,

where R, G, and B denote a standard red, green, and blue respectively. It is seen that the colors differ only by the magnitudes of certain coefficients. There seems to be some conflict here.

Is Mr. Sidgwick quite sure of his position? Here is his argument, with which he is plainly very well satisfied: "In order to put any meaning into the name 'difference in kind,' we must have some alternative contrasted with it, and that alternative is 'difference in degree.'" What shall we say of this reasoning? It is highly philosophical, no doubt; but a favorite division with Mr. Sidgwick is that of thought into philosophy and good sense.

He tells us that wherever there is continuity, every distinction must be vague and hazy in its outlines. If he means that a surface cannot be part scarlet and part emerald, with a sharp boundary between them, he is making a large draft upon the confiding trust of the reader. But on p. 72 Mr. Sidgwick lets drop a remark about continuity (and a long annotation shows it to be no inadvertency) which disqualifies him from teaching the properties of continuity, by showing him ignorant of one of the fundamental discriminations established by modern discussions, and no longer in intelligent dispute. The remark in question implies that infinite divisibility—that is, the presence, in a row of points, of intermediate points between every two points—excludes the existence of finite gaps in the row. But put this to the test. From the whole series of rational fractions remove ½ and ⅔ and all fractions intermediate between these in value. This makes a gap in the series; yet it remains as true of the series so mutilated as it was of the unmutilated series, that if any two fractions which belong to it are given, a fraction of intermediate value can be found belonging to it.

Mr. Sidgwick says that if nature is continuous, it *certainly* follows that "the laws of thought" (the quotation-marks are his) are false in every case, as applied to actual things. By the laws of thought he means the principles of identity, contradiction, and excluded middle, which he says are "usually" so called. If he would look into the last fifty treatises on logic in German, English, and French, he would find, we think, that these principles are not now usually called the laws of thought. Any deeper acquaintance with the actual state of logical analysis would show that such a designation is the mark of an obsolescent and degenerate school of logicians. But let us see what his reasons are for saying these principles are falsified by continuity. In the case of the principle of identity, the reason is that "any actual A has been non-A and will be non-A again; it has therefore some non-A in it." But suppose we grant this (though its *therefore* is absurd), it does not touch the principle of identity, which simply says, "A is A"—*i.e.*, every term can be predicated of itself—

and makes no reference to the relation between A and non-A. For the principle of contradiction his reason is, that "any actual A may deserve to be called non-A." For the principle of excluded middle his reason is, that "between the actual A's and non-A's there is always a middle region, or borderland." Besides being the baldest possible *petitiones principii*, these reasons overlook the paradox which really does give to continuity an appearance of inconsistency. If a surface be painted part red and part green, it is true that points on the boundary-line are equally green and red, and thus for them it seems that either the principle of contradiction or that of excluded middle must be violated in form. But this is not true of points in general, nor of any *region*, as Mr. Sidgwick's reasons imply. The violation of consistency is merely apparent, as any sound brain will feel. Every portion of the surface is either red or green, those which cross the boundary being partly red and partly green. But a point is not a portion of a surface; and the true characters of the points with reference to the colors are three: namely, they are either (1) wholly surrounded by red portions, or (2) wholly surrounded by green portions, or (3) partly surrounded by red and partly by green portions. Literally, nothing but a surface is colored; to call a point colored is a figure of speech, and this figure of speech it is which alone gives the appearance of a violation of the principle of contradiction.

But enough of this. The spectacle of Mr. Alfred Sidgwick grappling with the problem of continuity is like an infant slapping the face of the Great Sphynx: it is so ridiculous as to become positively touching. He is more in his element with such questions as these: "Is snow a thing, or is it only an accidental state of matter? And is water, for that matter, anything more than an imperfectly stable condition of its two component gases?" He reaches his largest proportions in our eyes when we find him criticising with success the reasoning in those gigantic efforts of intellect, the debates in the British House of Commons, such as the following:

"Lord R. Churchill—He says it is well known in war that movements which are offensive in their nature are sometimes defensive in their essence.

"Mr. Gladstone—Offensive in their *form*.

"Lord R. Churchill—What does that come to—that the attack of Gen. Graham was offensive in its form but not in its nature? Three thousand men or more were slaughtered, as a matter of form, by movements which were not offensive in their nature!"

Until our "G. B." has his way, it may be feared we shall not hear debating like that in the House of Representatives. In this country we have not time for such reasonings, nor for the other argumentations which Mr. Sidgwick is occupied with refuting, nor for the closely similar ones with which he would replace them.

Memorials of Sarah Childress Polk, Wife of the Eleventh President of the United States. By Anson and Fanny Nelson. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.

THE writers of these memorials of the wife of President Polk have erred in trying to draw too much of her personality from its "dread repose" in the past. Not satisfied with recording what they knew from personal experience of the object of their naïve and almost childish veneration, they have sought to reconstruct her life from its commencement—in the third year of the present century. In spite of their elaborate pains to produce a contrary effect, the reader is able to descry only the figure of a sufficiently ordinary young woman, who, while at school at the Moravian Female Academy in Salem, N. C. (whither she was sent from her home in Tennessee), produced in needlework, on a satin background, the picture of a tombstone with trees, in which "the different shades of green, brown, and yellow blend naturally"; and whose "playful wit and ready repartee" do not, at any time in her life, in the samples offered strike one as either very witty or wise overmuch.

During her fourteen winters in Washington as the wife of a Congressman, from 1825 to 1839, Mrs. Polk seems to have preserved a conduct void of offence. Typical of her merits at this time was the habit of "instantly checking" her hasty remarks whenever she observed a certain smile of Mr. Polk's, "which she well understood to mean disapproval of her inconsiderateness." "The dazzling and deceptive allurements" of life in the White House were powerless to shake the firmness of her Presbyterian principles. She studied the "abstruse and complicated political questions of the day," and is said to have had insight and judgment, but too much delicacy and reserve to proclaim political opinions. This, however, should have been considered the pity of it. Delicacy and reserve in political affairs are well-bred virtues that have cost Mrs. Polk's country too dear. It would have been as one who set an example of actively expressing enlightened opinions on public questions that she would have deserved to be held up to admiration by her biographers.

It was, in fact, not until her widowhood that Mrs. Polk became a notable and interesting figure. The prestige that she gained and kept during the many remaining years of her long childless life (which did not close until August, 1891) she owed to the rare capacity she was gifted with—the capacity to understand herself. Had she chosen any other line of conduct than the one she persistently pursued, the brilliance of her past would probably have been forgotten, and she herself lost to view in the pressure of a society with whose developments she could hardly have kept pace. As it was, she never left, save for visits to her mother at Murfreesborough, the home in Nashville to which her husband had retired in 1849, as soon as his term of office had ended, and only four months before his death. In her dignified house, in the capital of the State of which her husband had once been Governor, within sight of his tomb—conspicuously built in the grounds—and surrounded by portraits which recalled the prominent associations of her earlier years, and by relics around which hung an historical odor, she played to perfection her rôle of Dowager "First Lady of the Land."

Another gift Mrs. Polk also possessed in an eminent degree—one that very fitly makes her an ideal for a people whose habits of life tend to produce an old age that is neither mellow nor replete. This was her power of growing old consciously, serenely, and graciously. Hence came her supreme charm, a charm that made her so touching a figure to the many eminent persons who visited the home where she and her sorrow sat in state. It was doubtless this charm that inspired the enthusiasm of her biographers, and made their task so much a labor of love that it is easy to pardon them the literary failings and the provinciality of tone that mar its effectiveness.

History of the English Landed Interest, its Customs, Laws, and Agriculture. By Russell M. Garnier, B.A., Oxon. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

ONE wonders whether a book like this does harm or good. It has an attractive title, and will probably get into the hands of many English landlords who would not be reached by more scholarly treatises. As a land-agent of long experience, the author is qualified to give an opinion on the technical side of mediæval agriculture; and accordingly there are passages here and there which are worth reading. But, with these inconsiderable exceptions, there is absolutely nothing original in all his four hundred pages. It is not even a good abstract, for it is tediously long-winded. The author is without adequate historical training, and falls into ludicrous blunders; his style is lumbering and occasionally obscure, relieved only by purple patches of untrustworthy rhetoric; and he has no notion of what is meant by argument or proof. There is a plentiful array of references, but they can hardly be relied upon. Many of them would seem to be borrowed, and probably borrowed wrongly—to judge from some of the more patent absurdities, as where the farmer who turned clothier is said to have "incurred by so doing the statute-book's contemptuous *synonym* (1) of '*foreigner*'" (1), with a reference to 5 and 6 Ed. VI., c. 8.

The descriptions and narratives which the book contains are hardly more than paraphrases of Rogers, Seebohm, Vinogradoff, Ashley, Prothero, and other easily accessible writers. As a rule, the author docilely acquiesces in whatever his authority tells him; where he tries to be independent he is generally wrong. On the one question where opinions are so divergent that the author has to make up his mind between them—that of the origin of the manor—he attempts a compromise. But this compromise can assuredly retain an appearance of probability only so long as it is left in the easy vagueness with which Mr. Garnier clothes it. Neither in this nor in any other part of the subject will the reader find a clear picture of past conditions, nor a real sense of historical development.

Text-Book of Comparative Anatomy. By Dr. Arnold Lang. Part I. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 562, illustrated.

THIS is an improvement on the majority of the manuals relating to its subject. It is especially adapted to teachers of general zoölogy in grammar or high schools or the minor colleges, and to their pupils. To a certain extent it will prove of advantage to more advanced students and to specialists, but the lack of references to authorities for statements in the text makes it necessary to investigate elsewhere before citing the author as originally responsible for anything. The text is good so far as it goes, and is tolerably well up to date; the illustrations are numerous and of good quality. There are six chapters in all; these are apportioned to the Cell and the Protozoa, the Metazoa, the Platodes, the Vermes, the Crustacea, Trilobites, Gigantostraca, Hemiaspidæ, Xiphosura, and Pantopoda, and the three classes of the Tracheata—Protracheata, Antennata, and Arachnoidea, with an appendage to the arthropods, the Tardigrada. The classification adopted may not be one that will meet with general acceptance; this, however, is not a serious matter, since the phylogenies given by the different authors are usually regarded by students as subjects for all sorts of changes and revisions. The work, being in greater part a compilation, is naturally somewhat uneven in quality, some portions having

been repeatedly verified and others being still in need of verification. A good supply of prefaces is furnished; there is an author's preface, a translator's preface, and a preface by Prof. Haeckel, in which, after the familiar announcement that Haeckel once wrote a work called 'Die Generelle Morphologie,' etc., a good word is spoken for Prof. Lang. The book is one of the best, if not the best, in its particular field.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Auretta R. Children, their Models and Critics. Harpers.
Austin, Jane G. David Alden's Daughter, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ballantyne, R. M. The Hot Swamp: A Romance of Old Albion. T. Nelson & Sons.
Barker, Prof. G. F. Physics: Advanced Course. Henry Holt & Co. $3.50.
Bates, Clara D. From Heart's Content: Poems. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. $1.25.
Besant, Walter. The Ivory Gate. Harpers.
Boyd, Rev. A. K. H. Twenty-five Years of St. Andrews. Vol. II. Longmans. $3.
Boyesen, H. H. Boyhood in Norway. Scribners. $1.50.
Buckley, J. M. Faith-Healing, Christian Science, and Kindred Phenomena. The Century Co. $1.25.
Cathrein, Rev. V. Socialism Exposed and Refuted. Benziger Bros. 75 cents.
Craig, W. J. Complete Works of Shakspere. (The Oxford Miniature Shakspere.) 6 vols. T. Nelson & Sons.
Craig, W. J. Complete Works of Shakspere. (The Oxford Shakspere.) T. Nelson & Sons.
Cuyler, Rev. T. L. Stirring the Eagle's Nest: Discourses. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Deems, Rev. C. F. My Septuagint. Cassell. $1.
Eaton, Rev. A. W. College Requirements in English Entrance Examinations. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. The Lord of Dynevor. T. Nelson & Sons.
Fennell, C. S. M. The Stanford Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Fouard, Abbé C. St. Peter and the First Years of Christianity. Longmans. $2.
Frederic, H. The Return of the O'Mahony. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
George, A. J. Wordsworth's Prefaces and Essays on Poetry. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Goss, W. L. Tom Clifton; or, Western Boys in Grant and Sherman's Army. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Hawthorne, N. Wonder Book for Boys and Girls. Illustrated by Walter Crane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Herrick, Christine T. The Little Dinner. Scribners. $1.
Hobson, E. W., and Jessop, C. M. An Elementary Treatise on Plane Trigonometry. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Holmes, Dr. O. W. Dorothy Q. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Humphrey, F. P. A New England Cactus, and Other Tales. Cassell.
Imbert de Saint-Amand. The Duchess of Berry and the Court of Charles X. Scribners. $1.25.
Johnston, Prof. H. W. Selected Orations and Letters of Cicero. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co. $1.25.
Jessopp, Rev. Augustus. The Coming of the Friars, and Other Historic Essays. 5th ed. Putnams. $1.25.
Jessopp, Rev. Augustus. Wise Words and Quaint Counsels of Thomas Fuller. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Kellog, Rev. S. H. The Genesis and Growth of Religion. Macmillan. $1.50.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in Central Europe. Harpers.
Laidlaw, Rev. J. The Miracles of Our Lord, Expository and Homiletic. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.75.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXII. Lambe—Leigh. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Le Gallienne, Richard. English Poems. London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; New York: Cassell.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Beauties of Nature and the Wonders of the World We Live In. Macmillan. $1.50.
Maartens, Maarten. God's Fool: a Koopstad Story. Appletons. $1.25.
Machar, Agnes M. Roland Graeme: Knight. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Magill, Prof. E. H. A Reading French Grammar. Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co. 60 cents.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. Admiral Farragut. Appletons.
Moeller, Wilhelm. History of the Christian Church, A. D. 1—600. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Molesworth, Mrs. Robin Redbreast: A Story for Girls. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Muddock, J. E. Maid Marian and Robin Hood. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Munroe, Kirk. Canoemates. Harpers. $1.25.
Musick, J. R. Saint Augustine: A Story of the Huguenots in America. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Nelson, Anson, and Fanny. Memorials of Sarah Childress Polk. Randolph. $1.75.
Normand, Prof. C. J. B. Greuze. Macmillan.
Ohnet, Georges. Nemrod & Cie. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Westermann.
Old Italian Masters Engraved by Timothy Cole. The Century Co. $10.00.
Ompteda, Baron. Memoirs. B. Westermann & Co. $5.
Our Presidents from 1788 to 1892. Nicoll & Roy Co.
Page, H. W. Railway Injuries. William Wood & Co.
Page, T. N. Marse Chan: A Tale of Old Virginia. Illustrated. Scribners.
Paris, G. Extraits de la Chanson de Roland. 3d ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Parker, G. F. A Life of Grover Cleveland, with a Sketch of Adlai E. Stevenson. Cassell. 50 cents.
Parkman, Francis. The Oregon Trail. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.
Pennell, J., and Mrs. E. R. Play in Provence. Century Co. $1.50.
Perry, Nora. A Rosebud Garden of Girls. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Powell, E. P. Liberty and Life. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Putnam, M. Louise. The Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Rand & McNally's Handy Guide to Chicago and the World's Columbian Exposition. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Rawnsley, H. D. Notes for the Nile. London: Heinemann; New York: Putnams. $1.50.
Ray, Anna C. In Blue Creek Cañon. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Raymond, Mrs. E. Monica, the Mesa Maiden. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Ritchie, Anne T. Records of Tennyson, Ruskin, Browning. Harpers.
Roberts, Morley. The Reputation of George Saxton, and Other Stories. Cassell. $1.50.
Romance of Trouville. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Roy, John. Helen Treveryan; or, The Ruling Race. Macmillan. $1.
Roseboro', Miss Viola. Old Ways and New. Century Co. $1.25.
Stoddard, Rev. C. A. Spanish Cities, with Glimpses of Gibraltar and Tangier. Scribners. $1.50.
Stoddard, W. O. The Battle of New York. Appletons.
Wiltse, Sara E. The Place of the Story in Early Education, and Other Essays. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Zola, Emile. Money. Worthington Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 3, 1892.

The Week.

WE must, all things considered, admit that the Republicans have been very moderate in giving up one of their principal instrumentalities in the last two canvasses, namely, forged and garbled quotations from English newspapers. These quotations sometimes showed the admiration of the English press for something which the Democrats were doing, but more frequently contained either horrible accounts of the havoc the tariff was playing with British industry, or else dismal forebodings as to the havoc it would play if the Republicans kept their hold on the American Government. Sometimes these extracts purported to come from leading journals like the *Times* and *Economist*, and the passage quoted was prepared for use here by a change in punctuation, or by dropping a clause of a sentence, or by the total omission of a qualifying context. More frequently, however, the safer process was resorted to of taking the quotation from some obscure or non-existent journal—like the *Iron Æra*, or Liverpool *Echo*, which was unknown here or difficult to get hold of for verification. In these cases all restraint was laid aside, and the foreigner was made to say exactly what suited the occasion. The Liverpool *Echo* has been very useful in this way. Its language is so pat that, as it is never heard of here except during Presidential campaigns, one is always inclined to believe either that, like Mrs. Harris, there is no such paper, or that it is maintained simply to supply extracts for American campaign documents. The end and aim of all these extracts is the same, namely, to drive us into carrying on our Government not in such a manner as will best subserve our own interests, in the opinion of our wisest citizens, but in such manner as will most spite and damage foreigners. It is only on this view that the irritation caused among foreigners by our domestic policy can have any value for us as a political guide.

In this canvass the production of bogus or inaccurate statistics on the platform has been substituted for these forged quotations, and it is much more effective. Nothing is more telling on the platform than big figures rolled off in a sonorous way, and yet nowhere are statistics in any quantity more out of place than on the platform. Figures on any subject owe all their value to strict accuracy, and, when they are used for political purposes, not only must the addition and subtraction and multiplication and division be correct, but the source from which they come must be above suspicion and easily ascertainable. On the platform, of course, these guarantees can rarely be supplied. Another protectionist device which has played an important part in this canvass is the effort to persuade the Irish that, as English rule over Irishmen has been odious and bad, all English modes of governing Englishmen themselves are therefore to be eschewed and even detested. Irishmen are asked to hate and vote against a tariff for revenue only, because this is the kind of tariff Englishmen have for themselves—which is about as sensible as asking Irishmen to abandon bookkeeping by double entry because the English use it in keeping their public accounts. We are sorry to say, plenty of Irishmen are foolish enough to believe this and act on the belief, thus furnishing Englishmen with another argument against home rule; for, they say, "What kind of rule would it be carried on by men whom the Yankees gull so easily?"

Ex-Congressman Butterworth's speech in Cooper Union on Saturday night showed that he still is disposed to play the part of Republican *enfant terrible* in discussing the tariff. His outbreak against the McKinley monstrosities on the floor of Congress, on May 13, 1890, did not embarrass him in the least as a stump-speaker, for he affirmed that he has since "had no reason to change his views." And he made this assertion good at more than one point in his speech, expressing his contempt for "the extreme tariff men," and saying, of the almost unanimous contention of the Republican party that a protective tariff lowers prices, that, if this is true, "the whole system would be a sham and a fraud." By what inadvertence the *Tribune* printed these un-Republican utterances of his we cannot guess. It may yet reproduce his famous prophecy in Congress: "I assert that there never was a time in the history of the Republican party when it was in more danger of defeat than upon this one suggested idea that it is permissible to levy tribute upon all the people of this country of 65,000,000 to confer a benefit upon a few hundreds."

It has been supposed that Mr. McKinley, though narrow-minded and ignorant, was at least honest in his fanaticism, but it is hard to believe this in the face of his continued use of statements which are both false on their face, and to which his attention has been repeatedly called as being such. On Monday night in Brooklyn he asserted again: "England paid $230,000,000 in gold at the end of the year to settle a balance of trade in our favor. We've got that money now." That gross and palpable falsehood was greeted with "great applause" by the immense audience of Republicans who heard it. Probably McKinley's audiences are partly responsible for his carelessness about the truth. They wildly cheer everything he says, true or false, and why should he take pains to be accurate?

One point in his speech may do very well for an Ohio audience, but it was a good deal of a blunder to try to make it in this part of the country. He held up a pitcher and said that, but for the duty of 55 per cent. upon that kind of ware, it could not be made in this country. This is an echo of what a Trenton potter said to the McKinley Committee on Ways and Means, when demanding higher duties: "It is for you, gentlemen, to say whether this struggling industry shall be destroyed for the benefit of foreign manufacturers." Of course he got the duty he had "bought and paid for," but the true inwardness of his "struggling industry" was made public not long after in the prospectus of the "Trenton Potteries Company," in which it was shown that the earnings on the common stock of the five leading firms entering into the Trust were 16 per cent. in 1891, and had averaged 11 per cent. for the three years previous. On the appraised value of the entire property the annual net profits for three years were equal to an average dividend of 22½ per cent.; in 1891 they were equal to a dividend of 29 per cent. The Trust was organized with a capital of $3,000,000, at least half of which was water, and of course McKinley will have to see to it that a good per cent. is earned on water and all, or else there will be another pitiful cry in behalf of a "struggling industry."

Mr. Depew's growing taste for flippancy has so far demoralized his political oratory that his audiences are beginning to revolt. He stopped in Indianapolis to make a speech on his way home from Chicago, and even a journalistic supporter of Harrison like the *News* felt constrained to publish next day in its editorial columns a most stinging rebuke of "the vulgarity and indecency which in certain places marred his speech." It appears from the editorial article in the *News* that, in the presence of an audience which included some of the most cultivated ladies in the city, "Mr. Depew had the audacity to insult his hearers by repeating a vulgar antediluvian anecdote (untruthfully pretending that he was a witness of the incident described, a day or two before at Chicago), and by making an indecent allusion which must cause the witty orator's cheeks to burn with shame every time he recalls it." The *News* article concludes with the remark that "the only thing to do when he finished his speech was to sprinkle a disinfectant." Other speakers who have taken up

Mr. Depew's rôle of treating everything as a joke might well take warning from this illustration of the depths to which they may sink.

Mr. Stevenson has written his letter of acceptance, which, like that of the Republican candidate for the same office, is somewhat longer than such documents used to be. The reason why has been explained in an interesting passage in Mr. Blaine's late article in the *North American Review*, in which, speaking of the great length of President Harrison's letter of acceptance, he says:

> "Formerly the platform was of the first importance. Diligent attention was given, not only to every position advanced, but to the phrase in which it was expressed. The Presidential candidate was held closely to the text, and made no excursions beyond it. Now the position of the candidate as defined by himself is of far more weight with the voters, and the letter of acceptance has come to be the legitimate creed of the party."

Mr. Cleveland has this time adhered to the earlier practice by writing a letter about one-third the length of Gen. Harrison's, and Mr. Reid's and Mr. Stevenson's cover about the same amount of space. It is difficult to compare the letters of the two Vice-Presidential candidates. We are bound to admit, however, if, as Mr. Reid has said in his *Tribune*, his own letter was "plain-spoken, intelligible, and uncompromising," and "markedly in contrast with the nebulous utterances and disingenuous silence of Mr. Cleveland," or in other words was much better than Mr. Cleveland's, it is *à fortiori* much better than Mr. Stevenson's. However this may be, the passage in Mr. Stevenson's which was looked for with most interest was that containing his views about the currency, for it is his supposed unsoundness about silver which has made some Mugwumps question whether they ought this year to vote for Mr. Cleveland. "Mr. Cleveland," they said to themselves, "is mortal, and if he should die, we should have a Vice-President who would sign a free-coinage bill, and after that the deluge." Mr. Stevenson has in his letter done what he could to dissipate these apprehensions by quoting the Democratic platform on the currency question and adding his own endorsement in the following terms:

> "To this plain and unequivocal declaration in favor of sound, honest money, I subscribe without reservation or qualification. A safe circulating medium is absolutely essential to the protection of the business interests of our country, while to the wage-earner, or the farmer, it is all-important that every dollar, whatever its form, that finds its way into his pocket, shall be of equal, unquestioned, and universally exchangeable value and of equal purchasing power."

Consequently, unless Mr. Stevenson is unusually false, which nobody alleges of him, if he should ever become President he will veto any bill which creates a silver dollar for which a gold dollar cannot be obtained in exchange; and such a silver dollar is the only one a "silver man" would care for.

There is no great degree of interest about the letters of acceptance of the two candidates for Mayor in this city, since the success of the Democratic ticket by a large majority is fully assured. Nevertheless, every citizen will want to know what the next Mayor has to say in his own behalf and in Tammany's. So far as it goes, Mr. Gilroy's statement is correct that "every municipal government owes to the people who sustain it well-paved and well-lighted thoroughfares, an abundant supply of wholesome water, an efficient system of street-cleaning, protection to life and property either from lawlessness or conflagration, and the adoption and enforcement of intelligent rules for the preservation of the public health." But it is not true that "all of these functions have been efficiently discharged by the government of this city for the past four years," which covers Mr. Gilroy's incumbency of the Public Works Department. It is true, however, that there has been during this period a most gratifying advance in the important matter of street-cleaning, and that the cleanliness of the city has been vastly improved during the past six months as compared with the previous three years and six months. The primary credit for this great reform belongs to private citizens, and most of all to a public-spirited woman; but Mrs. Kinnicutt herself is the first to acknowledge that the Tammany Commissioner of Public Works, and still more the Tammany Street-Cleaning Commissioner (Mr. Brennan), have administered the new system with vigor and success. The streets of New York are undoubtedly clean now, and Tammany has, for the first time, some excuse for "pointing with pride" to the cleanliness of the municipality.

The managers of both parties concede one State to Weaver—Nevada. The silver issue is the controlling one in that mining camp, and the larger part of the Republicans, headed by Senator Stewart, with most of the Democrats, are supporting the third-party ticket. Nevada has three electoral votes, although its population has been shrinking for many years, and the total poll shrank from 19,766 in 1876 to only 12,605 in 1888. It is possible that these few thousand miners in what was formerly a "sure Republican State" may deprive Harrison of a majority in the electoral college, and throw the election of President into the Democratic House.

Iowa votes for the first time this year under the Australian system, and the familiar complaints against the reform are heard from the Republican organs. The *Iowa State Register*, the leading Republican newspaper, denounces it as "a new and cumbersome mode of balloting," and predicts that "there will be a good many stay-at-homes unless the voters are promptly instructed as to how to prepare and cast their ballots." But the trouble is that many of the "sensitive" Republicans are so sensitive that they will not even attend a ballot-reform school so as to learn how to prepare and cast their ballots. As Mr. L. E. Chittenden said of the Vermont "sensitives" in his letter to the New York *Tribune* a few weeks ago: "Old farmers who have been accustomed to vote openly for the candidates they wish to support resent any interference with their ballots. They will not go into a shanty or behind a door to prepare them—they will not ask or take instructions from anybody concerning them." The "old farmer" is much the same in Iowa as in Vermont, and there is, therefore, every reason to believe that the Republicans will suffer seriously next week from the adoption of this reform in the Western State, as they lately did in the Eastern one.

Unfortunately for the Republicans, they cannot stand such a loss in Iowa. In Vermont they could lose nearly 10,000 votes and still have a plurality of about 19,000. But in Iowa they were in a minority of 7,816 last year, and that, too, on the heaviest vote ever cast in the history of the State. In 1888 there were cast for President in Iowa 404,130 votes, while in 1891 the total for Governor was 420,214—more than 16,000 larger. We think this is the only case on record in an old and well-settled State where the vote for President in a warmly-contested year has been exceeded by the vote for Governor in a State election not long afterwards. It shows that the "reserve vote," upon which the Republicans always place so much reliance, was "out" in Iowa last year, and that the reëlection of the Democratic Governor was no snap judgment. If the Australian system is going to make a good many Republicans who turned out last year stay at home this year, the outlook for Harrison cannot be considered encouraging.

The Wisconsin Democrats have made their third trial at reapportioning the State for members of the Legislature, the first two attempts having been such gross gerrymanders that they were annulled as unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. From the comments of the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, the chief Republican newspaper of the State, we judge that the last measure is about as fair as any party usually passes. "The differences in the population of the Assembly districts," it says, "are inconsiderable, and arise for the most part from the proper disposition, inspired by the holy wrath of the Supreme Court, to make a district of any county having anything near the quota of population. But the hand of the gerrymander is in it, nevertheless"—and it proceeds to show how the Democratic county of Ozaukee, with 14,943 population, is made a district, while the Republican county of Buffalo, with 15,997 population, is not also made a district,

but is joined to another Republican county, making a total population of 23,000; how Chippewa County, with a population of 25,153, is cut into two districts because the Democrats can carry one, while Vernon, with 25,111, is a single district because no Democratic district can be carved out of the county—and so on. The Democrats expect this act to stand, and estimate that it will give them the Legislature by about a dozen majority, and thereby a United States Senator to succeed Philetus Sawyer. But experience has repeatedly shown that the gerrymander is as likely as not to prove a boomerang.

We were glad to see that a clergyman of this city preached a sermon on Sunday on the sin of bribery and the wickedness of those who raise a huge corruption fund for the purpose of carrying an election. This is a timely topic, and we wish it might be generally chosen as a subject for pulpit discourses on the coming Sunday. There ought to be an especially pointed sermon on this theme preached in Wanamaker's church, and it would be a good thing, too, in the case of so difficult a sinner to convict, to follow it up with an address in Wanamaker's Sunday-school on the same subject, and also to work in a talk on it at the last prayer-meeting before the election. We take it as a matter of course that Senator Quay will be present next Sunday in the Presbyterian church which he has lately endowed, and we commend to his pastor, too, the duty of discoursing on the severe retribution which is certain to overtake bribers in the next world. He ought to make it specially clear that it will be vain to plead as a defence the fact that the briber voted to keep the World's Fair closed on Sunday.

The elimination of the silver issue becomes more obvious as the end of the campaign approaches. Some of the more unscrupulous Republican politicians in the East, like Henry Cabot Lodge, and the more reckless organs, like the Boston *Journal*, make a pretence of believing that the re-election of Harrison is necessary in order to avert free coinage—even when Republican organs and Republican candidates for Congress in Colorado are supporting him as a much better friend of silver than Cleveland. But more intelligent and candid Republicans confess that free coinage is equally impossible whichever candidate is elected. In an editorial article entitled "An Issue Settled," the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* says that the defeat of the Free-Coinage Bill at the last session "means the death of free coinage as an issue. It has settled itself. The facts which are coming to light day after day—facts which the silver-men have kept in the background as long as they dared—are such as to put an end for ever to any agitation in favor of free coinage of silver at the existing ratio." The *Pioneer Press* reviews the enormous development of the silver-mining business during the last few years, with the resulting fall in the price of silver bullion, and thinks that "we must be prepared for a decline of silver to probably not more than half the present quotation, and a corresponding diminution in the actual value of the silver dollar. This," it adds, "disposes of the free-coinage issue."

The negro preachers have always been the main reliance of the Republican politicians for keeping the negro vote solid, and the churches have often been used as the party headquarters. It is therefore a noteworthy sign of the times when colored clergymen announce their repudiation of Republicanism and their intention to support Cleveland. One such case is that of the Rev. Joseph W. Crofton, described as one of the most prominent colored preachers in the South, who published a card in a Memphis newspaper last week renouncing the Republican party because of his opposition to the Force Bill and the high-tariff system, and promising to take the stump for Cleveland. A still more prominent convert is Bishop J. M. Brown of the African Methodist Church, who has written an open letter stating his belief that the time has passed for the colored men as a race to cast their vote solidly for one party, and giving the reasons why in his opinion it is the duty of the colored man who wishes to advance the interests of his race to vote for Cleveland. Mr. Crofton says that in his travels through Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee he has found hundreds of colored men who have always heretofore voted the Republican ticket, but who are going to vote for Cleveland this year, and it is well known that the Democratic ticket in Georgia received much support from this class at the recent State election. The solidity of the negro vote has been the worst obstacle to the progress of the race, and it is most encouraging to see the race beginning to divide, like the white race.

Lord Salisbury has written an article in the *National Review* examining the Liberal threat to create new peers to swamp the Conservative majority in the House of Lords—a threat which carried the Reform Bill in 1832, after all other means had failed. He says, and says truly, that this course, if once entered on, would be revolutionary, or at all events could only be justified by a state of national feeling overwhelmingly in favor of the policy advocated in the House of Commons and against that advocated in the House of Lords. No such state of feeling, he says, now appears to exist in favor of Mr. Gladstone's home-rule policy, if one may judge from the last election. The swamping process applied to the House of Lords would, therefore, be revolutionary, and, if used by one party, would certainly be used also by the other, and end in the destruction of the Upper House. There is much show of reason in all this, but Lord Salisbury overlooks certain considerations bearing on it more or less directly. One is that it would, as tit for tat, be in a measure justified by the Tory plan of governing Ireland, which during the last seven years has been distinctly revolutionary, inasmuch as it has practically suspended trial by jury and created new offences triable before removable magistrates only, in one portion of the kingdom, not in order to meet a temporary emergency, but as a permanent system. The Liberals now in office have met this by the plan, in many ways objectionable, of refusing to execute the law, but they could not, as the House of Lords now stands, possibly get the act repealed.

Lord Salisbury also cites the provisions contained in the Constitutions of the United States, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Greece, and Switzerland against hasty changes of a grave character in the organic law or constitution of the government, and says the House of Lords in England furnishes the only hindrance to such changes in England. But he overlooks the fact that, in all these countries, changes in the composition of all branches of the Legislature follow, as a matter of course, from changes in public opinion as indicated by the election. The voters, in other words, control the upper as well as the lower house, though not so directly. The English House of Lords, on the other hand, is not affected in the least by any elections. The majority in it has for a hundred years belonged to the same party, and is not in the smallest degree amenable to popular opinion. In fact, it is an institution whose existence, in its present shape, is incompatible with government by popular suffrage, and would, in any of the countries which Lord Salisbury cites, be abolished or altered.

The confidence of European investors in the recovery of Chili from the shock of civil war, and in her conservative financial management, was shown by the way the new Chilian loan was taken up. It was for $9,000,000 at 5 per cent., the price of issue being 95. The Messrs. Rothschild offered $5,000,000 of this on the London market on October 19, and in a single day the amount applied for was upwards of $150,000,000, and in three days the new bonds were quoted at a premium of 3 per cent. This result is highly creditable to Chili, especially in view of the general distrust of South American securities, and proves afresh the great advantage of sound management of the finances and a long record of punctuality in meeting all foreign obligations.

THE MORAL ISSUE.

It is now more than four years since President Cleveland's message made protection the great issue between the parties, and whoever reviews the course of discussion during this period cannot fail to be impressed with the development of the popular comprehension of the subject. At first every one was taken by surprise. The opposition of the Democrats to the principle of protection was felt to be purely formal, and one of their ablest and most popular leaders, the late Samuel J. Randall, was as orthodox on this subject as any Pennsylvania Republican. To be suddenly called upon to defend the musty platitudes of the platform, formulas inherited from a departed generation and repeated without thought of their significance, was as embarrassing to the ordinary Democrat as it would be to most people to have to state the arguments in favor of the Copernican system. Both parties, it may be said, were ignorant of the strength of the case against protection, and the Republicans accepted the issue with delight, anticipating an easy victory. They won a victory, but it was as ominous to the Republicans as Pyrrhus's victory over the Romans was to him. They had brought forward the free-trade scarecrow as their great reliance, but, so far from stampeding their adversaries by panic, they prevailed over them only by bribery and trading, and with all their strategy they were left in the minority.

It was evident enough after this that protection was no longer a name to conjure with, and that the battle was to be one of argument. So soon as the Democrats recovered from their surprise, they found that what they had repeated as political platitudes were propositions that rested upon experience and were supported by reason. They found at their hands a perfect arsenal of weapons of the most scientific construction, against which the protectionists could bring only a collection of mediæval fallacies which had long been the laughing-stock of all trained logicians and economists. The "infant industry" fallacy was too decrepit to be of much service. It had become as ridiculous as that "profane patriarch" described by the lamented A. Ward, who used to get drunk every Fourth of July and weep bitterly because he was an orphan. The balance-of-trade fallacy, the real tap-root of protectionism, could not be made to fit the facts of our commerce. The home-market fallacy was not adapted to the consumption of a people half of whom were farmers and most of whose exports were agricultural products. There was nothing to do but to swear stoutly that protection raised wages and diminished profits, and that protective duties were paid by foreigners. But it was easy to show that in that case we had a tariff for revenue and not for protection, while every workman able to count knew whether his wages were raised better than any one else.

The result of the discussion has thus been to drive protectionists out of the court of reason. They keep up the fight by reiterating falsehoods that have ceased to deceive, and by threatening disasters that no longer terrify. Many of the more intelligent among them have had their eyes opened to the weakness of the Republican cause by listening to the arguments by which the Republicans have been driven to support it. The more self-respecting have become affected with "apathy," which simply means that they decline as thinking beings to endorse the insane contentions of the high-protection fanatics. There remain only an old guard who hate their traditional opponents too bitterly to yield, no matter how badly or how wickedly they are led, and a mass of voters either pecuniarily interested or uninformed, the wreck of a glorious army. The educated men are gone, except those who are too old to change; and the party that once numbered almost all the college professors among its members, now hopes to succeed in its "American policy" by naturalizing Italians and Russians.

This narrowing of the issues between the parties has proceeded rapidly of late. It is perhaps still open to discussion whether protection has raised the wages of the employees of protected manufacturers. It would seem extraordinary if such tremendous machinery should altogether fail of its predicted effect. But it is becoming evident that the public are no longer greatly interested in the answer to this question. They have awakened to the fact that there is more involved in protection than dollars and cents. As Sir Walter Scott said, it does not follow because you have demonstrated that a certain line of conduct is most consistent with men's interest, that you have therefore and thereby demonstrated that they will adopt it of course. If it were conceded that protection increased the wealth of the people, that would by no means end the matter. Slowly, but of late with increasing clearness, the American people are coming to see that the principle involved is not one of money but of government, not one of expediency but of justice. Mr. Cleveland, Mr. Schurz, and Mr. MacVeagh have shown them that under protection the taxes to be paid by the people are determined by a small group of rich men, and that the elected representatives of the people merely register the will of the tariff beneficiaries. Congress ceases to be a deliberative body, and the defenders of protection thank God!

It may be urged that the protected manufacturers are but trustees, and the higher profits insured them by favoring tariffs are diffused through the whole community, enhancing wages and stimulating industry. Unfortunately, the "Trusts" that interest our great manufacturers are not of this beneficent character; but were the contention true it would be immaterial. It involves the principle of an aristocracy and not of a democracy. The American citizen does not desire to have the benefits of his Government held in trust for him. Such benefits as Government has to offer he considers that he is directly entitled to. No intermediaries are necessary, and all history shows that their existence leads to wrong and injustice. Our Government is founded upon equality; but there can be no equality when private citizens are armed with the taxing power for their own immediate emolument, no matter with what benevolence they afterwards distribute their gains. The principle is wrong, and the heart of the common people is now stirring with the determination that this wrong shall not continue.

The significance of our constitutions and bills of rights lies solely in this, that they establish as the foundation of our society the principle that the powers of majorities are limited. The majority may be convinced that the minority should profess a certain religion, but the Constitution forbids persecution. The majority may sometimes desire to confiscate certain property, but the Constitution will not allow it. It has been found wise to limit the activity of Government to matters as to which there is substantial unanimity. At present a large minority, if not a majority, of the American people are satisfied that our protective tariff is unjust. Granting that a majority are sincerely of the opposite opinion, they are in the position of forcing their theory upon a reluctant people, upon the plea that it is for their good. It would seem to require the heart of an inquisitor to compel the poor of a country to pay tribute to the rich upon the plea that the rich would somehow restore it to the poor. A great emergency might justify such a policy, but to continue it under our present circumstances in the face of the deepening sense of injustice that it arouses, is a public wrong. Conscientious citizens, even though believers in protection, may well pause before casting their votes in favor of thrusting its present extreme form upon their exasperated countrymen.

MAKING POLITICS OF SCIENCE.

The Statistical Bureau was established in order to make a science of politics; it is being conducted so as to make politics of science. The manner in which the census-takers were selected and the results reached by the census of population indicated this. The results reached by the census of manufactures have demonstrated it.

By a coincidence, the month of October, when the Presidential campaign is fairly on, is the time the bulletins on manufactures begin to appear. Nearly every day one of them is published, revealing to one astonished city after another the fact that it actually enjoys a prosperity such as no protectionist prophet ever dared to predict. The number of manufacturing

establishments reported has almost everywhere doubled in the last decade, though, in the decade before, the number of establishments increased less than one per cent.; the number of hands has increased out of all proportion to the population, while the wages of labor have increased 50 per cent. without the laborers knowing it.

Unfortunately for Superintendent Porter, the field covered by his statistics was covered by other Republican statisticians during the same year, and the results reached by them differ widely from the results reached by him. In Massachusetts, for example, where his bulletin for Worcester shows wages averaging $541, the State Labor Report for 1890 showed the average wages to be but $369. In Michigan, where the wages reported do not differ essentially from those given by the State Labor Commissioner, the latter referred only to the wages of the men, while those of the census bulletin refer to men, women, and children. All over the country the actual wages reported in the bulletin bear a strange resemblance to Carroll D. Wright's report as to what wages would be if each hand taken on worked every day throughout the year at his temporary pay.

This last point is worth bringing out more clearly, for it indicates how wage statistics may be manipulated by any one who has a personal or partisan end to gain by manipulating them. In Part II. of Commissioner Wright's report of the National Labor Bureau for 1890 he publishes the wage-tables of several iron and steel establishments in various parts of the country, showing the "actual and theoretical time and earnings." In the first of these establishments the average rate of wages of men employed was $2.08; the number of working days was 365. The yearly earnings, if the men had worked continuously, would have been $760. The actual yearly earnings of the men was but $122. In the next establishment he notes, the average daily wages paid were $1.70, yet the actual yearly wages paid were but $154 instead of the $589 which an unscientific or unscrupulous statistician might have figured out. It is useless to multiply illustrations from this report. Superintendent Porter's bulletins themselves illustrate the methods he has employed and their value.

Take the bulletin for this city. In the preceding decade the marked feature of our industrial development was the growth and consolidation of existing establishments rather than the starting of new ones. No one was aware that this tendency had spent its force. Yet the bulletin for New York city sets forth that during the last decade the number of establishments increased 103 per cent., though the number of hands increased but 49 per cent. In other words, instead of the growth and consolidation of old firms, we find the number of firms increasing twice as fast as the number of employees.

But the reported increase in the number of employees is itself incredible if we assume that the Porter census of our population is credible. That census showed that 62,000 families had been added to our population; the manufacturing census shows that 124,000 hands have been added to the force in our factories. In case all other industries have remained stagnant, the two reports might be reconciled on the supposition that two persons have been sent into the factories for each family added to our population. But even this method of harmonizing Mr. Porter with himself is made a little difficult by his statement, in the bulletin before us, that part of the increase in wages is due to the relatively decreased number of women and children in many industries. That the employment of women is relatively decreasing in many industries is another sign of the millennium first discovered by Mr. Porter.

Yet the astounding increase in the number of firms and employees is as nothing to the reported increase in wages. In 1880 the wages paid in our factories were returned at $97,000,000; in 1890 the return is $228,000,000. The average wages per hand, it is said, have increased from $427 in 1880 to $663 in 1890. In 1880 the wages bill was but 21 per cent. of the value of the product. In 1890 it is 31 per cent. But it must not be supposed that this advance of labor has been at the expense of profits and rents. Protection protects capital as well as labor. It is the cost of raw material that has been reduced, and reduced without lowering the tariff. Ten years ago the cost of materials was just three times as much as the wages of labor; now it is only half again as much. The wages paid in 1890 were $228,000,000; the cost of materials was $357,000,000; the value of the product was $763,000,000. If we deduct the cost of the materials in order to find how much factory labor and capital between them added to the wealth of our city, we find it to be the sum of $406,000,000, or $1,300 for every family in the city. As less than half of our people are engaged in manufacturing industries, the average family income of these is very nearly three thousand a year. No Anarchist, in his wildest vision, ever dreamed of such wealth until the United States Census Bureau came to be administered as a party perquisite.

A SHORT-HAUL DECISION.

THE Western papers are very properly making much of the decision of Justice Brewer in the Iowa district of the Circuit Court of Appeals. It is unquestionably the most important interpretation of the Inter-State Commerce Act which has been made. The decision, rendered October 17, briefly stated, is to the effect that through-rates, when agreed to by two or more railroads, need bear no relation to the local rates imposed by either one of the carriers separately. This far-reaching opinion is arrived at by drawing a technical distinction in the use of the word "line" in the act to regulate commerce: any one railway constitutes a line, while any number of them formed into a through-route make another line, whose charges are independent of the charges of either company on its own traffic. The illustration introduced by Judge Brewer is, that if a rate from a small town to Chicago is fifteen cents per hundred and from Chicago to Cleveland is fifteen cents more, then a through-rate from the village to Cleveland may be twelve cents—lower than the sum of the local rates, and less than either local rate separately.

In the earlier decisions of the Inter-State Commerce Commission it was assumed that the law intended the whole system of railway tariffs to be interdependent, every rate to be proportional to every other rate. Judge Cooley's language was, "The smallest hamlet is to be put on an equality with the largest city," so that each village could have the opportunity of becoming a large distributing centre, so far as the transportation lines were concerned. As a theory this reasoning had undoubted attractions, being seemingly based on equal rights for all. But actual business is not conducted on that principle. Commercially the battle goes to the strongest; nor do tradesmen advance prices in order that weaker men may make a living. As a practical measure, enforced equality in railway charges resulted in lower prices to producers whose markets were restricted, and higher prices to consumers whose purchased products could not reach them cheaply. This extreme view was afterwards modified by the Inter-State Commission to the extent of saying that long hauls need not be charged proportionately as high as for shorter distances; still, the old interpretation of the law colored the later opinions.

One form which the controversy assumed was the debate upon the question whether through-rates ought to be less than the sum of the local tariffs. The question was a vital one for Kansas City, for example. If the farmers in the interior of the State could ship their wheat or corn direct to Chicago at a less rate than to Kansas City and thence by reshipment, manifestly the middlemen at the latter city had no excuse for existence. For their right to this jobbing trade in grain eastward and supplies westward, the merchants of Kansas City have always contended. In so far as their contention has been successful, it is probable that the farmer in Kansas has received less for his produce; for if prices of corn and wheat are made through competition at Liverpool and New York, then anything which prevents a lowering of the charge for transportation through is detrimental to agricultural interests. Abstract equality between Kansas City, Chicago, or New York may prove a dear right if purchased at the expense of actual profits to those most concerned. Judge Brewer's decision implies that producer or consumer, wherever located, has the right to sell in the dearest or buy in the cheapest market, and that railways, if

they are to fulfil their proper function, can only assist in such distribution.

It must be acknowledged that such a principle will tend to perpetuate the supremacy of the cities now the centres of trade and manufacture. Chicago, for illustration, with its large capital and great energy, if railway rates are left to self-adjustment, must draw business from towns less important. In short, concentration of trade means favors in the charges for transportation. On the other hand, the railways may extend the market for the products grown or manufactured along their lines, so that town will compete with town and city with city, the trade victory going, as it must and ought to go, to the places best fitted to survive by reason of geographical location, superior ability, or the abundance of money. If we eliminate from view the abstract right of the hamlet to become a trade centre through equality in railway charges, it is correct economically, as Judge Brewer pronounces it correct legally, to say that local, station-to-station charges have little relation to through-rates. This abstract equality in business matters now cuts no particular figure; if railways have equal duties to all citizens, then the citizens who demand that equality of charge must pay for it in lower prices for things produced and higher prices for things consumed. Either theory of transportation may be carried to an extreme; the decision of Justice Brewer seems to mark a return towards a middle course.

The long-and-short haul section, as we have several times stated, should not have been incorporated in our act to regulate commerce. It applies a hard-and-fast rule to cases with varying conditions. These cases would, without this section, have been amenable to that part of the law forbidding unjust discrimination; and whether the discrimination was just or not could then have been discussed upon its merits, and not, as now, decided before trial. Justice Brewer's opinion, if taken up by other courts as a correct precedent, will go far towards correcting that economic error in our law by which, according to Judge Cooley, it was sought to make every village a possible distributing point through railway charges arranged theoretically to that end, and not allowed easy adjustment as are other prices in the business world.

SPOKEN ENGLISH.

WE made some comments in our issue of October 20, apropos of the recent report to the Overseers of Harvard College on the manner in which English composition is taught, or rather not taught, in the preparatory schools. As a rule they send their boys up to Harvard unable to write their mother tongue even decently. An article in the last *Forum*, by Dr. J. M. Rice, upon the condition of the public schools in Cincinnati and Buffalo, describes a state of things equally lamentable as regards the teaching of English speech. Dr. Rice has been visiting the public schools in various large cities, paying special attention to the capacity of the teachers as revealed in the examination of pupils under his own eye. He found an enormous amount of time and attention given to spelling, and some of the modes of making good spellers—singing the letters, for instance—very peculiar; but with this we are not now concerned. Here is one of the scenes he witnessed in a Cincinnati school:

> In one of the pieces read the word "merchant" appeared.
>
> "What is a merchant?" the teacher inquired, after one of the children had read the word.
>
> "A merchant is a tailor," answered one.
>
> "A merchant is a man what keeps dry-goods stores," said another.
>
> "A merchant is a man what buys cheap and kin sell dear," remarked a third.
>
> At last a little boy, with a triumphant air, cried out: "A merchant is a man what sells goods."
>
> The teacher corrected none of these mistakes in language; but when one of the children had read the sentence, "I broke the glass and I will pay for it," the teacher said, "What mistake did he make?"
>
> "Teacher," answered one, "he said 'glass' and he ought a' said 'glars.'"
>
> "Right," said the teacher.

This is one in a Buffalo school:

> When all was quiet, one of the pupils called out:
>
> "I ain't got no ruler."
>
> In answer to this the teacher, without correcting the child's language, said:
>
> "You don't need a ruler. Do it the way you *done* it yesterday."

We presume these illustrations could be multiplied *ad infinitum* in most of the schools in the country. Great attention is given in all of them to the spelling of words; little to the proper use of words themselves in composition, and none whatever to the most important use of all, their use in speech. Nor is this true of the schools only. It is true of the family. We presume there is no country in the world in which the classes that get a fair education in schools and colleges pay so little attention to the manner in which their children speak their mother tongue—that is, to correctness of accent, distinctness of enunciation, and grammatical collocation. The result is seen in a very remarkable degeneration of the spoken English, especially in New England, where the English of the last generation was, on the whole, taking the whole population together, probably the best in the world, while the English of this generation is to a sad degree slovenly, slangy, and indistinct; that is, the syllables are slurred over and the open vowels closed as if through sheer laziness. We have seen illustrations of this in the difference between the English of a father and his son or grandson, which would be painful to any one who looked on a pure and carefully guarded speech as one of the most precious of national inheritances. In many parts of the West this process of degeneration has gone so far that the English language has become a mere dialect, into which each individual introduces such varieties as he pleases.

Indeed, it may be said that as a rule the only class who now pay any attention to pronunciation and grammar and the choice of words in speaking are the ministers, and, except from them, since the lyceum lecturers of the Phillips, Chapin, and Curtis sort have died out, the people in many parts of the country never hear what may be called pure spoken English. The bar has long given up any attempt to take care of the language. Some lawyers in this city talk slang and bad grammar purposely in court in order to "get solid" with the jury, who never talk anything else. We have been told recently by a gentleman brought up in the West, who was graduated from Yale College, that until he went to New Haven, a lad of seventeen, he had never heard pure English, and, on hearing it from the Yale professors, it seemed to him a new and beautiful language, which he was delighted to think he understood. Parents seldom take any more pains to correct the solecisms and blunders of their children's speech than Dr. Rice's teachers. We heard of a case lately where a teacher, having undertaken to give some drill in enunciation and intonation to a girl in whom she was interested, was promptly stopped by a message from the child's mother, that "Mamie spoke well enough," and she desired her to talk "whatever way she wanted to."

One reason, and perhaps the most potent, why Europeans take better care of their language than we do is that in all the leading European countries correct speech and a good accent are, if not marks of a good social position, powerful aids in climbing into one. The pains which Irish and Scotch barristers, seeking their fortunes at the English bar, take to get rid of their brogue, would by most Americans be considered very ridiculous. So great a man as Lord Mansfield made it a subject of unwearied vigilance, and Lord Campbell says his Scotch origin was finally discoverable only through two or three words, which he never could master, one of them being solicitor, which he always made "soleecitor." A man who "drops his h's" in England, or sticks them on improperly, has to be very able, or witty, or wise to escape social damnation. A man to be well received in what is considered "good society," has not only to dress and use his knife and fork like a gentleman, but has to speak like a gentleman. His accent and grammar must indicate, whether truly or not, careful bringing up in a circle in which these things were considered of consequence. An English child's speech is watched as carefully as his morals or manners. The same thing is true of France, Germany, and Italy. The educated and well-to-do classes in these countries are expected to look after their native tongue. It is one of their charges, for neglect of which they are punished by loss of social consideration.

Here we have no such stimulus to orthoepy or good grammar. One hears every day men who pride themselves on all sorts of social advantages, birth, education, clothes and money, and what not, talking like Southern "crackers"; and girls who think themselves the pink of fashion, gabbling in the tongue of cooks and housemaids. Liberty to talk in any way he pleases is, in fact, the birthright of the modern American child, and he uses it to produce a jargon, half made up of slovenly pronunciation and half of street slang uttered with a loud, harsh, bar-room intonation. Now that the country is beginning to pay some attention to the æsthetic side of life, this evil of bad language ought to be taken in hand by parents and teachers, and dealt with promptly before we get into the linguistic condition which existed in Rome even in Cicero's day, and exists to-day in Turkey, in which the literary language differs wholly from the spoken language, and the unlearned man has to work over a book as he would over a foreign tongue.

A CARIBBEAN AMONG THE AMERICANISTS.

SEVILLE, October 5, 1892.

LET there be no mistake about my nationality. I am not a Carib, but a Caribbean. This is "the next best thing," as Father Prout makes the Lord Mayor of Dublin say when offering a potato to Sir Walter Scott, after the presentation of the freedom of the city of Dublin to the author of 'Waverley.' It would, no doubt, have been better that a true Carib should have been brought to Spain, if "for this occasion only," to give the world an account of his impressions of the coming celebration of the discovery of America. But such a treasure is not easily found. Caught young in one of the Antilles, I was sent to England for my schooling, where I received "just that veneer of civilization which people of that sort —of the subject races—get." On my return to the West Indies I proceeded to Guiana, on the mainland of South America; that vast country which lies between the great rivers Amazon and Orinoco, and the home of the Carib Nation, whence they set out to people the Caribbee Islands. There, in that part of it over which floats the British flag, is my home.

One is not without hope that, in return for the discovery of the New World, Americans may yet be able to do something for the Spaniards. There are, indeed, signs of a movement in this direction. Just stand in the Puerta del Sol at Madrid, and look around. On the sternboard of some of the tram-cars you cannot but be struck by the words "Singer-Máquinas." Then, just raise your eyes and behold that the New York Life Insurance Company tells you in large golden letters that it has a capital of "652 Millones" (I presume, of pesetas). If I can make out the meaning of a notice in a shop in a street leading out of the Puerta del Sol, it says that American sweetmeats are to be sold there. Other indications there are of an intention on the part of the New World to repay its obligations to Spain. Where, however, are the Americans themselves, or, for the matter of that, the English? Whether it be the cholera or what not, in no capital of Europe that I have been in have I ever seen so few signs of the presence of members of the Anglo-Saxon race as in Madrid. Your new Minister, Col. Snowden, arrived a few days ago, and is staying at the Hotel de Rome, which, it may please some to know, is the most expensive hotel in Madrid. Admiral Luce, your Commissioner to the Exhibition, has also arrived and is staying at the Hotel de Russia. On our side, the British Ambassador, Sir Drummond Wolff, is spending his holiday in England, while the subjects of her Britannic Majesty are being well looked after by Mr. Reginald Tower, C.B., as *chargé d'affaires*. But where is the ordinary Briton who is buttoned up with reserve, who will not speak to me, nor will I to him, because we have not been introduced? And where is the American, who is ready to be on terms of civility, and who is "just taking a walk around" in Europe? It hardly requires a prolonged stay in Spain to justify one in saying that those who do not visit this noble country miss a great deal that is well worth seeing.

The Spaniards do not trouble themselves much to learn the languages of other people. It seems strange that French should be so little spoken in this country. English is very much of an unknown tongue. Excepting at the British Embassy, I had been unable to have a conversation in my own language when, a few mornings ago, as I was descending the stairs of the Hotel de Embajadores, a gentleman in clerical garb said, "You are an Englishman or American, I believe!" A thirsty man offered a glass of water could hardly be more pleased than I was. It was the Rev. Charles Warren Currier from Boston who did me this friendly turn. Father Currier is on his way to Huelva, and there may be something later on to tell you about the paper he has written upon the Caribs, for the Congress. It seemed odd that he, too, should have been in British Guiana, where he stayed a while when he was stationed in Surinam, in Dutch Guiana. But it is the unexpected that often happens. At dinner yesterday at the Hotel de Paris, in Seville, I found a John Bull-looking gentleman seated nearly opposite to me. Taking him to be a New Englander on his way to Huelva, I asked whether he had been in Seville long. "I speak a little English, but I am a Frenchman," said he. Then he asked me whether I was bound for Huelva, and told me he was going to read a paper at the Congress. On my inquiring the subject of his lecture, you may fancy my surprise when he told me that it was upon the languages of the aborigines of British Guiana! My new acquaintance is a Monsieur Adam, who was a magistrate in Cayenne forty years ago. His paper is founded upon some philological treatise published by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge some four years ago. The author, he says, is, or was, a missionary in British Guiana.

Should any Americans who may visit Seville hereafter wish to have pointed out to them the stone in the cathedral which marks the spot where Ferdinando Columbus lies buried, and which bears, in Spanish, the famous inscription which in English runs,

"To Castile and Leon a new world gave Colón,"

they need only say interrogatively, "Lápida, Colón?" and any urchin will, for a small copper coin of less value than a cent, point out the stone. The mention of Colón alone will suggest the Biblioteca Colón, or library of papers relating to Columbus.

At a later date it may be convenient for you to hear something of the Archivo de Indias, which is one of the great storehouses of records for the history of America, North and South. Meanwhile I shall be off to-morrow to Huelva, to attend the Congress of Americanists.

SEVILLE, October 13.

After a week at Huelva, I returned to Seville last night, by a train which was only between three and four hours late. As the attention of the world is being drawn to Huelva at the present time, and as many of us failed to get entrance into the Hotel Colón, perhaps the best hotel in all Spain, it may be well to point out that Murray's 'Handbook for Spain' does not give the whole truth when it says of Huelva, "It is an excellent resort for invalids in the winter, being many degrees warmer than Nice or Pau." This is true so far as it goes, but, on the other hand, the condition of the place is most unsanitary. Having regard to the pronunciation of its name (Well-bar), and to the abundance of its stenches, Huelva might well be renamed Smell-bar, or, better still, Smell-bad. Many eminent as well as some obscure persons have been so affected by the unwholesome condition of the place that they have had much cause to take note of the want of sanitary conveniences. Some of the inhabitants have tried to get things improved, but opposition is said to come from a medical man who is a local potentate and a true descendant of the famous Dr. Sangrado. There are signs that even the Hotel Colón, so admirably constituted, may yet suffer from the want of a general system of sanitation.

Hospitality was extended to the Americanists at Huelva in a splendid manner. Indeed, there has been more dissipation than science, and, at times, grave men have hinted that things were not as they should be. As regards organization, on all hands it has been observed that there was a sad want of it. Some people say that congresses are successes everywhere but in Spain. It is only fair to say that but few of the foreigners who attended seemed to be able to speak Spanish, and the present occasion was notably a Spanish affair. Apparently we were invited not so much to assist in glorifying Spain as to stand by and see the dons glorify themselves. As each speaker may address the Congress in his own language, there is a Tower-of-Babel air about the whole business, with sometimes a want of understanding, or a misunderstanding, of what has been said. Although the Assistant Secretary, Señor Toda, speaks English as well as French, it was a grave disadvantage for Señor Saragoza, the Honorary Secretary, that he spoke neither of those languages.

You will have heard that the next regular meeting is to take place in 1894 at Stockholm, and that a special meeting is fixed for next year at Chicago. A well-informed person tells me that but few prominent Americanists will go from Europe to Chicago, for want of a proper organization there. What on earth should make them think so, I cannot say; but I tell the tale as 'twas told to me, that there may be no chance of reproach to the New World.

Some eminent persons in the world of science and letters have been present at the Congress. Among them were Prof. Oppert and M. Hamy, both members of the Institute of France, who wore the quaint court dress of that illustrious body when court dress was *de rigueur* in the presence of the Queen. Then there was Baron Nordenskjöld, the Columbus of our age, in face the very beau ideal of culture. It was, indeed, most gratifying to see the recognition given to him on the opening day by Cánovas del Castillo, the Prime

Minister of Spain, who caused a general to leave his chair that the Scandinavian scientist might take it, and thus range himself only one place from the Premier's left hand. Prof. Pierson, from the University of Amsterdam, a notable archæologist, of whose deep studies the world will learn more ere long; Mr. Bikélas, from Athens, whose cultivated writings have found much favor outside of Greece as well as at home; Hellmann, from Berlin, who spoke fluently in Spanish; Penk, from Vienna; Storm, from Norway; Rein, from Bonn—were all there, and others besides. Marcel, the Keeper of Charts in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, was also a regular attendant. It is to him that we owe the admirable exhibition of old charts of America and of parts of America which is now on view in Paris.

A distinguished man who took part in the proceedings of the Congress was asked whether he thought anything had been added to the sum of knowledge by the several contributions. He answered, "Nothing!" It is right, however, to say that the question was put and answered before the admirable paper upon the Mexican Calendar, by Mrs. Nuttall, an American lady, was delivered. As that had the publicly expressed approval of Prof. Oppert, whose own researches in the Babylonian and Hebrew chronologies are so famous, it must be regarded as a good piece of work. To the ordinary mind, even, the paper in question seemed to let in light, and it was not the less useful because, as some one said, "it was not all original." We must make allowances for the natural jealousy of literary and scientific people. *Homo homini lupus* is true in science and art as in nature. Some one had even dared to say of Prof. Oppert himself that he was consumed with envy when he heard that Renan was to have a public funeral in France.

There was not a very large representation of the United States at the Congress. Father Currier was there and was a universal favorite. Speaking some seven or eight languages, he had an obvious advantage in such a polyglot gathering; but the charm of his manner is exceptional. Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, A.M., Director of the Blue Hill Meteorological Observatory, was an interested spectator of the proceedings. He seemed to enjoy himself as much as it is possible for a genial scientist to do. Mr. Cullin, Curator of the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, took some part in the proceedings. With the exception of somebody from a British colony, there was no one present to represent Great Britain, which alone of European countries is possessed of territory in each of the three Americas. This seems odd.

Three Spaniards are said to speak Spanish in an exceptionally masterful style: they are Cánovas del Castillo, Martos, and Castelar. We have had the gratification of hearing the orator first named. In the courtyard of the Convent of La Rábida, the Americanists were addressed by Señor Cánovas, and, although many of them did not know what he was saying, the sonorous sounds he uttered in the magnificent language of Castile fell like music upon the ear. It was like being at a concert and listening to "songs without words."

Prof. Storm observed to-day at the Columbian Library, which is in the cathedral here, that there appeared to be more books with notes upon their margins in the handwriting of Columbus than had hitherto been stated. He has gone off to get an order to enable him to examine the books, and, should his examination establish the correctness of his opinion at first sight, we shall hear further from him.

As the *Nation* numbers ladies among its readers, I feel in duty bound to point out that old Spanish lace can be secured here from an American, Mr. Benjamin Caldwell, 17A Plaza Nueva. The younger Spanish ladies are given to adopting Paris fashions. They part with the old laces to get the new French articles. The thing being to get a genuine lace, I make no excuse for touching upon this matter. To-day the secretary of the Hotel de Paris refused a 5-peseta piece I tendered him, as he thought it was base coin. From what he tells me there is much base coinage afloat. In the same way visitors get imposed upon in the matter of lace. D. D.

Correspondence.

TARIFF PRINCIPLES OF THE G. O. P.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To the end that the Republican doctrine of "protection" may be fairly stated, I have compiled from the platform and speeches of eminent orators the following, viz.:

(1.) The people are compelled to contribute to Andrew Carnegie and other infant industries because they will thereby foster the workingmen. If the contributions were made directly to the workingmen, they would not foster the Carnegies *et al.*

(2.) One of our "moral ideas" is that by increasing the misery of the pauper laborers of Europe, through the McKinley tariff, we demonstrate our sympathy with the laborers at home.

(3.) Hamilton (although sympathizing with the workingmen as much as his modern disciples) was satisfied with a low tariff, because he did not need $1,000,000,000 in order to carry on the Government; but we are confronted with the problem how to keep out imports as much as possible and at the same time raise the greatest possible revenue from imports; therefore,

(4.) In order to help the protected classes most effectively, we exclude imports of those manufactured articles which the greatest number of people require; while, in order to raise the greatest revenue, we lay a heavy tariff on such materials as have to be imported to manufacture said articles.

In this manner we compel the poor and moderately wealthy consumers, who constitute the masses of the people, to support the Government and the protected classes also, thus carrying out the principle of "the greatest tax to the greatest number." A. S. B.

Hyde Park, Ill., October 29, 1892.

THE MODERN ODYSSEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review on August 4 of my book, 'The Modern Odyssey,' attention is called to some apparent inconsistencies of chronology, and it is suggested that I never went to some of the places of which a description is given. I ought to have explained, but I then thought it unnecessary, that the chapters on the United States and Canada were the outcome of *two* visits to America, the first of which was in the fall of 1886. In the summer of the following year I again visited the Continent on my way round the world.

Yours faithfully,

The Author of 'The Modern Odyssey.'

London, October 15, 1892.

FAME IN THE *UNIVERSITY MAGAZINE*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A professional-looking person walked into my office the other day with his card and introduced himself as one of the editors of the *University Magazine*. He then said he desired to have my photograph and a sketch of my life to publish in the *University Magazine*, a periodical devoted to the interests of university education in general and the great American universities in particular. "Our object at present," he continued blandly, "is to publish portraits and sketches of the lives of graduates of colleges who are distinguished in the business walks of life. We aim to show the youth of America that high intellectual accomplishments fit men to become millionaires, as well as to shine in the professional walks of life; and there is no plainer, shorter way of proving how many college graduates are eminent in business affairs than to publish a list of celebrated names, with portraits and sketches, in the *University Magazine*."

Mr. Editor, I was very much flattered. I took down my portrait from a pigeon-hole in haste, and, leaning back in my chair, I gave the professional-looking gentleman a sketch of my career—not forgetting a few facts of history that brought in the Philadelphia Biddles and the Baltimore Garretts. It was soon finished and written down, and then my companion, dropping his voice to a confidential key, asked me how many copies of the magazine containing my portrait I would take at twenty-five cents per copy. Now, although I am a New Yorker, I did not expect such a proposition from the representative of a magazine devoted to the cause of university education. I was a little surprised. Had the professional-looking person been connected with the *Grocers' Monthly* or the *Dry Goods Weekly*, I should not have been surprised: advertisement by portrait or otherwise, in trade papers, must be paid for. But to pay for a notification to the studious youth of America that one is an A.B. or a LL.D, in a periodical devoted to the cause of higher education, seemed to me to be a new departure. I asked my friend whether every one paid for the printing of his portrait in the magazine devoted to the cause of university education. "Every one," he answered. "Do you mean to tell me," I said excitedly, seizing the magazine from his hand and putting my finger on the portrait of a well-known gentleman—"do you mean to tell me that this gentleman paid you anything for printing his portrait?" "He sent me a check for $100," the professional-looking person replied deliberately. "Then you do not intend to publish my portrait and the sketch of my life unless I hand you a check; and all the eminent lives that the *University Magazine* celebrates contribute $100 each?" I inquired. He looked me full in the face as much as to say, "Of course; what a fool you are to ask such a question."

Well, Mr. Editor, I would not contribute $100, and they did not publish my portrait and my life in the *University Magazine*. I have examined the periodical since then, where it is on exhibition at the elevated-railway stations, and I am struck with the profit there is in the publication of about thirty-six photographs in each number at $100 per head. A. B.

New York, October 27, 1892.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your No. 1425, entitled

"English at Harvard, and E'sewhere," recalls to my mind the trial of a case some years ago in our Federal Court. It involved the good faith of a subscription-book publisher towards his solicitors. The correspondence between them was received in evidence. The solicitors, to the number of forty or more, were undergraduates—about one-half of them of Colby. *Not one* of their letters produced was free from orthographical errors. Their general style and appearance suggested anything rather than that they were the work of men who had been "prepared" for college. These facts are in line with those stated in your article, and furnish their own comment.

O. K.

DETROIT, October 24, 1892.

"A PERVERT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: De Quincey, discoursing on "Coleridge and Opium-eating," designates as "modern slang" the expression which I purpose to discuss.

Dr. R. G. Latham, in his fraudulent appropriation of the Johnson-Todd *Dictionary*, a work probably no better known in the United States than it deserves to be, delivers himself, respecting it, as follows:

"A word of recent coinage, formed after *cónvert*, for which it is a term of disapprobation or sarcasm. It, of course, implies that the creed or doctrine of the speaker is right; the adopted one, wrong. Hence, when used by each of two parties, it has a different import, and, when used by one only, it is a term of limited application. As far as the editor can judge from his individual experience, it is chiefly used by Protestants, and applied to converts to Romanism. It is, however, a term of abuse, which one party is as free to use as the other. *Etymologically*, it is a good word; and this is as much as can be said in favor of it."

On one ground or other, a good part of what is here laid down is liable to demur.

Of A and B, who once professed identical opinions, B comes to profess opinions of a discrepant complexion. In these circumstances, if B takes offence because A calls him a *pervert*, A has no less ground for taking offence because B calls himself a *convert*. If, then, the newer term is to be frowned on, it should fare similarly with the older. To Dr. Latham's lip-delicate, mealy-mouthed Utopians the ambidextrous mutilation *'vert* might prove acceptable, to take the place of both the terms, with, for company, *doxy*, instead of *orthodoxy*, *heterodoxy*, and *cacodoxy*. In short, *convert* and *pervert*, as describing, from diverse points of view, one and the same person, are expressions equally useful with *emigrant* and *immigrant*. But, like Dr. Latham, I have travelled out of the record.

The position, regarding the substantive *pervert*, that, "etymologically, it is a good word," also calls for remark.

It cannot have occurred to Dr. Latham that the substantive *convert*, which suggested *pervert*, is conspicuously peculiar, as a derivative, and that *pervert* is no less so. What would he have said to such a substantive as *advert*, *avert*, *controvert*, *divert*, *invert*, *obvert*, *revert*, or *subvert*, if it had been proposed? Their analogue *pervert*, since it means "one who has been perverted," ought, normally, to be traceable to a participial adjective docked of its termination; like, in form, the obsolete *afflict* and *concoct*. But, historically, it is an infinitive, transsensed, so to speak; and, especially, it denotes a personal agent. This being the case, it is even more anomalous than *cheat*, "cheater," and *brag*, "braggart." I have assumed to be indefensible the views that it originated as a shortening of its predecesser *convertite*, from the Italian *convertito*, or else under the influence of the French *converti*.

Whatever it was in De Quincey's days, it is no longer, as he stigmatized it, "slang." Nor is it "modern," or "of recent coinage," as he and Dr. Latham, respectively, assert. Presumably, it will turn up in many an obscure old book not yet ransacked for its vocabulary. At all events, as is shown below, it was used by three authors of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries:

"I have ordered the ministers of those parishes to proceed against such *perverts* according to the utmost severity of the law." Roger Boyle, Earl of Orrery (1666), *State Letters* (1743), vol. ii., p. 75.

"So that, at present, they are seldom found at their Books, but, for the most part, Ranging from one House to another, upon pretence of encouraging and confirming their new *Perverts*, and boasting themselves for great Doctors," etc. Gabriel d'Emilianne (1699), *The Frauds of Romish Monks and Priests* (1691), p. 50.

"A Popish *pervert* and a Protestant convert are, indeed, two different provisionals." Rev. Myles Davies, *Athenæ Britannicæ*, vol. ii., p. 316 (1716).

"How unfortunate soever those native *perverts* to Popery may be deemed, 't is certain some of the first foreign converts to the Church of England were not much less unlucky," etc. *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iii., *A Dissertation upon . . . Pallas Anglicana*, p. 27 (1716).

And twice elsewhere in vol. iii. of *Ath. Brit.* occurs the substantive *pervert*.

I have seen in print *retrovert*, "relapsed convert or pervert"; a fact just worthy of passing mention. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENG., October 22, 1892.

Notes.

MR. THEODORE BENT'S book on 'The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland' will be brought out by the Longmans early next month. It will contain upwards of one hundred illustrations, besides maps and plans, and will enter into minute details concerning the cities and fortresses of the earliest gold-diggers of the world, dating back centuries before Christ. Mr. Bent's expedition was set on foot by Mr. Cecil Rhodes and the Chartered Company of South Africa. Besides archæological points, Mr. Bent's book will touch at length on the habits and customs of the inhabitants of Mashonaland, among whom his party lived for seven months.

Among other English announcements we note the following: Lord Selborne, whose accomplishments as a hymnologist have been well known since the publication of his 'Book of Praise' thirty years ago, has in the press of A. & C. Black a volume to be entitled, 'Hymns: Their History and Development.' The Dean of Rochester, Dr. Reynolds Hole, has a volume of memoirs just about to appear. It will comprise his recollections of all sorts and conditions of men, from bishops to gamblers, with many anecdotes and stories, and with some illustrations by Leech and Thackeray. The stories are likely to be good, we should say, for the Dean has a rather remarkable sense of humor, and rather less than the conventional staidness and formality of a Church dignitary. His publisher will be Edward Arnold. The conversations of Dr. Döllinger, recorded by Louise von Kobell, have been translated and will be published by George Bentley & Son. They are of the date of the last ten years of Döllinger's life, and will doubtless set forth his latest conclusions.

Mr. Charles de Kay has translated a volume of letters from Heine to his mother and sister which Cassell will publish along with 'Thoughts of Busy Girls,' by Miss Grace H. Dodge, and a translation of Ohnet's new novel, 'Nimrod & Co.'

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce, as a new number in the "Booklover's Library," 'Books in Chains,' by the late W. Blades.

S. C. Griggs & Co. have in press and will shortly issue a translation, by Mrs. Mary Bushnell Coleman, of the 'Youth of Frederick the Great,' by M. Ernest Lavisse of the Sorbonne.

Lovell, Coryell & Co. have in preparation an *édition de luxe* of Barrie's 'Little Minister,' with portrait and nine etchings on Japan paper, in two volumes, of which only 260 copies will be printed.

The Funk & Wagnalls Co. have nearly ready a book on 'English Compound Words and Phrases,' by F. Horace Teall. Its main feature is a list of nearly 40,000 terms, originally made for guidance in the preparation of the 'Standard Dictionary.' The list has been very carefully revised and explained, and is now offered as a practical aid in determining word-forms.

As usual at this season of the book trade, there is a flood of new editions, both plain and fanciful. T. Nelson & Sons send us the "Oxford Shakspere," edited by W. J. Craig, newly printed on thin India paper, making a very light duodecimo volume; and the same excellent text in the same type has been distributed in six tiny volumes, confined in a neat box, which have been dubbed the "Oxford Miniature Shakspere." The print is small, but the impression is clear, and all the appointments are in the best of taste. T. Y. Crowell & Co. have added to their "Handy Volume Classics" 'Paul and Virginia.' To embellish the text, they have copied the decorative etchings of Maurice Leloir, reduced. The binding of this series is in two colors, with much gilt, but more showy than elegant. In comparison with the artist just named, Jean Claude is but a poor illustrator, and his designs furnish little excuse for the new edition of Souvestre's 'An Attic Philosopher in Paris' (Appletons). The reproduction of his drawings by "process," too, entailed the shiny paper which is so trying to the eyes. 'Dorothy Q., together with a Ballad of the Boston Tea Party and Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is in its contents an obviously homogeneous volume, and the three ballads have been illustrated by Howard Pyle in his familiar manner and with his usual felicity for the most part. In imagining a Copley he is not at his best, and Dr. Holmes's counsel in his preface to "ascertain where the portrait by Copley is now to be found" is doubly enjoyable humor. The self-rhyming lines in the Bunker Hill ballad break a little awkwardly in the narrow measure. The cover is in dark cloth with a quaint device of silver clasps. The same firm has brought out a very generous edition of Hawthorne's 'Wonder-Book,' with sixty designs by Walter Crane. Some of these are full-page and chromolithographic, and will best suit the childish eye and fancy; but their elders will prefer the graceful head and tail-pieces and initial letters freely scattered through the book. The embossed cover is very successful.

A very welcome reprint is 'Notes by a Naturalist,' with a portrait and brief memoir of the author, the late H. N. Moseley, naturalist of the *Challenger* expedition (London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). This work was a true offspring of Darwin's

'Journal of a Voyage,' by reason of the influence of the latter first in determining Moseley's career and then in furnishing a model of many-sided observation. The present edition is handsomely made, and retains the sufficiently numerous illustrations.

The younger Dickens relates in the new reprint of the first edition of 'Dombey and Son' (Macmillan) the circumstances of the inception of that story, in Switzerland in 1846, amid the familiar complexity of carrying on another story at the same time, and in that absence from the madding crowd which seemed to fetter Dickens's productiveness. A facsimile of the wrapper for Part i. is given, and attention is drawn to the evidence it supplies of the definiteness of the original plan of this novel, whose success was instantaneous and beyond expectation. Playwrights, however, have been able to do but little with it.

Victor Hugo's 'Quatrevingt-treize,' adapted for school use, with copious notes, and Gaston Paris's 'Extraits de la Chanson de Roland,' with grammatical observations and a glossary, in a third edition, are issued by Ginn & Co. in their "International Modern Language Series," and will be welcome to teachers.

Mr. Charles Plummer, whose little book of extracts from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles was received with so much favor three years ago, is preparing a complete edition of the Parker MS. and the Laud MS. arranged side by side. The first volume, just published by the Clarendon Press (Macmillan), under the title 'Two of the Saxon Chronicles Parallel,' contains text, variants, appendices, and glossary. The second volume, which is to contain the introduction and notes, will not appear until Mr. Plummer has finished his projected edition of Bede's 'Historia Ecclesiastica.' The present instalment, however, is complete in itself, and, with its carefully revised text and elaborate glossary, can be heartily recommended to all students of English history or the English language.

The fourth part of Gotch's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) has the good qualities of its predecessors, which we have already noticed. Many of its examples are interesting; others would hardly be thought worth publishing if they were in continental Europe. The well-composed chimney-piece in South Wraxall manor-house is very characteristic of English work at that period—of its rich exuberance, vigor, and picturesqueness, and also of its faults of proportion and want of scale. The interiors are perhaps the most attractive plates, but, as we see in those of Canons Ashby and of the Red Lodge at Bristol, are curious examples of an incapacity, likewise characteristic, to design a ceiling with any proper relation to the architecture under it. They tempt one to suspect, as do many other peculiarities, that building in England more than elsewhere was the product of workmen who were pretty independent, and worked without much coördination or close direction from any artistic chief.

The projected "Delights of History" series, under the editorial care of Dr. Eggleston, with the literary and artistic assistance of his two daughters, gives us its first fruition in the little popular 'Story of Columbus' (Appletons), in which the latest researches are used, and an attempt is made to strike that mean in the character of Columbus which gratifies the common run of readers.

Mineralogists need no introduction to the new edition of Dana's 'System of Mineralogy,' lately published by Wiley & Sons, but other readers may be interested in the development of this great work. The first edition, by Prof. James Dwight Dana, appeared in 1837, and combined with his studies in zoölogy and geology to place him in the front rank of scientific Americans. The voluminous fifth edition of the work came out in 1868. The present sixth edition is the work of the author's son, Prof. Edward S. Dana, and fully maintains the high standard of scientific accuracy set by the father. It is a noble contribution to American science.

Among the newest reports of State geological surveys, we notice a volume from Arkansas, on the Novaculites or whetstones of that State, by L. S. Griswold, setting forth their remarkable structure in a very complete manner; another, from the same State, on iron ores, by R. A. Penrose, who has lately been called to the University of Chicago to take charge of Economic Geology. Prof. Branner, having completed his charge of the Arkansas survey, is now at Stanford University, Cal. The third annual report of the Texas Survey, under E. T. Dumble, contains papers by several assistants; the printing and illustration of the volume being notably better than is common in reports from official printers in Western States. Bulletin 4 of the Alabama Survey presents a comprehensive account of the structure and topography of the northeastern part of the State, by C. Willard Hayes; its analytical style being a decided departure from the simply descriptive and statistical accounts of many survey reports.

Hill's pocket 'Souvenir Guide to Chicago and the World's Fair' (Laird & Lee) begins with a description of the globe, followed by lists of places of general interest in Europe, and does not reach North America till p. 32, nor Chicago, properly speaking, till p. 71. But the information as to steamship lines and fares from all parts of the globe to Chicago will be appreciated by the foreign tourist, who will find that the 'Guide' is not devised for tourists alone, since it shows the practical workings of the Illinois secret-ballot law, and gives the cost of burial lots. The index to streets and sections of the city is ingenious, and is illustrated with views of buildings. These tiny vignettes occur throughout the book, and even the various styles of public carriages are pictured. The statistics are very full.

The Proceedings of the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia for 1890-91 forms a rich volume of 129 pages, and the list of members is a strong one as regards both numbers and ability. Probably the most important paper is contributed by Benjamin Smith Lyman, on Japanese swords. Dr. Lyman was for a number of years in the employment of the Japanese Government as geologist, and knows the archipelago and people well, remembering withal the time when the sword was a necessary part of a Japanese gentleman's equipment. Gathering together the historic and sentimental lore of the sword, well acquainted with the literature of his theme, and expert as a metallurgist, the writer furnishes a paper of fascinating interest. The article is well illustrated, and concludes with the prophecy that very speedily the Japanese sword will be "regarded in its own country as an emblem of rude savagery as well as of unenlightened military art." A paper, as appropriate appendix, is reprinted from his excellent report of 1873 on the "Japanese Method of Making Iron and Steel." Incidentally, we are reminded of the fact that the most abiding and worthy monuments of the American Scientific Commission for Yezo are the geological surveys and truly scientific reports of Dr. Lyman. Another touch with Japan is found in the article on "Tip-cats," which game is asserted by Mr. Tsuda of Kumamoto to be confined to this southern city of Japan, and to have been introduced from Corea. Among other interesting papers is one by Mrs. Cornelius Stevenson on the symbols used in the decoration of recently excavated Egyptian painted pottery. Much light is cast on the ancient symbolism, ritual, and commerce of the Mediterranean nations.

Mrs. Bishop, the well-known traveller, contributes to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October an account of a journey in Lesser Tibet which is of unusual interest. This region, lying in the heart of the Himalayas, is inhabited by Tibetan Buddhists whose chief characteristic is their extreme devotion to their religion. The lamas, 11,000 in number, constitute nearly a tenth of the entire population. Their monasteries, "vast irregular piles of fantastic buildings, almost invariably crowning lofty isolated rocks or mountain spurs," are to be found everywhere. By the roadside there are numerous figures of Sakyamuni and "frequent rows of prayer-mills, occasionally as many as 150 in a row, each containing a long roll of paper inscribed from 10 to 1,000 times with the sacred words (*Aum mani padme hun*), and revolving easily by being brushed by the hand of a passer-by." One of these cylinders, said to contain 20,000 repetitions of this mantra, is worked by water. Of one of the religious dances, symbolizing the triumph of Death, Mrs. Bishop gives a striking description. Notwithstanding such zealous fervor, the Moslem influence is increasing, partly owing to the renewal of proselytizing energy throughout Asia, and partly to the intermarriages of Moslems and Buddhists. The people are industrious—the men seldom being seen without the distaff in hand—kindly and merry and hospitable, though very stupid. Children are not weaned till they are four, five, and even six years old. This number of the magazine also contains a paper by the Prince of Monaco on the currents of the North Atlantic, illustrated by a new chart; and a description of the ruined temples of Mashonaland, having especial reference to their orientation. Mr. Bent gives various facts to show the possibly Semitic origin of the Mashona Kaffirs—such as their dynastic name, their methods of inheritance, the custom of circumcision, and the keeping of a weekly day of rest during the ploughing season.

The principal article in the October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is upon British Guiana by Mr. E. im Thurn, who since 1882 has been the "post-holder" or administrator of the northwestern district. Three distinct divisions characterize this part of the colony: the mangrove swamp which lines the coast; the dense forest belt, in places more than a hundred miles broad; and the upland savannah. The only method of communication is by water, the rivers all being connected together by an extraordinary network of narrow waterways, partly natural, partly artificial. In the forest these form leafy tunnels into which the direct rays of the sun never penetrate, while upon the trees are innumerable orchids like insects in shape and color, and gorgeous butterflies colored like flowers. Bird-life is represented mainly by humming-birds and small herons. Mr. im Thurn illustrates the astonishing fertility of the soil by the fact that in his own garden, which was cleared and drained hardly two and a half years ago, there are now already "avenues of trees (*Casuarina*) of over forty feet high which I then planted." In the past eight years great progress has been made in the development of the country

through the discovery of gold. This bids fair to be the principal industry of the inhabitants, the export having increased from 250 ounces in 1884 to 101,297 in 1891. Mr. im Thurn gives an interesting account of the native Redmen, the principal tribes being the Caribs and the Arawaks. He holds that the manner of life of the Indians of the interior is the same as it was in the days of Columbus. Their old customs, however, are now fast disappearing before the advance of the gold industry.

We have received the first number of the *American University Courier*, published at Washington "to promote the movement, so wisely and auspiciously inaugurated by the Methodist Episcopal Church of the United States, to found at the National Capital a great university." The words quoted are President Harrison's, in a letter dated October 31, 1890, conspicuously printed as his "endorsement" on the first page of the *Courier*. But when he goes on to say, "It must be a National University, with strong emphasis on both words," how can he think a sectarian institution capable of fulfilling either condition? The editors lay stress on Washington's well-known desire for a national university at the capital; but do they really believe they are carrying out his idea?

Good Government, Washington, has, by permission of Harper & Bros., reissued on plate paper the portrait of the late George William Curtis which was selected to commemorate him in his own journal, *Harper's Weekly*. It is a process engraving, and ranks among the best of the permanent prints of Mr. Curtis's humane countenance. *Good Government* offers it at a nominal price to all subscribers.

A competent American observer writes from Cassel, under date of October 3:

"I looked forward to a visit here of some length, hoping to see the gallery, which is (or was) a fine one, many times. You can judge of my disappointment when I tell you that the pictures *all*, individually and collectively, have undergone a 'cleaning' by the same sacrilegious hand; and the Rembrandts, which were exceedingly fine, are scraped down almost to the canvas, so that even in the best there is no color left. Every picture in the gallery has been treated with the same diabolical mixture of black varnish, which would be prime on a carriage and would undoubtedly stand all weather, even a German winter. The whole large gallery shines like a boot-blacking establishment. I was never so horrified by any waste as that of this splendid collection."

The demand for the report of the Harvard Committee on Composition and Rhetoric has proved so great, and the cost of printing is so considerable, that the pamphlet is to be sold hereafter for 50 cents. It may be had of the Publication Agent of Harvard University, or of Henry Holt & Co., No. 29 West 23d Street, New York.

—The first number of the "Leland Stanford Junior University Monographs" (such is the uncouth title which this institution finds itself compelled to assume for its publications) is a bulky paper by Dr. O. L. Elliott on the tariff controversy in the United States from 1789 to 1833. Dr. Elliott devotes some 270 large pages to this subject, and confines himself to it strictly: the controversy, the arguments pro and con, the debates in Congress, the writings of public men and of pamphleteers—these alone are his theme. Legislation is touched but briefly, and the crucial question of the effects of legislation is not touched at all. At this rate a complete history of tariff legislation in all its aspects would fill several volumes. Truly, of the making of books there is no end! For the rest, Dr. Elliott has performed his appointed task faithfully and intelligently. He has waded conscientiously through the dreary mass of literature on protection, and calls attention anew to some things which, if not buried in such an accumulation of uninviting material, might be pertinent to the controversy as it stands to-day. He reminds his readers that the chief circumstance which led men like Jefferson and Madison to acquiesce in a policy of protection was the absence of reciprocity—the rigid protective legislation maintained by all European countries, England included. He notes, too, that the pauper-wages argument in the early days was a weapon in the hands of the free-traders; they reasoned that, with wages so much higher in the United States, it was folly to try to foster manufactures which would not spring up of their own accord. He finds, it is true, a sporadic case of the pauper-labor argument in the hands of protectionists as early as 1809, but says with truth that it was not until twenty years later that it ceased to be used as an argument against them. When Dr. Elliott expresses his own mind, as he does in an occasional note or parenthesis on this topic and others, he speaks with sense and discretion; and we hope that if he gives us another instalment of his work, he will not only plan it on a smaller scale, but will give us less paraphrasing of the arguments of others and more of his own conclusions.

—The impressive funeral ceremony held at Westminster Abbey on the 12th of last month, when Lord Tennyson was buried in the presence of representative mourners from all classes and of all shades of opinion, offers a striking contrast to the civil rites performed about the same time in Paris in honor of Renan; but its most complete antithesis is found in the celebration also of the purely civil rite in honor of Victor Hugo. The two anthems at Lord Tennyson's funeral were lines in each case of his composition, and contained utterances about the hereafter which, though beautiful, were so very vague that neither Victor Hugo nor Renan would have found it difficult to discover in them his own ideas. Therefore the exclusion of the Church from participation in Renan's funeral was hardly necessary according to English ideas. Darwin received the same national and ecclesiastical honors that were given to the late Lord Tennyson. In England, as George Grote once indignantly exclaimed, "we can do nothing of this kind without the Church!" And this was so true that Grote himself was buried according to the rite of the Church which had exasperated him while he lived. In France both the Church and those who represent a scientific protest against her are far more logical. What Renan and Hugo would have been forced to go through in order to receive other than a civil burial is best shown by Renan's own description of the last hours of Talleyrand, when he "became convinced that the usages of society required of him *un dernier mensonge*, and resolved to reconcile himself, for appearance' sake, with a Church the authority of which, when finally submitted to by him, would convict him of sacrilege and blasphemy." Lord Tennyson, of course, was a most faithful member of the Church which honored him, but had he been as pronounced in opposition to it as Victor Hugo was against the Church in France, the last rites in his honor would hardly have been different from what they were.

—The death of Xavier Marmier does not remove a very great name from the list of French Academicians and men of letters, but it none the less makes a perceptible gap in it. For Marmier was a personage—a man with a special field of his own in literature, and with special work to do fitted to his solid if not brilliant qualities. He was, throughout his long life of more than eighty years, an intermediary between foreign literatures and French readers. He knew thoroughly English and German, and read Dutch and Russian and the Scandinavian tongues. Early in life he travelled in the north of Europe, and later made himself familiar with the United States and Canada by long visits to each. He had friends and correspondents everywhere, and by translations of books and introductions of authors he did a great deal—more than anybody else, M. A. Mézières thinks—to popularize foreign literatures in France. His was almost the typical life of a literary man, spent in the midst of books and of friends who sympathized with his tastes and pursuits, varied by not much beyond his weekly attendance at the Academy and his daily stroll among the bookstalls on the quays. The bookstall-keepers he remembered in his will, leaving a thousand francs to pay for a dinner for them and an hour of merriment spent in his memory. "This shall be my return," his will reads, "for many hours of intellectual life that I have lived during my almost daily walks along the quays from the Pont Royal to the Pont Saint-Michel."

—Ever since the publication of 'La Débâcle,' a curious little tempest has been raging in Paris over a minute historical point in that great novel. Zola, in describing the appearance of the Emperor on the morning of Sedan, says that he was rouged to conceal the ravages that moral and physical distress had made upon his countenance. "Fardé comme un acteur," his words are, and he recurs to the point two or three times in the course of the story of the day of disaster. This assertion of Zola's was contested almost at once by M. Melchoir de Vogüé, in a review of the book in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Zola replied through an interviewer that he had the fact from people who had often heard a princess of the imperial house (meaning, of course, the Princess Mathilde) recount it. Denials followed from M. Paul de Cassagnac, who saw the Emperor at Sedan; from Mr. Robert Mitchell, who also saw him; and, lastly, from the Princess Mathilde herself, who said that she had never told the story, and had not the faintest notion from what source the legend could have sprung, since many well-informed persons have told her that there was no truth in it. Then came silence for a little space, broken only by heavy booming at intervals, as one general after another fired a gun Zolawards in the newspapers. The incident is closed by an article by Zola in reply to his critics. He says that he got his "fact" out of M. Gabriel Monod's book, and that it had been verified by eye-witnesses. But he adds, somewhat amazingly when one considers who the writer is, that at most the thing was no more than a matter of trifling detail, about which a poet might very properly take the version most calculated to heighten the effect of his work.

—On the 20th of September Venice erected a monument to Fra Paolo Sarpi, the contemporary of Shakspere, the friend of Galileo, the sympathizer with the Reformation, the opponent of papal pretensions. A local sculptor, Marsili, designed the heroic statue, double life-size, in bronze, which stands in the little Campo di Santa Fosca, near the former site

of the buildings of Fra Paolo's order (dei Servi di Maria), and hard by the bridge (Ponte Diedo) which witnessed the futile attempt on his life, October 5, 1607. The artist had for his guidance a portrait preserved in the Marcian Library, and by some attributed to Bassano, by others to Tiberio Tinelli. Fra Paolo's tranquil end appears to have intensified the odium attached to his memory in papal circles, and the project of the monument was the signal for a fresh outburst against this "Calvinist." On the other hand, the Marcian library has lately come into possession of thirty-six unpublished letters of Fra Paolo's, written on generous sheets, each bearing an embossed seal which has been reproduced on the monument, the motto being *In plano quiesco*. Another find of great importance is also recent. This is a petition to the Venetian Committee of Public Safety in 1802 by the Dominican Father, Barnaba Vaerini, who confesses himself author of a scurrilous 'History of the Hidden Life of Fra Paolo Sarpi,' composed some thirty years previously, which he now asks leave to print. The libel in question in fact saw the light in 1802, and was imputed on its title-page to Monsignor Fontanini, Archbishop of Ancyra *in partibus*, a faithful subject of Venice if also a stout defender of the rights of the Church, who died at Rome in 1736. By this pious fraud the 'Storia della Vita Arcana' acquired great vogue and authority.

BESANT'S LONDON.

London. By Walter Besant. With illustrations. Harper & Bros. 1892.

THIS seems to be the best work we have yet had on the antiquarian topography of London; and if we can trust its accuracy, of which only investigators on the spot and those who have access to the records are competent judges, it contains the fruits of much painstaking research. It is not confined to mere antiquities, topographical or architectural, but gives pictures of London life through successive ages.

Between the Roman and the English London Mr. Besant thinks he has found an historical gulf. Under the form, which we do not particularly admire, of an imaginary chronicle of the time, he conveys the idea that the Saxon invader thoroughly sacked and wrecked the Roman city, and that London was deserted except by a wretched population such as finds its lair among ruins. His proofs are the absence of anything Roman either in the configuration or street nomenclature of the English city, and the paucity of the architectural remains, which, we may observe, are far inferior to those of Calleva (Silchester), though Calleva was undoubtedly razed to the ground. Afterwards, Mr. Besant thinks, the flood of barbarian invasion having subsided and peaceful times having returned, commerce crept back to its ancient and once prosperous seat. What he fails to account for is the preservation of the name Londinium, while Eboracum became York, Rutupiæ Richborough, and Calleva Silchester, and other Roman cities lost their Roman names.

We entirely concur with Mr. Besant in holding that the municipal institutions of English London were original and not derived from the Roman municipality. It appears that their origin was not political but industrial. Here Mr. Besant is at issue with Palgrave, whose love of tracing institutions to a Roman origin amounted to a passion, leading him in this direction far beyond Freeman, who was at least as tenacious of the continuity of the Roman Empire as any rational version of history would permit. These antiquarian pedigrees of institutions sometimes leave nature and circumstance too much out of account. Some government a city, whether Roman, Italian, or English, must have had, and there could hardly fail to be a certain similarity in the forms. The same may be said with regard to all the antiquarian theories about the origin of feudalism. Feudalism was the natural product of an age in which, the law affording no protection, the personal protection of the powerful was necessary to the weak; in which, there being no regular army, the military services of land-owners were the only national force; and in which, there being no central administration, territorial delegation was the only mode of government. We find territorial delegation in the Ottoman and Persian Empires, neither of which can have had any connection with the feudal system of Europe.

Another point on which Mr. Besant has his own opinion, and with regard to which he is interesting, is the aspect of London in Plantagenet times. By some antiquaries it has been depicted as a city of mean dwellings. Of mean dwellings and positive hovels, no doubt, there were great numbers, perhaps whole quarters; but in its general aspect Mr. Besant maintains that the London of the Plantagenets was a city not of hovels but of palaces. By the palaces he means the city mansions of the great nobility. Of these he believes that there were no less than thirty-five in London, some of them capable of holding a retinue of four, six, or even eight hundred men. It is not, however, to be supposed that beds were made up for all these men, as in a New York hotel. The retainers slept like dogs upon the floor. When to all these palaces are added the great number of monasteries, the municipal buildings, the halls of the companies, and the mansions of the great city merchants, we can understand that the city might deserve Mr. Besant's epithet. Over all rose the towers and spires of a multitude of churches, monastic or parochial, with the mighty St. Paul's, ill-replaced even by Wren's noble work, soaring above the rest. It was also a city of pomps and pageantry, for which the breadth of some of the streets, especially the historic Cheapside, gave room enough. It was a city of merry and brilliant social life, as well as commercial activity. On the other hand, its sanitary condition was evidently dreadful, plague was a frequent visitor, and fever was never an absentee. The accumulation of smells must have been sickening, and the combination of noises must have been most trying to the nerves, if there were such things as nerves in Plantagenet times.

The passage of Mr. Besant's book is instructive in which he describes the political connection between the London of the Middle Ages and the country. This he deems, and no doubt rightly, to have been more important than was the connection in later times. The political influence of London was great: her voice more than once morally decided the accession to the crown. But her voice was not only her own, it was that of the nation, with which, through the frequent presence in her of the rural nobility and their retainers, she was closely united. Mr. Besant suggests that the retainers, during their residence with their lords in London, would imbibe and carry back with them to the country the spirit of municipal freedom. The social separation of the landed nobility and gentry from the commercial class he thinks is of comparatively recent date. The younger sons of the mediæval nobility and gentry did not, he thinks, disdain trade; he finds that Whittington, the traditional type of a self-made man, was a gentleman by birth. London had the advantage over the Italian cities as the capital of a nation under a national government; she was thus exempted from the revolutionary politics of urban republics, and the party proscriptions of which Dante was the most illustrious victim.

Only two or three specimens now remain of the city mansions of the great merchants. The departure of the chiefs of trade from the City to West End or suburban residences has made a vast difference in the problem of city government. Elective institutions might work well enough when the election was sure to fall on a Whittington or a Gresham, as it was so long as Whittington or Gresham lived among the citizens and made his social influence felt. Perhaps no city is now so thoroughly deserted by social life as the City of London. It might furnish Prohibitionists, as has been said, with an awful instance of the decline of population accompanying the consumption of drink, for beverages of all kinds are consumed at the eating-houses where the clerks and men of business dine in the middle of the day, while there are scarcely any residents, and out of business hours hardly a footfall is heard.

What with the demolition of the monasteries and their churches, the wide ravages of the great fire, and the migration of the nobility and the merchant princes, there is a gulf between the mediæval and the modern city—not so wide as that between the Roman and the English city, yet very wide. If London was a city of palaces in the time of Edward III., it was, says Mr. Besant, a city of ruins in the time of Elizabeth. He alludes to the destruction of the monasteries and the churches attached to them, some of which, as the Church of the Dominicans, were magnificent, full of the most venerable monuments, and consecrated by the most interesting traditions. The Church of the Knights Hospitallers was blown up with gunpowder. Crutched Friars Church was turned into a carpenter's shop and a tennis court. The Priory of the Holy Trinity was, with great labor, pulled down, and the material sold for paving or building-stones at sixpence a cartload. The Church of Austin Friars escaped, but the spire, the finest in the city, was pulled down by the Marquis of Winchester, and a priceless group of historical monuments was sold for £100. Mr. Besant is here led to ask how there should have been, even among the baser sort, so little reverence for the past and so little regard for art as to allow these glorious buildings to be demolished, and these treasure-houses of monumental art to be rifled without a protest; for it appears that no protest was made except in the case of the spire of Austin Friars. He cites instances of recent vandalism, with the remark that the reverence for what is historical is confined to a few. This is true, and the present revival of mediæval art, while it has produced an effect on the religious sentiment of people of taste, has produced no effect whatever on the religious sentiment of the masses. But in this case there was something more than æsthetic insensibility. The corruption and the covetousness of the monks and ecclesiastics had made them and their houses objects of positive hatred to the people, who, so long as they got rid of the cormorant brood, would care nothing for the destruction of the loveliest nest. In Spain the monks of one of the richest and stateliest abbeys, when the abbey was dissolved, had to flee for their lives from popular

hatred. Not a single note of mourning, we believe, is to be found in the Elizabethan literature over what seems to all of us, now that monastic corruption is a thing of the past, an act of extreme vandalism, while to churchmen it seems an act of sacrilege.

About the London of the Stuarts and Pepys, or that of the Georges, Hogarth, and Dr. Johnson, there is less to tell that we did not know before, but there is something new in the aspect under which the familiar facts are presented by Mr. Besant. One important change, he says, was that mercantile life ceased to attract the younger sons of the gentry, who found employment in the army or navy, and the city was thus severed from the counties.

"Trade," he says, "was no longer recruited from the better sort, class distinctions were deepened and more sharply defined even among the middle class. A barrister looked down upon a merchant, and would not shake hands with an attorney, while a simple clergyman would not associate with a man in business—Sydney Smith, for instance, refusing to stay a night at a country house because its owner was a banker and a tradesman."

We cannot help doubting this anecdote of Sydney Smith, who was not a man of family, but was a man of sense. What we believe to be true, and what would serve Mr. Besant's purpose as an illustration equally well, is, that the banker poet, Rogers, who was extremely sensitive about his social position, quarrelled with Sydney Smith for having alluded, in aristocratic company, to the firm of Rogers & Co.

We must not overlook the illustrations to this volume, which are numerous and very interesting.

FRENCH DANTE MANUSCRIPTS.

Les Manuscrits de Dante des Bibliothèques de France. Essai d'un catalogue raisonné. Par Lucien Auvray. Paris: Ernest Thorin. 1892.

Dante Allighieri. Traité de l'éloquence vulgaire. Manuscrit de Grenoble, publié par Maignien, Conservateur de la Bibliothèque de Grenoble, et le Dr. Prompt. Venice: Olschki. 1892.

Some months ago we called attention to the fact that France, which, since the days of Fauriel and Ozanam, has shown a singular lack of interest in Dante and his century, has recently awakened from her temporary neglect of a great poet. Prof. Gebhardt's 'L'Italie Mystique' was followed by Rod's 'Vie de Dante,' and that by Mlle. Augis's translation of J. A. Symonds's 'Introduction to the Study of Dante' and by Jeanroy's excellent article in the 'Grande Encyclopédie.' More recently the Dominican Father Berthier has begun the publication of a copiously illustrated theological commentary on the 'Divine Comedy.' Now we see a further proof of this reawakening of interest in the full descriptive catalogue which M. Auvray, Assistant Librarian at the National Library, has attempted of all the manuscripts of the 'Divine Comedy,' or of commentaries on it, or of the lesser works of Dante, possessed by the libraries of France—a total of about sixty manuscripts, of which thirty-six are of the 'Divine Comedy.' This work of classification, identification, and description had been attempted in 1835 by Marsand, whose scholarship was so little trustworthy that on different occasions he gave two conflicting accounts of the same manuscript; and again, in 1846, in the well-known bibliography of De Batines, who, however, had not himself had an opportunity to study the collections in the French libraries, availing himself, instead, of information furnished him by Ferrari. M. Auvray's catalogue is therefore the first that can be regarded as both trustworthy and complete.

The notes on the manuscripts of the 'Divine Comedy' are not the most interesting part of the book. Twenty-one of the thirty-five have already been described, so far as the character and value of their textual readings go, by Dr. Moore, in his 'Contributions to the Textual Criticism of the Divina Commedia.' Moreover, fourteen of the MSS. mentioned by De Batines have now found their way back into Italy, to the Laurentian Library at Florence; two are now in America—one the property of the Harvard College Library, the other of Prof. Norton. Of what may be gathered from the French collections as to Täuber's two families of manuscripts—the Boccaccio group, the type of which is the Vatican MS. long attributed to Boccaccio; and the Barberino group, so called from the copyist, Francesco ser Nardo da Barberino, whom Täuber attempts to identify with the poet Francesco da Barberino, Dante's contemporary—M. Auvray has little that is definite to state. But nothing, he says with reason, could be a more fitting task for the new Italian Dante Society than the publication of a "palæographic album" which should contain photographic facsimiles of the writing of Nardo and his pupils, and typical specimens of the more important MSS. of the 'Divine Comedy.'

It is not surprising to find the French libraries rich in commentaries on the 'Divine Comedy'; that would be only natural in a country where Italian and the Italians have never been an object of common knowledge. Of the many commentators of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, there are few which are not represented there by at least one manuscript. These MSS., however, have very rarely been made use of by editors of the commentaries, and several of them in M. Auvray's catalogue are for the first time brought to the knowledge of scholars under their proper titles.

Besides the commentaries, the French libraries possess an important MS. of the 'Convito,' an instructive translation of the 'De Monarchia,' and the Grenoble MS. of the 'De Vulgari Eloquio.' This last, which we now have before us in a complete photographic reprint, is of unusual interest and importance. Only two other MSS. of this work are known to exist; one is at the Vatican, a copy from an older original, now lost, which belonged to Lorenzo dei Medici; the other is in the library of Prince Trivulzio at Milan. That of the Vatican is of inferior importance, but between the manuscript of Grenoble and that of Milan there exist interesting relations. First, both evidently go back to the same original, for the mangled Provençal quotations and certain peculiarities of the arguments prefixed to the chapters make it hard to believe that the two texts were not copied one from the other or from an original identically the same. Second, the Milan MS. was that on which Trissino based his translation of the 'De Vulgari Eloquio,' the rare *editio princeps* printed at Vicenza in 1529, the year before Trissino, as ambassador of the Pope, attended Charles V. at Bologna and witnessed the definitive establishment of the Spanish power in Italy. Trissino did not add the Latin original of his version, and the theories which Dante advanced agreed so aptly with those for which he was then sponsor, that there were not wanting then and later those who declared the translation an imposture. That there was a Latin original was proved, to the satisfaction of many, by the publication of it at Paris, in 1577, by Jacopo Corbinelli, from a manuscript in his possession. It now appears, from the investigations of M. Maignien and Dr. Prompt, that the Grenoble MS. is that which Corbinelli owned, for, first, the numerous marginal comments, long supposed to have been made in the eighteenth century, are identical, the editors assert, with the emendations which would bring the text into conformity with Corbinelli's edition of 1577; and, secondly, the handwriting is the same as Corbinelli's own fluent and graceful script, which has been preserved for us in a number of his books. More than this, the editors declare that these emendations of Corbinelli, these adaptations by which the Grenoble MS. became the text of 1577, were in almost every instance the modifications necessary to make it agree with Trissino's earlier Italian version.

If that be so, and a comparison shows grounds for the assertion, we have a curious spectacle. Trissino, the Dryden of his age, publishes—anonymously, it would seem—an Italian version of the 'De Vulgari Eloquio,' leaving a mystery hanging over the source of his translation. Fifty years later the Florentine exile, Corbinelli, ex-tutor of Henry III., and already secret informer for Henry IV., publishes the Latin text, dedicating it to Henry III.:

"Recevrez ce present, ouvrage qu'en exil,
Honorant sa Patrie, fit Dante le gentil.
Dante en exil le fit: et Corbinel en France.
Sans aucun sien meffait exilé de Florence.
Fort de vostre bonté, tesmoignant les bienfaits
De vostre cueur Royal qui par vous luy sont faits:
Corbinel, en exil honorant sa Patrie.
Remet ce livre au jour, d'une seule Coppie
Rescous du fons d'oubly: et d'exil le tirant,
Le rappelle de ban, à voz pieds le sacrant."

But of Trissino and the edition of 1529 Corbinelli says not a word, although, if the editors are right, it was by it that he was guided in emendation. It would certainly not have added to his prestige that the French Court should know that his "seule coppie" was not unique and his publication virtually not the first.

The reproduction of the MS., which is entirely successful, includes even the binding. The notes of the editors are less satisfactory. Indeed, for a full and trustworthy rehabilitation of the confused text and the determining of the many questions depending thereon, we must still wait for the long-promised edition of Prof. Raina.

State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff. With an Introduction by F. W. Taussig. Cambridge: Published by Harvard University. 1892.

This volume contains Alexander Hamilton's famous "Report on Manufactures," presented to the House of Representatives in 1791; the speeches of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster upon the Tariff Bill of 1824; Gallatin's Memorial of the Free Trade Convention of 1831; and Robert J. Walker's "Treasury Report" of 1845. While this material is to be found in large libraries, it is not conveniently accessible to the public, and Prof. Taussig deserves the gratitude of all who are interested in following the history of our fiscal policy, as well as of those who care to make the question of protection a subject of serious inquiry.

It must be said, however, that the perusal of these papers gives rise to very mingled emotions. After the lapse of a century it is now contended by protectionists that our favored manufacturers require the aid of duties fourfold and in many cases tenfold as high as those recommended by Hamilton when the

plea of "infancy" was plausible; and they have succeeded in embodying their contention in law. On the other hand, the arguments upon which Hamilton relied for establishing his case, and which for the most part were conclusive upon the issue as then presented, have become obsolete, and modern protectionists have nothing that deserves consideration to urge in their place. The battle of argument has gone altogether against them, but they have succeeded in the contest of legislation. Sufficient explanations of this phenomenon may be offered; but it is melancholy to consider that any cause has practically triumphed in our counsels while its logical support has disappeared. At the same time, after a careful review of Gallatin's argument, we must concede that it is upon the whole superior to any modern presentation of the cause of free trade with which we are acquainted. The particular illustrations are no longer in point, but the general principles are the same, and their statement is so nearly perfect that very unusual talent must be employed to improve upon it.

Yet it must not be forgotten that the weight of argument had its legitimate effect. After forty years of increasing duties, the protective tendency was checked, and although the progress of reform was arrested in 1842, it was resumed in 1846, and continued until the contest with the Slave Power absorbed the zeal of all reformers. Walker's report is of interest as announcing the improved policy which was about to prevail, and it is a state paper of great ability; but there will be no difference of opinion with Prof. Taussig as to its falling below the work of Hamilton and Gallatin. It has no lack of argumentative power, but it is neither so complete in substance nor so symmetrical in form as the earlier discussions. Perhaps it is worth notice that the declaration made in the platform of the Democratic party this year as to the unconstitutionality of protective duties is implied in Walker's report as well as in Gallatin's memorial.

The speeches of Clay and Webster are of course not without interest, but they do not contribute much to the scientific study of the issue. As argument, Clay's speech is little superior to the puerilities of McKinley, and it must have owed its effect to the eloquence and earnestness of the orator. It consists chiefly of impassioned assertions of long-exploded fallacies, and contains little in the nature of fact. Webster's reply is effective by reason of his acquaintance with economic data, but he was hampered to some extent by the existence of protected manufacturers among his constituents. It contains nothing finer than his denunciation of the contemptible practice, not confined to that era, of calling protectionism the "American policy." As he effectively pointed out, the so-called American policy was an imitation of the policy of foreign States, while the "foreign policy" consisted in "a preference for our own established system as it now actually exists and always has existed."

We concur with Prof. Taussig in his judgment that Hamilton's report remains the strongest presentation of the case for protection that has ever been made by any American statesman. At the same time we incline to regard it as the strongest arraignment of that case, as it now stands. His theoretical argument is pervaded with that native aristocratical sentiment which his political experience had done so much to strengthen. He had practically forced the Constitution upon an ignorant and reluctant people, and he believed himself competent to force industries upon them which should be as beneficial economically as the Constitution was politically. Singularly enough, he embodies in his argument a tolerably complete list of manufactures which were already flourishing, without apparently noticing that he refutes his own theoretical propositions. As is well known, he fixes the highest protective duty at 15 per cent., at a time when our country was feeble and exposed to the vindictive commercial rivalry of Great Britain. Had he foreseen the culmination of his policy in the tariff of 1890, we believe that he would have shrunk in terror from its inception.

The American Missionary in Japan. By Rev. M. L. Gordon, M.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

DR. GORDON'S handy little book, of fewer than three hundred pages, and dainty in its American dress of Quaker gray and silver, with Japanese design of full moon and plum-blossoms, is a striking commentary on President Arthur's felicitous term for the United States of "the great Pacific Power." The American missionaries, beginning with Liggins, Brown, Verbeck, and Hepburn, have done more than propagate dogma: they were the exemplars of the civilization of Christendom in its most winning form. They introduced good medicine, rational therapeutics, the wash-tub and board, the stove, soap, and household comforts. They ministered to intellectual hunger and fed the mind. They lived down suspicion and disarmed prejudice and even persecution. They trained some of the young men who led the revolution of 1868, and most of the mature men who now hold the helm of Japan. They educated thousands in parliamentary procedure. It may fairly be questioned whether representative and constitutional government in Japan could have won the marvellous measure of success thus far attained without the presence of the American missionaries and their long and patient training of the people. The overwhelming majority of church members, for a decade or more, consisted of men—young samurai, of the class, hereditarily gifted and numbering now about 400,000, which always has governed Japan and for a long time to come will govern it. These young men, in scores of well-known instances, graduated directly from the church meetings in which the special virtue of self-control had been emphasized and cultivated, first into the local, and then into the national assemblies. For their scholarship, varied abilities, character, and demonstrated unselfishness, the names of some of these Americans are household words in the Mikado's Empire. Both Government recognition and private popular esteem have been strikingly manifested.

With a directness, frankness, and clearness that charm, Dr. Gordon tells the story of his twenty years' experience as missionary, evangelist, helper, servant, and friend of the Japanese. There are no "natives" or "heathen" in his lexicon. He knows only friends, brothers, and the needy. He tells of his study of the people and their fascinating and exasperating language, of the famous "Kumamoto band" of converts that now form a coterie of literary and theological leaders, of Japanese preaching and preachers, of the incidents of evangelistic tours, of the lights and shadows of the work, of the Independent and Associated churches, of the great university founded by Neesbima in Kioto, of medical missions, and of Christian womanhood. With practical good sense, he discusses denominationalism and comparative religion, and pictures the merits and demerits of Shin Nippon (New Japan). As full of wit and humor, choice anecdote, racy allusion, and poetic thought as a pudding is of plums, this book is sure to be widely read.

Like a sensible man, Dr. Gordon mourns neither over the so-called "reaction" nor the tendency of the Japanese to do their own thinking, even of a theological sort. He rather rejoices that they have passed the nursling stage, in which swallowing is the only act necessary to nourishment. Now that they have grown teeth and are able both to chew and eschew, and even desire occasionally to rest in order to sound digestion, our healthy-minded Christian is actually happy. So well-grounded is his confidence in the ultimate victory of Christianity in Japan that, his vacation over, he again sets his face towards Kioto, for a new term of service. As a means of intelligently informing the average person exactly what Protestant Christian missionary work in Japan is, this little volume is equal to a barrel of the much-printed but little-read sectarian literature intended to hold both prejudices and pocket-books.

On the Modification of Organisms. By David Syme. Melbourne: George Robertson & Co.; London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 164.

AFTER perusal of treatises advocating the Darwinian hypothesis, Mr. Syme's book is a good one to take up as a corrective. The author clears his ground as he raises his own construction. In doing so he makes numerous generally well-considered attacks on the theories of his predecessors. Darwin's conclusions receive by far the greatest amount of attention, and, it must be admitted, they do not improve under their merciless treatment. Some of the points are familiar already, but in the critical dissections in which they and others are made to figure, further havoc is wrought upon the premises against which they are turned. At first, six of the seven chapters in the work seem to be filled with destructive onslaughts on Darwinism; closer examination shows each to be attended by something which, in the author's opinion, will more satisfactorily occupy the position attacked and at the same time form an additional element in support of the theory for which it is proposed to displace that of natural selection. The common objection urged against dissenters, though applicable to the majority of advocates, that they have not fully comprehended selection, is of no avail in the present case. Any uncertainty vanishes before Mr. Syme's discussions of the definitions and offices of selection, results of competition, elimination, origin of variation, coloration, sexual characters, intelligence, instinct, cross-fertilization and insects, and modifying agents in general. In the author's scheme the single cell is taken as the point of departure; it is the source of all change; it is the biological unit, the irreducible vital entity, the seat of life and energy, the key that unlocks the mystery of organic modification. It is also the psychological unit, the irreducible unit which feels, thinks, and wills—a marvel and a mystery, possessing potentialities beyond anything in nature; a unit behind which it is not possible to go any more than behind the biological unit or the physical unit or atom. The community of the psychi-

cal units is called the soul, and a synthesis of these units the ego; the functions of the two being so distinct that the latter not only does not direct, but is not even conscious of, the operations of the former. The modifying actions proceed from the organism as a whole, and also from every part, external conditions furnishing only occasion or incitement, while organic change is the result of physiological changes.

Some of the most important differences between Mr. Syme and other anti-Darwinians exist in terms rather than in substance. The existence of the struggle to conform is recognized, but perhaps not in its due importance as compared with the struggle in direct competition. To the great struggle to adapt we should trace the tendencies of portions of species to vary in particular directions, thus inducing divergences through which new species originate without the elimination or even existence of intermediate forms. Severe competition is shown to be always degrading. It is shown that dichogamy in plants is not the result of benefit from insect visits, but of injury and adaptation; it is stated that the greater number of plants do not cross-fertilize, and that where insects are most numerous, in the tropics, attractive flowers are least abundant. Insect intelligence is made to account for protective resemblances. Certain sexual features usually supposed to be related to the same sex are shown to be adaptations relating to the other. The breeding habit of the Megapodes, hatching the eggs in heaps of decaying vegetation, is said to be a secondary instinct. "This is a modified or acquired instinct; but had the bird not possessed the primary incubating instinct in the first instance, it could never have acquired this modified form of it." How would Mr. Syme explain the case of the alligator, which makes a similar nest? "Many Arctic animals change their coats as many as four times during the year—are dark-colored in summer, white in winter, and an intermediate color in spring and autumn." It needs but one change of coat (moult) to account for all these colors: the new coat of dark color is acquired in summer; in the fall it passes through the grayish tint as it becomes white for the winter, and, as the new summer coat appears among the white hairs late in spring, the intermediate tint again is visible.

Primitive Man in Ohio. By Warren K. Moorehead. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892. 8vo, pp. 246.

In this volume Mr. Moorehead gives us the result of some years of work in the Ohio valley, in the course of which he explored 107 mounds, graves, and cemeteries. Much of this labor was done at his own expense and under circumstances that entailed great personal discomfort; but in spite of the adverse conditions his enthusiasm never flagged, and, as a result, he has brought together a collection which has rarely if ever been surpassed. As was to have been expected, some of these mounds were mere heaps of earth, or earth and stones, and contained nothing of interest, while in others the finds were rich in number and varied in character. To enumerate all the different types were a profitless task. Suffice it to say that among them may be found the usual assortment of implements and ornaments in stone, bone, shell, and copper, together with a number of the skulls and other osseous remains of the people who made and used them. Specimens of the different kinds are figured and described, and though perfectly satisfactory as far as they go, yet they do not give an adequate idea of the collection, which in point of size and variety of contents, and by virtue of the presence of certain new forms, is of the first importance.

While fully appreciating the amount and character of Mr. Moorehead's work, we are obliged to confess that, from an ethnological point of view, it tells us nothing new. Articles similar in kind to those he unearthed have been described by Squier, Putnam, Thomas, and others, and, so far as they and the crania bear upon the question of race, they do not indicate a different civilization from that which the Indian is known to have reached, nor do they require the invention of another people in order to explain them. This our author evidently perceives, for though he does not say it in so many words, yet it is clearly what is meant when he tells us, p. 199, that "nothing more than the upper status of savagery was attained by any race or tribe living within the limits of the present State of Ohio"; that "all statements to the contrary are misrepresentations"; and that "if we go by field testimony alone (not to omit the reports of early travellers among North American tribes), we can assign primitive man high attainments in but few things, and these indicate neither civilization nor an approach toward it."

To this conclusion, except so far as the charge of misrepresentation is concerned, we certainly do not object; but when our author, abandoning the field of personal exploration, approaches the subject from what may be termed the historic side, he betrays a want of preparation that makes it impossible for him to discuss the origin of these works in a full and satisfactory manner. Take, for instance, the statement, p. 106, that he "had never heard that" articles of European manufacture "were found in any of these hollow or earth-filled graves"; while it is doubtless true, it carries no weight in the investigation, for the reason that others of us have heard of such discoveries. Indeed, if he will consult "Aboriginal Monuments of New York," in vol. ii. 'Smithsonian Contributions,' p. 129, he will find that glass beads were taken from similar graves at Augusta, Ky., hardly a day's travel from where he was at work. So, too, the statement, p. 115, that there is "evidence that this region was occupied by an industrious community long anterior to the invasion of the Shawnees," may be true if, by invasion, he means the retreat of this people westward, across the Alleghany Mountains, and their return to Ohio, about A. D. 1725. But if, going back some two or three centuries, he refers to the time when they were first in Ohio—before they had been driven away by the Iroquois—his evidence will lose much of its force; for we are told that they were living in that region when it was first visited by the whites, and, so far as we know anything to the contrary, they may have been there for hundreds of years. Now, it must not be supposed from this that we intend to assert that they built all of the remains, or any particular one, for the Cherokees and other mound-building tribes are said to have lived there at some time in the past, and they may have erected some of them. What, however, we do affirm is, that the evidence, historical and archæological, of the Shawnee origin of some of these graves, cemeteries, and mounds is of such a character as to make it incumbent upon any one who denies it to give a reason for the faith that is in him.

In the preparation of this volume, as well as in the work of exploration, Mr. Moorehead had the assistance of Messrs. Gerard Fowke, H. T. Cresson, and "Jack" Bennett. To the first of these gentlemen we are indebted for a valuable paper upon the character and extent of Flint Ridge—that immense storehouse from which the aborigines drew the crude material for many of their arms and implements, while in chapter i. Mr. Cresson gives, in a clear and concise form, the evidence upon which is predicated the existence of palæolithic man within this region. He is also to be credited with the chapter upon the crania, in which, among other things, he notes the presence of different forms of skulls in these cemeteries, and uses it as proof that this region was once the seat of a war between a people with long and one with short heads. This may or may not have been the case; but, admitting it to be true, it will fit in with the account of the expulsion of the Shawnees from this region, for the Iroquois, who drove them away, had, according to Dr. Wilson, long heads, while the testimony of the graves in places once held by the Shawnees, and, so far as we know, by no other people, leaves but little doubt as to the prevalence of short heads in that tribe. The illustrations, of which we have fifty-four, were made from drawings by Mr. Bennett, and give a good idea of the different articles and the conditions under which they were found.

Early Bibles of America. By Rev. John Wright, D. D., Rector of St. Paul's Church, St. Paul, Minn. Thomas Whittaker. 1892. 12mo, pp. vi, 171.

The author has done rather uneven work in giving one-half of his pages to three Bibles, and condensing his treatment of all the others which he notices to such an extent that often he appears to be giving little more than a bare list. To be sure, the Eliot Indian Bible, the "Saur" German Bible, and the "Aitken" English Bible are of interest as the first American editions in those languages; but others also possess considerable interest and should not be passed by too lightly. It is evident that Dr. Wright has not seen all of the books which he describes, though, in fact, no one else is likely to have had that privilege. His accuracy is thus dependent upon that of secondary sources, conditioned by the liability to error incidental to compilation, type-setting, and proof-reading. Errors of date are, in fact, we believe, rare. The sources in question are not numerous, but have been well used. References to them, however, being infrequent, it is not always possible to trace a given statement. It is strange not to find any mention of Dr. Isaac H. Hall's monograph upon the Greek Testament of America, a book which is practically exhaustive in its line. It can scarcely be that Dr. Wright was ignorant of its existence. His main service is in having, after considerable correspondence, determined the whereabouts of a number of the "Saur" Bibles and some of the others, and in having told his story in popular language.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E. The Documents of the Hexateuch Translated and Arranged. Putnams. $3.
An Exquisite Fool: A Novel. Harpers. 50 cents.
Appleton, R. Mrs. Harry St. John: A Novel. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. $1.25.
Baby John. By the author of Miss Toosey's Mission. Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Bailey, Prof. M. A. American Mental Arithmetic. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Barbour, Rev. L. G. The End of Time: A Poem of the Future. Putnams. $1.50.
Barnes, Mary S. Studies in American History. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Batchelor, Rev. J. The Ainu of Japan. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Bell, Malcolm. Edward Burne-Jones: A Record and a Review. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $20.
Bourgade la Dardye, Dr. E. de. Paraguay: The Land and the People. Scribners. $2.25.
Bourget, P. La Terre Promise. B. Westermann & Co.
Calmettes, F. A Fisher Girl of France. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie's Studio. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. Rhymes and Ballads for Girls and Boys. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Dale, D. The Little Doctor; or, The Magic of Nature. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 10, 1892.

The Week.

As we go to press, not only is Mr. Cleveland elected by an overwhelming majority of the Electoral College, as well as by a popular majority, but there seems good reason to hope that he may be supported by a Congress Democratic in both branches. The House of Representatives is Democratic by a great majority. The Senate now consists of 47 Republicans, 39 Democrats, and 2 Farmers' Alliance men. The Democrats have gained one Senator in this State. There seems no doubt that Nevada will return Senator Stewart as an anti-Republican. He took his stand against the Republicans on the Force Bill two years ago, and he has openly opposed Harrison and the whole Republican policy during the late canvass. The loss of two other seats would cost the Republicans their control of the upper branch, for there is no issue on which they can win over the two Independents, and, in case of a tie, Vice-President Stevenson, as the presiding officer, would decide the question against them. The chances seem at least even that the Republicans have lost the Legislatures in at least two of these five warmly-contested States which are to choose Senators — Wyoming, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Nebraska. Even if there proves to be a nominal Republican plurality of two or four, it is not a plurality upon which dependence can be placed. Two Republican Senators voted against the McKinley Bill two years ago, and it is not unreasonable to expect that Republican votes can be secured, if necessary, for its repeal. On every account, it is to be hoped that both branches of the legislative department may be in sympathy with the Executive.

Returns from about three-fourths of Massachusetts indicate that Gov. Russell has been reëlected by a small plurality. If the full vote sustains these indications, it will prove one of the greatest personal triumphs ever achieved by a public man in this country. Massachusetts is a Republican State, and has chosen Harrison electors by a considerable majority, but there is so much independence among her voters that about 10,000 men who supported Harrison for President at the same time voted for Russell for Governor, on the ground that he was the better man of the two candidates and deserved another term. It is a matter of little consequence to the Governor, however, whether he is reëlected or not. In either case no man of his generation has a brighter political future before him, and the best of it is that he deserves all that he has had or may yet receive.

The result in Connecticut is cause for especial congratulation. Not only does Cleveland carry the State by a very large plurality, but the Democrats appear to have elected the Governor by a majority on the popular vote, and there will be no more Bulkeleyism. The spectacle presented by the old-time "land of steady habits" for two years past has been most discreditable, and it is encouraging to find that Republicans enough have turned against their party to put an end to the disgrace.

The State law makes a bet on an election a disqualification for voting, but it is never enforced by challenge or otherwise. For a good while, however, betting on the result was confined to the sporting fraternity, who bet on everything which has an element of chance in it. When it first spread beyond this class, the stakes were trifles, such as hats, boxes of cigars, cases of champagne, dinners, and the like, or submission on the part of the loser to some sort of public penalty, such as wheeling somebody in a barrow on the street or walking down Broadway with his coat turned inside out. But within the last eight years, that is, since 1884, the practice has grown to such a degree that betting on the election has become almost as common among the community at large as betting on horse-races among the occupants of the grand stand. What is most amazing and alarming is, however, that the party committees have taken it up as a regular and legitimate and effective mode of influencing the opinion of the voters—a not unnatural result of the raising of the tariff issue, let us add, and of the conversion of the Republican party into a business organization, pure and simple, for pecuniary gain. The committees have since 1888 made a regular practice of arming betting men with large sums of money to be "placed" on the chances of their respective candidates. Quay did this with remarkable success in 1888, for, under our new régime of secret purchase of votes, nothing spreads more terror than the news that the other side are offering heavy odds, because people think it shows that they have "squared" some boss, or bought up some "block" of voters, or made some sort of an arrangement in some doubtful district or State which will insure them the victory. Twenty years ago, if this had been done by a campaign committee, it would have been done on the sly, with some care as to privacy. It is now done openly and with loud shrieks of defiance.

In truth, "the use of money in elections" has reached a pitch of which the gloomiest pessimist of half a century ago could never have dreamed. It is almost a point of honor now with a rich man who interests himself in politics at all, to back his opinion of his candidate's prospects by laying odds on him. The amounts offered, too, rise in every canvass. A million, or any part of it, has been offered in this campaign by one man. Poorer men "place" what their means will allow, and the practice has spread through all ranks of society. The clerks and office-boys are all betting on the election, just as the bad ones who rob the till bet on horse races. How long will it be before the tills begin to be robbed in order to back up the cause of protection or free trade? We hope thoughtful men and women all over the country are reflecting on the probable effect on the rising generation, the lads of from fifteen to twenty, of getting their first view of American politics in the betting-ring, and seeing the Presidential election treated as a game of chance, on which it is no harm for the best man to "take a flyer." They will do well, too, to consider the probability that a man who has staked ten thousand dollars on the result, will refuse to cover himself by advancing a Quay or a Carter one or two thousand as "soap" to make assurance sure.

The latest appeal of the McKinleyites was for "stability" in tariff legislation. They assured their victims that what is needed by business interests is the avoidance of changes, and that steadiness could be secured only by keeping the Republican party in power. One scrap of history will suffice to demolish this argument. The Republican party has made twenty-six changes in the tariff by separate bills since it came into power, viz.:

Act of March	2, 1861	Act of July	14, 1870
Act of Aug.	6, 1861	Act of May	1, 1872
Act of Dec.	24, 1861	Act of June	6, 1872
Act of July	14, 1862	Act of June	22, 1874
Act of March	3, 1863	Act of Feb.	8, 1875
Act of April	29, 1864	Act of March	3, 1875
Act of June	30, 1864	Act of July	1, 1879
Act of March	3, 1865	Act of June	14, 1880
Act of May	16, 1866	Act of May	6, 1882
Act of July	28, 1866	Act of March	3, 1883
Act of March	2, 1867	Act of May	9, 1890
Act of March	25, 1867	Act of June	10, 1890
Act of Feb.	24, 1869	Act of Oct.	1, 1890

If there has been any one speech in the campaign which has summed up the moral position of the party in whose behalf it was spoken, it is the speech of Thomas B. Reed in Cooper Union last Saturday evening. These were the ex Speaker's closing words, than which there could not possibly have been a more fit and proper closing to the Republican campaign of 1892:

"I am very honestly in favor of the Republican party. [Cheers.] I am not in favor of the Republican party on account of its principles, but on account of itself. I believe that principles do not make parties, but that parties make principles. [Applause.] The only wise and sensible thing for a man to do in a practical world is to find out which is the best crowd and then belong to it. [Applause.] And when he has once found the best crowd and has belonged to it, the best thing he can do is to keep on."

Of Mr. Reed's honesty in making this declaration there can be no doubt. The declaration is too characteristic, too explicit, too thoroughly accurate as a picture of the present mental condition of the Republican party to be the fruit of anything but sincerity. That so monstrous and stupid a confession of faith could be made by a conspicuous party leader at the last great meeting of a Presidential compaign, renders unnecessary further comment on the recent stampede of American intellect out of that party's ranks. To a man in ordinary mental condition Mr. Reed's doctrine would be sufficiently blasted by showing the absolute impossibility of party purity or party reform, of good government or independent citizenship, under such a rulership. It could be met by showing that, with Reed's proposition put conscientiously into practice by every citizen, the voters coming of age and the immigrants brought up for naturalization could alone serve to alter the results, for good or bad, of a previous election.

If there were nothing else to account for the extraordinary way in which the college graduates and professors have abandoned the Republican party, reason enough would be found in the speeches which McKinley has been delivering on trade and finance. That a man who has fathered one of the most noted pieces of economic legislation of modern times, in the American Congress, and is Governor of one of the greatest States in the Union, should be as ignorant of the mechanism of international trade as he has shown himself to be, naturally makes educated Americans blush for their country. His ridiculous story about our gold receipts from England last year, would be punishable in most preparatory schools in England and Germany. When we export more than we import, the balance is accounted for, as a rule, in one of three ways, or in all three: we may take payment of it or part of it in gold; if so, the amount appears in the Custom-house returns. If it does not appear there, it shows that we have by our exports been paying interest on our debts due in Europe (such as railroad bonds and other bonds), or have been providing funds to meet drafts on London which we have given to other countries in payment for goods which we could not obtain by barter. In South America in particular, we are constantly compelled to pay for products in this way, and the reason is that through free trade London has become the great clearing-house of the world, although Mr. Blaine some years ago described the process as the result of cunning British machinations against American commerce.

Moreover, nations do not trade with each other as nations. The United States and Great Britain do not exchange products as political corporations. Individual Englishmen carry on the international commerce with individual Americans, and they settle their balances just as rational New Yorkers do in trading with rational Massachusetts men. They do not give twelve months' credit, and then wind up at the end of the year by transferring enormous masses of gold. They remit promptly, when they get the goods, by buying a draft from bankers, and the bankers provide for the draft by sending goods to be sold in the place where the draft is to be paid, or by setting them off against other drafts due in the place in which the draft is made. The operations of commerce as McKinley and Depew describe them are not to be witnessed anywhere but in lunatic asylums, and even there only with the permission of the keepers. We ought to say, however, that Mr. McKinley is more excusable than Mr. Depew, for Mr. Depew is a prominent figure in the financial world and the President of a great railroad, whereas Mr. McKinley's pretensions to financial knowledge or understanding excite great merriment, we hear, among his intimate friends and neighbors. Between them both, however, they have been making the college professors put dust and ashes on their respective heads.

It is probable that the stiff lying of Republican orators about balances of English gold paid over to us in the past year, is partly to be excused by their recalling the vast amounts of "British gold" which for many Presidential campaigns used to be poured out in this country by the Cobden Club to defeat the Republican party. They know that this was the fact, for the highest Republican authority asserted it, and yet that gold, which came over by the ton, cut no figure in the Custom house returns, but was smuggled in on the persons of British emissaries. What more natural than for them to infer that gold always entered the country in that furtive way? Indeed, how could England be expected to acknowledge openly that we had beaten her out of $230,000,000 in gold, and what other course could it be supposed that she would pursue than to bring it here secretly, pay it over at midnight under a solemn pledge of secrecy, and then go home brazenly to deny that she had ever sent it? Some such plan must have been followed if what McKinley says is true, and he must be true though every man is a liar.

While Gov. McKinley has been manufacturing campaign capital out of the report of New York's Labor Commissioner for 1891, he has, with malice aforethought, pigeon-holed, ever since January, the last report of the Labor Commissioner of his own State. Moreover, although this report has been for two months electrotyped ready for printing, the State Printing Committee—all Republicans—have up to date failed to supply the State printer with the necessary paper on which to issue the (for their purposes) inconvenient data. It has, however, leaked out, through the investigations of the Democratic National Committee, that the suppressed 1891 report indicates that in one State at least the Republican protective tariff system not only fails to raise wages, but has actually brought about a reduction all along the line; this reduction being largest in such protected industries as mining, agricultural works, engine and boiler works, stove and iron castings, etc. Comparing the reports for 1890 and 1891, we find that, after deducting the cost of materials from the value of manufactured product, the balance—the joint earnings of capital and labor—is divided as follows:

Capital.	Labor.
1890.. 37.34 per ct.	62.39 per ct.
1891.. 39.77 per ct. (inc.)	60.23 per ct. (dec.)

In 1890 the 80,305 employees engaged in industrial establishments earned an annual average wage of $492.91; in 1891 the annual average wage of the 99,257 employees was only $470.05, or a loss of $22.86 per man.

The grape-growers in western New York have just found out the swindle in the McKinley Act which was devised to give the California wine-producers an advantage over them. It is embraced in sections 42–49 of the act. It provides that any producer of wine who is also a distiller of brandy, may use the spirits which he makes to fortify the wine to the extent of 14 per cent. of the volume of the wine without paying the internal-revenue tax on the brandy, provided that the wine in its natural state contains not less than 4 per cent. of saccharine matter. In order to avail one's self of the benefits of this act, the following conditions must be fulfilled:

(1.) The wine-grower must be a distiller.
(2.) He must use grape brandy to fortify his wines—not whiskey or alcohol.
(3.) It must be his own brandy.
(4.) His wine must be sweet wine, such as ports and malagas, not the hocks which are produced in New York and Ohio.

Now all these conditions were imposed in order to give the California wine-producers (and only a few of those—namely, those who are rich enough to own distilleries) an advantage over the wine-producers east of the Rocky Mountains. The consequence of this is that California wine is now offered for sale in Steuben County, New York, at the very gates of the vineyards, at 13 cents per gallon less than it can be produced for there. The point is easy to see. The California producer gets 14 per cent. of the strength of his wine free of tax. The tax is 90 cents per gallon, and 14 per cent. of that is as nearly as possible 13 cents.

The announcement was made two or three weeks ago that the Temescal tin mines of California had been closed, the workmen discharged, and the whole thing given up as a bad job. This is the mine whose output was advertised by a

New York firm last spring in such a curious way—the advertisers begging as a special favor that customers would not order too much of it at one time, because they wanted everybody to have a fair chance to get some. It was some of this Temescal tin that furnished the background to a photograph of President Harrison when he was in California two years ago. It would, perhaps, be nearer the truth to say that President Harrison furnished the foreground to a photograph of the tin. However that may have been, the photograph had a great run, and the tin-mine was set down to the credit of the McKinley Bill, although its discovery dates from the year 1867, and lawsuits respecting the title to the property began about that time and continued without intermission for twenty years. The need of a political tin-mine was almost as great as the need of political tin plate, because there is a duty of four cents per pound on metallic tin in the McKinley Bill, to take effect on the first day of next July. This duty was enacted at the instance of the Senators of South Dakota, in the usual log-rolling way. They fancied that they had tin-mines, or would have if the price was high enough; but the Harney Peak mines were provokingly slow in getting to work, and men of science (in the pay of foreigners, no doubt) scoffed at them. Hence the necessity of clinging to the Temescal mine at all hazards. It was like a certain passage in sacred literature, of which a learned commentator said that it was probably spurious, but must not be given up without a fight.

It has come out that Gen. Draper, one of the millionaire manufacturers of Massachusetts and a Republican candidate for Congress in the Ninth (Dedham) District of that State, is now, and for years past has been, in receipt of a pension of $25 per month for disabilities incurred in the war, and acknowledges an aggregate receipt of pension money of $5,000. Gen. Draper justifies his application for and receipt of a pension on the ground that he is entitled to it, although his disabilities are not sufficient to prevent his management of a great manufacturing business, the Presidency of the Home Market Club, and the management of a very active political campaign, saying that he gives away every year to the soldiers much more than the amount of his pension. It is lucky for Gen. Draper that he did not serve in the Revolutionary army, for under the administration of Gen. Washington the rule that Congress adopted in the matter of pensions was that, however great might be the services of a soldier, or however great his disabilities incurred in the service, he was not entitled to a pension if he had other and adequate means of support.

A remarkable case of political indifferentism is reported from Princeton College. President Patton announces that he cares nothing for politics. "I am interested in philosophy and theology, and these are the only things I want to be known in. I vote for neither party." It must be a curious kind of theology or philosophy that a man can be thus content to study *in vacuo*, with no desire to know how they operate in society. What does it avail a philosophical recluse to speculate on the highest good if, in the meantime, through failure to attend to his political duties, he allows himself and his fellow-citizens to be robbed of highest and lowest goods alike? And theology must be a more unpractical discipline than is commonly supposed if it compels a man to give all his thoughts to abstract propositions, and allows him no time to consider the actual effects of theological tenets on civic life. Wanamaker, for example, is a stout upholder of the system of theology with which President Patton is identified, and we should say his notorious exploits in debauching the suffrage were fully as deserving of study as the iniquities of any heretic that ever lived. In short, we do not believe that any man has a right to shirk his responsibilities as a citizen on the ground that he spends his time in the still air of delightful studies. To say that you are interested in theology and philosophy, but not in the practical affairs of life, is to recall the newspaper humorist's saying of the Czar, that he had established arbitrary government to his perfect satisfaction, but that he did not dare step out of doors to see how it worked.

One is struck, in reading the correspondence between Senator Sherman and his brother, the General, now publishing in the *Century*, with the low opinion held of the Chairmanship of the Ways and Means Committee in 1861. Appointed to that position after being defeated in the struggle for the Speakership, Mr. Sherman found it very wearisome and unsatisfactory. That was before the discovery of the truth that the Chairman of the Ways and Means has the prosperity of the country in his keeping, and that it is his function to apportion profits and wages in every shop in the land. In 1861 his business was simply to lay taxes for carrying on the Government; now he is courted by powerful manufacturers, and his favors sought as slavishly as were the grants of monopolies by monarchs of four centuries ago. The correspondence referred to promises to be of great interest in many ways in lighting up the early history of the Republican party, but in none, perhaps, more than in marking the contrast between the youth of a party, devoted to moral and patriotic ends, and its last years, given over to the service of mammon.

Can anybody explain the object, aim, or policy of treating all alien cabin passengers arriving in steamers from Europe, and not residents of the United States, as "immigrants" and subjecting them to twenty days' detention? Orders to this effect have, it is said, been received from Washington, but the motive remains a profound mystery. Some of our pessimists detect many symptoms, especially in the Republican party, of a rapid assimilation of the United States to China in our attitude towards foreigners. The hostility to foreign goods, they say, has begotten hostility to foreign science, literature, and art, and is slowly producing hostility to people who go to Europe for pleasure and unwillingness to let them return. The laudable desire to prevent Europe from dumping her criminals, paupers, cripples, and Anarchists and ignoramuses on us is now being made a pretext for keeping out *all* Europeans who have not already got a foothold here, as if they were infected in some way. In good keeping with this is the McKinley and Depew rejoicing over the suffering they think they have caused among the European poor, and the pride McKinley takes in being hated by the whole human race outside the Republican party. There is in all this a strong savor of the politics and morals of the Central Flowery Land, and we are bound to say President Harrison's quarantine begins to look as if it had been dictated by the Vermilion Pencil.

It seems as if one of the cleverest bits of imposture of modern times was the book known as the 'Englishman in Paris.' The authorship of it has been traced to a Mr. Philip Vandam, a Dutchman of the Jewish persuasion, who, Mr. Lucy says in the *Tribune*, has long lived in Paris, attached to "the outer skirts of journalism"; and "the outer skirts of journalism" are no better in Paris than they are in New York. The first volume is a very clever piece of work, stuffed full of entertaining gossip of the courts both of Louis Philippe and Louis Napoleon, most of it having the air of coming from somebody who enjoyed what used to be called the "petites entrées," or the privilege of running in and out and seeing the royal personages as an intimate private friend, and belonged to the most select Paris clubs. Pains were taken in it, too, in all sorts of small ways, to fasten the authorship on Sir Richard Wallace, who was for forty years one of the chief personages of the English colony; and on the strength of this the book had in the months of July and August a great sale, until Sir Richard's friends and his widow roused themselves in contradiction. Mr. Vandam, it appears, is only forty years old, so that his recollections of the Courts of Louis Philippe and of Louis Napoleon, even if he had been a favored guest in them, would be very feeble. As matters stand, he appears to be simply a wonderfully clever compiler and romancer, and has got a remarkable "scoop" on the other gentlemen who cling with him to the "outer skirts of journalism" in Paris.

A GREAT EXAMPLE.

WHEN Mr. Cleveland, in December of 1887, sent in his anti-tariff message, there was hardly a prominent man in his party who did not think he had made a great mistake. Even those who agreed to the full with his opinions thought the publication of them a piece of magnificent folly, for which he and the party were sure to suffer. His reëlection before he wrote his message was, as he stood, all but certain. Even the Republicans, large numbers of whom had come over to him as, on the whole, a wise and prudent statesman, admitted this. It seemed as if his canvass, in spite of the poor antecedents of his party, would be a walkover. He aggravated his fault, from the politicians' point of view, by failure to consult with them before taking his plunge. The language of the message was not sufficiently studied, some said. It showed want of thorough familiarity with the workings of the tariff, said others. Others, again, wished that before he wrote it he had made a more thorough study of political economy. But, for one reason or another, all except a few of the more enthusiastic tariff reformers thought he had destroyed his own usefulness as a candidate, and condemned his party to another period of eclipse. What groaning and moaning over him there was among "the practical men" during the remainder of the winter! How they cursed the Mugwumps and the professors for leading him astray! How sure they were that the American people would not stand such foolishness! How glad his enemies—the Hill men, Tammany men, and political debauchees of every description—were that he had planned his own destruction and would soon trouble the party councils no more.

His defeat came almost as a matter of course. His message took the public, bred in protectionist fallacies, by surprise. It alarmed the manufacturers, and gave the Quays a larger fund than they had ever had before to save their monopoly. He was nominated largely because the party had no one else of any prominence to put up, and almost with a certainty of failure. Mr. Cleveland went back into private life with serenity, leaving his message to be pondered, and leaving the Republicans in full possession of the Government, with full power to push the protectionist principle to any extreme they pleased. It then soon appeared that the message was a stroke of genius; that it had at last secured for the tariff thorough popular attention and discussion, such as no speech, article, or book could secure for it. Its very simplicity, its freedom from details, its avoidance of the reserves, qualifications, and discriminations which a more erudite economist would have introduced into it, proved its greatest merit. There never was a more signal illustration of the poet's saying, that a man's best "armor is his honest thought, and simple truth his utmost skill." The fact that the author had staked his chance of the Presidency on it, had issued it in defiance of the advice of the worldly-wise, and was prepared to live or die by it, was an appeal of the utmost power to the love and admiration which the American people, and all people of the Western world, feel for the man who is not afraid—who says, with the noble army of martyrs and the goodly company of patriots and reformers of all ages and all countries, "Here I stand. I can do no otherwise, God help me."

In his letter about silver Mr. Cleveland gave another and almost as striking a proof of the wisdom of his boldness. When he wrote it, in February, 1891, his party was apparently bent on rushing down another steep place to its ruin by conniving at or avoiding collision with the currency lunatics, who, in conjunction with a band of tricky mining speculators, were trying to debase the currency of a great commercial nation. The "practical men" again thought that, as a possible candidate, he ought carefully to hold his peace about this immense folly and wickedness, or, if he spoke at all, clothe his thought in such cloudy phraseology that it could be made to bear two or three meanings, if not wholly to conceal it from the popular understanding. But he refused to be a party to this little stroke of low cunning, and, taking his courage, as the French say, in both hands, gave the silver folly a blow from which it never recovered. He blew it clean out of the party mind and the party platform by a single shot. Again the shrewd politicians sat down on the party stoop and wept, and prepared sorrowfully to nominate a first-class juggler in the person of David B. Hill, who was to show the wretched Mugwumps how much better it was to be able to keep six balls in the air at once than to be able to show the absurdity of a fluctuating currency. In one year that letter of February had again confounded the shrewd, and put heart and hope into the timid and shifty.

Mr. Cleveland's triumph to-day has been largely due to the young voters who have come on the stage since the reign of passion and prejudice came to an end and the era of discussion has opened. If the last canvass has consisted largely of appeals to reason, to facts, to the lessons of human experience, to the teachings of Christianity and science, and has brought confusion on the preachers of mediæval barbarism and absurdity; if it has put a stamp of horror and contempt on the attempts to make mutual hate a necessary accompaniment of peaceful industrial competition—thus furnishing Socialism with one of its best weapons—it is to Mr. Cleveland, let us tell them, they owe it. But they are indebted to him for something far more valuable than even this—for an example of splendid courage in the defence and assertion of honestly formed opinions; of Roman constancy under defeat, and of patient reliance on the power of deliberation and persuasion on the American people. Nothing is more important, in these days of "boodle," of indifference, of cheap bellicose patriotism, than that this confidence in the might of common sense and sound doctrine and free speech should be kept alive.

BOSTON BANKERS ON STATE BANK-NOTES.

SOME of the most conservative bank presidents in Boston have prepared and signed an argument in favor of a repeal, on suitable conditions, of the 10 per cent. tax on State bank-notes. They show in the first place that the present national-bank currency has shrunk $200,000,000 since it reached its maximum, and that the conditions of its existence are such that it must wholly disappear when the bonds are paid off. They consider it illusory to expect that any United States bonds will be issued or reissued, even at as low a rate as 2 per cent. interest, to form the basis of national-bank circulation, and they do not consider such a policy wise or just, since it would be a permanent unnecessary tax on the people. They consider some system of bank-note issues desirable, and they agree with Mr. John Sherman in his Senatorial opinion that the popular will has been expressed adversely to the continuance of the national system beyond the existence of the national bonds. They consider Mr. Sherman's later opinion, expressed on the stump at North Fairfield, Ohio, that the national bank-notes may be replaced by United States notes "resting on the honor, wealth, and resources of 65,000,000 people" as objectionable, being merely an extension of the greenback system in time of peace. Another objection to it is, that the act of issuing greenbacks is the borrowing of money for which the Government has no use, since by the hypothesis the bonds will have been paid off.

The signers of this paper then take up the proposed repeal of the 10 per cent. tax. They agree with the Democratic campaign text-book that the repeal should apply only to banks in States which come up to a certain standard. They think that the conditions which prevailed in some parts of the country before the war, and which led to, or at all events did not prevent, "wild-cat and red-dog" currency, have long ago disappeared, but they are not willing to take any risks on that score. The power of Congress to impose conditions on the issue of circulating notes has been affirmed by the Supreme Court on two different grounds. One is the taxing power, which the court said was in the discretion of the legislative branch of the Government exclusively. The other is the right of Congress to restrain the circulation of any money issued in competition with its own.

No question will be raised as to the power of Congress to impose conditions by those who hold that the present tax is

constitutional. The question what conditions ought to be imposed is a matter for deliberation hereafter. The signers of this paper make a suggestion or two which ought to have weight. They suggest in the first place that any State which allows bank-notes to be issued should guarantee their prompt redemption, and should also allow itself to be sued under the contract of guarantee. The objection that the State's guarantee would make the notes so issued "bills of credit" of the State, which are prohibited by the Constitution, is met by adducing a Supreme Court decision to the contrary. The conditions of issue suggested in the paper are not exclusive, however. The security of the noteholder may be hedged about in other ways by requiring the deposit of bonds of different kinds. The State's guarantee is, nevertheless, looked upon as the most important consideration, because it will enlist the self-interest of the States on the side of a sound banking system.

It will occur to all who are competent to discuss such questions that the nearer we come to a perfect system of State bank-notes, the nearer we come to the present national-bank system. This is true. The national system, although unelastic and rather slow moving, is not only the best one we have ever had, but probably the best we ever can have. Given a permanent national debt as the basis of security, and it would be idle to think of any change. But a permanent national debt it is idle to talk about. Nobody is in favor of that; nobody ought to be in favor of it. An issue of bonds merely as security for bank notes is the same thing to the Government as handing its own notes to the bank to be loaned to the public for the bank's benefit. The case is different while the bonds are still outstanding, for it can make no difference to the Government in a pecuniary sense whether they are held by A or B or C, by national banks, or savings banks, or private investors.

Of course, there is an important question back of this, namely, whether other security may not be found to take the place of the bonds in the national system, so as to rejuvenate that system, and whether that would not be better than any State system. That question was learnedly discussed in a recent paper by Mr. Cornwell of Buffalo, in *Rhoads's Journal of Banking*. Of course this will have to be discussed in a wider forum before the bank-note question is settled. Meanwhile the concluding paragraph of the Boston argument is worthy of all commendation, viz.:

> "Our appeal is, therefore, for a sober consideration of this question apart from party politics; and we believe an unsound system cannot be sprung upon the country unless this sober consideration is wanting."

LEGISLATIVE DISCOURAGEMENT OF BUSINESS.

It is the theory of representative government, as expounded in the treatises upon that subject, that legislators consider and adopt such measures as are manifestly calculated to promote the general welfare. In practice, in the State of New York at least, legislators discharge no such function. The Legislature fulfils Mr. Thomas Reed's ideal in not being a deliberative body. All its acts, it may be said, are prepared outside of the legislative halls, and most of them are dictated by special interests. Unless there is some "politics" in a bill, it generally meets with little opposition, except that if there is "money in it" a species of rude natural equity requires that the spoils shall not be greedily appropriated by a favored few. The general public seldom demands the passage of any measure except a measure of repeal, and, as a rule, is ignorant of the laws by which its conduct is supposed to be regulated until some new hindrance to business is disclosed. The Legislature of New York finished its work last May, but its acts were not published in accessible form until the latter part of October. During that interval it has been practically impossible even for lawyers to ascertain the existing state of the law; which will not seem incredible if it is added that the work of the session is represented by two bulky volumes of some 2,500 pages, containing 715 different statutes.

Let it not be supposed, however, that a perusal of these 715 statutes will enable any one to determine what the law is. Some of these statutes are general in character, covering great departments of human activity and completely restating or altering previous legislation. By one of these statutes over a thousand acts or parts of acts are repealed, and altogether the number repealed must be between 3,000 and 4,000. To ascertain the present state of the law, he that knew it in its former state must compare the new statutes with all that are repealed, a labor of truly appalling proportions. The idea that any business man can now conduct the affairs of a corporation in which he is interested without the best legal advice is preposterous. Lawyers themselves must for a long time advise reluctantly, and it will be only after extensive and protracted litigation that it will be known how the ordinary transactions of business are to be carried on according to the present statutory requirements.

It is hardly necessary to say that the Legislature which enacted these statutes knew little about them. It may be doubted if a single member of the Legislature read them all, and it is certain that many members neither read them nor could have understood them if they had. This extensive reconstruction of the law took place at the hands of a commission appointed by Gov. Hill, composed of men of whom it need only be said that they are much better known from their connection with his political activity than from their professional distinction. It may be conceded that a codification of our statutes was desirable, although no coherent demand had been made for it. It may be granted that a commission might have been made up of men whose names would have assured the profession of the wisdom of their action. But to commit a labor of this kind, which requires not only the most profound and extensive knowledge of law, but also an expert acquaintance with the conduct of financial affairs—which demands the qualifications at once of the man of business, the lawyer, the economist, and the statesman—to the hands of Gov. Hill's pet henchmen, was an act of outrageous recklessness. The full consequences of the act cannot for a long time be known; but if their character may be judged from such as are already apparent, a long heritage of mischief awaits the business of the State of New York.

The first fruits were quickly harvested. The new law applicable to corporations, enacted in 1890, contained some provisions so vexatious as to oblige the Legislature to repeal them at the earliest possible opportunity. Some others aroused such universal complaint as to compel the commissioners to redraw the whole statute within two years of its enactment, leaving out many of the exasperating and senseless features which they had elaborated. A decision just made, which does not seem to have attracted sufficient attention in Wall Street, illustrates the formidable character of the innovations which remain to be abolished. A stockholder in a certain corporation pledged his stock as collateral security for a loan, and gave the pledgee an irrevocable proxy therewith. But when the election occurred, the pledgee found that he could not vote on his proxy, the pledger having decided to vote the stock himself, and the candidates who would have been elected by the vote of the pledgee were defeated. The court held that the new law required this result. Nor would it have been different, apparently, had the proxy not been irrevocable. Under the circumstances no proxy could have been legally given, nor under any circumstances can any proxy be given for any term that the giver cannot revoke in five minutes if he is so disposed.

By the act of 1890 all persons acquiring stock within thirty days of an election were disfranchised, nor could any one vote or issue a proxy if he had pledged his stock, although it stood in his name. As it was obvious that legal elections under this law were likely to be few and far between, the Commissioners graciously reduced the period of disfranchisement to ten days, and restored, as we understand it—for no one may now positively declare what the law is—the right of suffrage to pledgers of stock. But let those houses—for well-known reasons the most substantial houses in the street—in whose name stock is kept standing after they have parted with it, beware of giving their proxies. We know not what punishment they may render themselves

liable to, but we should not be surprised if it should be discovered to be the penitentiary, and they may not improbably vitiate most of the elections of the principal corporations of the country.

Since corporations are numbered by hundreds of thousands, and since there are perfectly legitimate reasons for conducting business under corporate management, it does not seem wise to make this management complicated and difficult. Most corporations consist of a very few members, and their corporate proceedings are, as a rule, very informal. A few busy men meet together for a few minutes, and, knowing just what they want done, do it quickly. But the Commissioners will have none of this. In their view every act of a corporation is to be regarded by the law with suspicion, and every stockholder as presumptively actuated by iniquitous motives. If an election is to be held, although there may not be half-a-dozen persons interested, all of whom could be easily notified, the public is to be kept advised by a newspaper advertisement for four weeks. At such election the inspectors must be sworn and must file copies of their oaths with the County Clerk, together with a certificate of the result of the election. Every stockholder must on demand make oath that he has not, "either directly, indirectly, or impliedly, received any promise or any sum of money, or anything of value," to influence the giving of his vote, and that he has not sold or otherwise disposed of his interest in or title to any shares of stock upon which he offers to vote. A proxy must make equally solemn and explicit declaration of the purity of his motives, and of his belief in the integrity of the title to the shares which he proposes to vote.

We could go on indefinitely pointing out needless and arbitrary requirements inserted in recent years in our corporation law, but for the present this will suffice. It may be submitted in behalf of the business men of the State that corporations are no more dishonestly managed than ordinary business partnerships and require no more legislative interference. The fact that fraud sometimes occurs is no reason for hampering all honest business with vexatious technicalities, especially since these technicalities will have the effect, not of hindering fraud, but of entangling hosts of innocent people in unintentional violations of law. The old corporation law had been thoroughly construed and was thoroughly understood. It might have been simplified, but it was easy for business men to comply with it. Under malign influences a legislative policy has been of late adopted in New York which leads to the formation of corporations under the more enlightened laws of other States, and which will, if persisted in, lead to the transfer of much of their business as well. Such a policy is unworthy of a commercial community, and ought to draw such vigorous protests from business men as to lead to its abandonment.

THE "DUCHESS OF MALFI" AT THE INDEPENDENT THEATRE.

LONDON, October 25, 1892.

THAT the drama has fallen to the lowest depths in England, it would take a bold man to deny. With gorgeous pageants dubbed "Shakspere" prospering at the Lyceum; with a patent for turning tragedy, comedy, and farce into melodrama controlling the Haymarket; with real turf, and real water, and real horses drawing rapturous crowds to Drury Lane; with the variety-show usurping the legitimate stage on every side, it is no wonder that now more than ever one turns to the Independent Theatre Society for the promised production of new and unconventional plays, the promised presentation to the public of hitherto unknown or misdirected talent among actors and actresses.

The Society's first season went far to prove that it is easier to announce new plays than to obtain them. Still, when everything else failed, there was always Ibsen to fall back upon, until indeed, for a while, it seemed as if the Society had been founded for no other object than the encouragement of the Scandinavian drama. However, it was probably realized that for the beginning of the second season it would be as well to make a new departure, and Webster's "Duchess of Malfi," as already explained in the *Nation*, was prepared for the first performances. So long as no original play was forthcoming, the choice could not have been better. If modern dramatists refuse to arise, ready armed and equipped, at Mr. Archer's word of command, if we cannot create a drama of our own, the most sensible alternative is to revive the great work of the old men which the still greater genius of Shakspere has cast into the shade. Of all the Elizabethan plays, perhaps not one is known (if only by name) as widely as the "Duchess of Malfi," perhaps not one suggests, even to those who have not read it, the same degree of tragic intensity and dramatic strength.

"The very throne of night, her very crown,
A man lays hand on, and usurps her right,"

Swinburne says of Webster, and to the average reader Webster means the "Duchess of Malfi." The tragedy has been revived from time to time; it is associated with the successes of at least one actor of renown, Betterton; and it has never been put on the stage without producing the same impression of power almost Æschylean, of horrors poetically woven into a masterpiece surpassed by none. But it is some forty or fifty years since it was last revived at Sadler's Wells, nor did it appear likely that it would appeal to the fancy of Mr. Irving, who is wary even when most enterprising, or to Mr. Beerbohm Tree, who has long ago given up his daring but not paying weekly experiments. Therefore, to drama and literature alike, it seemed as if the Society's choice must render valuable and important service. So thoroughly was this appreciated that Mr. Irving came forward to second Mr. Grein's efforts, and lent, from the Lyceum's rich wardrobe, costumes and stage properties to the not too wealthy Independent Theatre. It is seldom that I have looked forward to a theatrical event with so much interest.

And now as to the performance itself. Perhaps I might as well say at once how deeply I regret that the Society is so much more praiseworthy in intention than in achievement. In the present deplorable dramatic stagnation, one does not like to find fault where there is certainly a striving in the right direction. But unfortunately the effect of a play upon the stage depends wholly and entirely on the manner in which it is interpreted by actors and actresses, and this is doubly true when the play is a tragedy in verse, dating back to a day when dramatic ideals were not as ours, and when, in point of dramatic construction, Shakspere was a giant among pigmies. I venture to say that it would be absolutely out of the question to give an unrevised version of the "Duchess of Malfi," though this fact does not excuse the Independent Theatre Society's unexpected squeamishness in suppressing some of the more vigorous Elizabethan passages. The changes made, however, were chiefly in the arrangement of the scenes, and here Mr. William Poel, the Shakspere scholar, had a work made to his hand. But, despite his labors, scene followed scene and incident succeeded incident with an irrelevancy and a suddenness that left one fairly bewildered. The deadly hatred of *Duke* and *Cardinal* for their sister, even before she has married her steward without their leave, one had to accept simply, without asking for a reason, as one accepts the screen in the modern society play, or the convenient arrangement of doors in the modern farce. The motives of *Bosola*, the hired murderer, discoursing of pity, singing the dirge, as it were, of his own victim, was another problem for which one did not seek the solution. The intrigue of the *Cardinal* with *Julia* apparently had no other use in the tragedy save to add one more corpse to the many strewing the stage in that indescribable fifth act, which even Webster's most ardent admirers think superfluous. In a word, to make the play, even after revision, not only convincing, but possible, to a modern audience, it must be consummately well rendered by trained and experienced actors who understand the value of the lines and their proper delivery. The programme, on the night of the performance, quoted the critical appreciations of Lamb, who thought that only a Webster could move a horror skilfully or touch a soul to the quick; of Mr. Swinburne, who declared no poet to be morally nobler than Webster; of Mr. Symonds, who finds his excellence in his power of blending tenderness and pity with the exhibition of acute moral anguish; of Mr. Gosse, who ranks the "Duchess of Malfi" as second only to "King Lear." But to read a drama in the library is a very different thing from seeing it performed on the stage. If the beauty and power depend upon the lines rather than the construction, then, when those lines are cruelly murdered in the mouths of second-rate or inexperienced actors, beauty and power disappear and tragedy degenerates into burlesque.

Miss Mary Rorke, who played the *Duchess*, is an actress of some refinement and dignity in mediocre parts, but her entire misconception of what was expected of her was shown by her close study of Miss Ellen Terry's methods. It were a charity not to give the name of the man who parodied the *Duke*, and ranted and raved up and down the stage, so that from the very first, instead of waiting until the end of the fourth act, *Bosola* might have proclaimed him distraught. But to me it was *Bosola* (Mr. Murray Carson) who was the chief offender, because of his greater pretensions. He began at that high pitch where the wise tragedian leaves off; he spoke with his eyes, his nostrils, his forehead; he writhed and grimaced so unrestrainedly that by the end of the first act he had exhausted his resources, and could but begin and go through

the same tricks all over again. As for the others, the kindest that can be said is that their incapacity was a trifle less aggressive—probably because their rôles were more than a trifle less important. Lowell was also quoted on the playbill. "Whatever effect," he says, "Webster may produce upon us, he never leaves us indifferent." At moments when the audience should have wept they tittered, and this, too, in the fourth act, where horror crowds upon horror in the long ingenious torture to which the *Duchess* is submitted as a preparation for her own murder. However, it was in this same act that the one scene adequately impressive was presented; an impressiveness due not a little to the fact that not a word was spoken, while "ladies" in Holbein dress danced the Dance of Death with grinning skeletons, to the far tap, tap of a muffled drum, and the *Duchess*, in her white robes, sat watching, reading her doom in every step, her faithful *Cariola* crouched at her knees.

Mr. Grein and his society proposed to give aspiring actors and actresses the chance, elsewhere denied, of a hearing in parts suited to them—an admirable proposition. But to aid and abet the incompetent in the full display of their incompetency is another matter. It is just here that the directors of the Independent Theatre so far have followed such a mistaken policy. They may yet discover rare talent in new playwrights, they may revive old masterpieces; but until for the interpretation of their dramatists they find actors and actresses of fair average ability and intelligence, their performances, artistically, must be failures. Who would want to listen to Wagner ground out of a hurdy-gurdy? Who would want to look at a Titian on the canvas of the cheap copyist? I, for my part, would rather never have seen Webster's "Duchess of Malfi" on the stage than to have allowed the sad parody presented on the boards of the Opéra Comique on Friday last. N. N.

THE UNITED STATES AT THE HISTORICO-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

MADRID, October 19, 1892.

THE courtesy shown to your correspondent by Admiral Luce, Prof. Wilson, Mr. Walter Hough, and Mr. Culin has enabled him to take stock in a leisurely manner of the various exhibits of the United States delegation. It may be well to state that the designation of "Americans" is, in Spain, at the present time, reserved for persons coming from the South American Republics. You come under the denomination of English, Yankees, or people from the United States. Hence the word American has not been used in the first sentence. To do the Spanish Americans justice, they look upon Spain as a country behind the age.

The republican simplicity which distinguishes your Government, if not your people, has perforce been cast aside in the decoration of the various rooms or courts. The Spaniards insisted upon this, and a Spanish artist has been intrusted with the duty of giving effect to the wishes of the administration of the Exhibition. A good deal of the ornamentation consists in the tasteful arrangements of flags. Excepting the small exhibit from Sweden, over which Baron Nordenskjöld presides, the United States section seems the most advanced of all—indeed, is almost complete. This is due, no doubt, to the good organization of the delegation, who work under all the disadvantages inseparable from their surroundings. For certain things, local assistance must be obtained; and then——! I accompanied Mr. Culin to a printing-office, whither he went to get some labels for marking the exhibits, and was edified by his use of strong language when he was disappointed by not getting delivery of them. As the Secretary of the delegation spoke in English, the Spaniard did not understand what was said, but he could not have failed to understand that Mr. Culin was angry. The incident is a trivial one, but it is an instance of the worries which your representatives have to suffer. As an outsider, I should gladly bear testimony to the enthusiasm with which your representation is being carried out here. Let me give you an instance. Between four and five this afternoon Mr. Bikélas, the distinguished Greek author, was in one of your courts, and apologized for asking Prof. Wilson for an explanation of some exhibit. The Professor's answer was something like this: "Our Government has gone to great expense to collect and send these things here, and they are here to be explained," and then he proceeded to go *con amore* into a plenteous description of the matter. Now, I had entered the U. S. A. section soon after nine A. M. with Mr. Culin, and had found Prof. Wilson at work there. Later in the day, I had the privilege of joining Dr. Hamy, the Director of the Trocadéro at Paris, and his friend, Prof. Henri Cordier, when, for about two hours, the Professor entertained them with a flow of instructive and scientific talk about the contents of his cases of prehistoric implements, and upon other kindred matters. Between that *conversazione* and the Bikélas incident, other inquiries had been disposed of. Meanwhile, the business of arrangement and administration had received attention.

As Dr. Hamy is not only a Vice-President of the Geographical Society of Paris and a member of the French Institute, but also a distinguished ethnologist, it cannot but be satisfactory to know that he evinced the keenest interest in Prof. Wilson's scientific talk (carried on in French, by the way), and afterwards informed your correspondent that he found the United States ethnological exhibit very interesting. Even though one may be no scientist, it is a great pleasure to observe how these savants glow with fervor as they sharpen their wits one against the other, as when Mr. Culin and Prof. Rein of Bonn made acquaintance. The climax came when Prof. Rein received from his younger confrère an acknowledgment of the latter's indebtedness to the former's famous work upon the Chinese.

The show of prehistoric implements made by the United States may not, perhaps, be so large as that of one or two of the Latin republics, but arrangement of the exhibits for scientific inquiry cannot be better illustrated than in the cases under the charge of Prof. Wilson and Mr. Culin, while Mr. Hough's exhibits pertaining to Indian life within the historic period cannot be surpassed. That some of the implements are rare may be gathered from the fact that Dr. Hamy has asked to be furnished with specimens.

There is a Linguistic Chart of North America (stopping short at Mexico), which has been prepared by the Bureau of Ethnology. It shows very distinctly, by coloring, the distribution of twenty-nine different stocks, speaking so many different languages, at a time when Europeans first made acquaintance with the "aboriginals," as Sir Walter Raleigh used to call them. To philologists this cannot but be of the highest interest, and it is well that it should be the intention to publish this chart. Another valuable exhibit is an Archæological Map of North America. It shows village sites, mounds, groups of mounds, effigy mounds, groups of effigy mounds, burial mounds, mounds with single-stone graves, mounds with stone graves, single graves or single burials, cemeteries, stone graves, stone grave-cemeteries, ossuaries, enclosures with interior mounds, enclosures with exterior mounds, excavations, canals, flint mines, soapstone mines, mica mines, refuse heaps, shell heaps, petroglyphs, groups of petroglyphs, caches, cairns, undefined antiquities, groups of villages, cavate lodges, villages of cliff lodges, inhabited stone villages (pueblo), and varieties undetermined. An ordinary map of the United States has been used, and the distribution, as set forth above, has been denoted by special marks. This valuable chart also is to be published.

There is an admirable exhibit by the Archæological Department of the University of Pennsylvania which Mr. Culin explains to visitors with the keenest enthusiasm. I was much interested in finding that he shared the opinion of Mr. im Thurn of British Guiana, that the rudely chipped implements represent an unfinished stage of manufacture, rather than a stage of civilization. To an unscientific observer like your correspondent, the degree appears to be in the process of manufacture rather than in the state of culture. The specimens of stones, apparently rejected in the operation of manufacture, are each characterized by a hump which appears to have been formed by maladroit flaking or by defect in the stone itself. At all events, this hump proved an obstacle to further shaping of the stones into the ordinary forms. The exhibit of the Bureau of Ethnology at Washington is displayed in a manner that could not but be pleasing to that ardent archæologist, Mr. Holmes, with whose name the collection is identified.

By pictures, engravings, by life-size figures, and by exhibits of articles of their every-day life, the Indians of the United States get a very considerable share of notice. In fact, the Exposition offers a splendid opportunity to ethnologists and to archæologists, who will find, in the various exhibits from North and South America, a collection not in any way to be approached by that of any single museum in the world. Ethnology—in its archæological aspect more particularly—more than anything, is the distinctive feature of the general exhibition in the lower part, as distinguished from that other special exhibition, of an almost purely Spanish character, which is to be found in the upper part of the Exposition building and is particularized as the Historico-European Exhibition. The exhibit of the Hemenway Expedition, made by Mr. Fewkes of Boston, is in itself a superb display of the culture of the southwestern tribes, principally of the Moqui Indians of the United States. It is, in fact, an ethnological museum in itself. The famous Morton collection of crania shows skulls of forty-four different tribes in the United States of America. Literature bearing upon all these subjects is also displayed, more especially in the valuable Smithsonian publications.

A collection of models of Mint medals is one of the exhibits. Here may be seen effigies of Presidents of the United States, of naval and military worthies, and of Directors of the Mint. For your correspondent the reproduction of the medal struck in honor of the capture of the *Peacock*, by Capt. James Lawrence of the *Hornet*, afterwards of the *Chesapeake*, had a special and mournful interest.

The model is numbered 36. The original gold medal was awarded by Act of Congress on the 11th of January, 1814, to the nearest male relative of Capt. James Lawrence, "for gallantry and good conduct of that officer in the conflict between the United States sloop-of-war *Hornet* and the British vessel of war *Peacock* on February 24, 1813. A silver medal of same design was awarded to each commissioned officer of the *Hornet*." Lawrence, a brave among the brave, deserved all that was done for him and for his memory. The fight took place off the coast of what is now British Guiana. It was short and sharp. Capt. Peake, who commanded the *Peacock*, brave and true, having done his duty, fell early in the battle. His body was wrapped in the Union Jack, and went down as the ship sank beneath the muddy waters that lave those shores. A medal in honor of Capt. Henley must have a special interest for his relative, Admiral Luce.

Among the coins shown are two facsimiles of New England pennies. A facsimile of a Somers Island, or Bermuda, shilling is described in Spanish as *Primera Moneda Americana*. The effigy of the hog upon this coin was, no doubt, a mark of the gratitude of the early 'Mudians to a beast that had given them "store of fle-h," without which they had wanted animal food. There is a Massachusetts shilling of 1652; a bronze quarter penny of "Mark Newby," of 1681; two facsimiles of Elephant tokens of Carolina, and two similar tokens of New England of 1694; and a Rose penny of 1722. One of the famous, or infamous, Woods's quarter-pennies, of 1723, described as "acuñada en Inglaterra para Irlanda y América," not only recalls the witty Dean of St. Patrick's, but the not generally known fact that it was at one time seriously contemplated to make Dean Swift Bishop of Virginia. There are three facsimiles of a Connecticut token of 1737; then a token *Voce Populi* of 1760; a cent of the State of Vermont, 1785, and others of 1786, 1787, and 1788. Half-cents of Massachusetts of 1787, and cents of the same State of 1787 and 1788, can be seen here, and cents of New Jersey of 1786 and 1787. In cent pieces of 1787 are shown specimens of the first money used by the Government of the United States. Examples are shown of many other coins of more modern date. Besides the coins, there is a capital collection of paper money issued from time to time in the United States. This exhibit comes in part from the National Museum at Washington and in part from the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia, and is so admirably displayed that persons curious in questions of paper currency will find the examination of the series a very easy matter. The series embraces issues from 1756 down to our own day. To the historical student the most interesting examples will be those of the Revolutionary era, of which there are a number; some issued by individual States, others by resolutions of the Continental Congress. The rage of the collector has been painfully illustrated here. Some one has broken the glass of one of the cases in which these exhibits are displayed, and has stolen a note from it. Specimens are shown of Treasury notes and bonds and of postage stamps and post-cards. A feature in the exhibit is a collection of the old State banks' notes, which should be especially interesting to the financiers of Argentina. An ample collection of literature upon numismatic and kindred subjects is well displayed.

A bear from the Rocky Mountains and other specimens of the fauna of the United States are shown, and a circular slab cut from a tree which must have been a sapling in the Mississippi Valley when Columbus discovered the New World. Prof. Wilson has formed this opinion of its age from the 420 rings which go to make the bulk.

Although not so fortunate as to find an opportunity of making the personal acquaintance of Mr. Curtis, I have learned that he is very much the right man in the right place. In the two rooms under his immediate charge are hung numerous portraits and photographs and engravings of buildings and places in the New World. Of these the most important are the portraits of Columbus, numbering nearly seventy in all, mostly copies. On my expressing the opinion that these portraits might have been arranged on some plan as to the age of Columbus at the time they were taken, I was informed that Mr. Curtis had hung them systematically, but that the irrepressible Spanish artist—our friend the decorator—had insisted upon rearranging the portraits after his own fashion, which seems to be the highly scientific system of hanging them according to their sizes.

As regards the allotting of space, the Dons have treated the United States very handsomely. You have no less than six compartments, all but one being large, and one being one of the largest of the salons. The smallest one, in which is a model of the cruiser *Columbia*, is to be given up for the use of Queen Christina, as her reception-room. A German lady, the wife of a distinguished ethnologist, and herself very accomplished, volunteered to me the opinion that the United States exhibition was "the best" at the Historico-American Exposition. While sharing this opinion at the present time, it may be well to point out that the Mexican courts promise to make a very grand show in matters of historic interest by reproductions of temples, images, and other famous things. The facsimile of a sacrificial stone which greets one in the entrance court is blood-curdling enough. It was on such a stone, you will remember, that Prescott tells us one of the Guzmans was done to death after he had been taken prisoner. D. D.

CRIME AND POLITICS IN ITALY.

ITALY, October 23, 1892.

Now that the pending elections occupy the press and the public, there is a truce in the sensational articles on crime in Sicily, brigandage in Sicily, Maffia, etc., and one can handle the subject without contributing to the unjust and ungenerous attempt to brand more than three millions of islanders as criminals of the worst species, or as aiders and abettors of crime and criminals. I have read with unremitting interest the *Nation's* articles and paragraphs on the switchmen's strike, the tyranny of labor, etc., and all confirm the old proverb, "Tutto il paese è mondo." Sicily, owing to the peculiar institutions of the Bourbons, was, for a long time after the unity of Italy was an accomplished fact, infested with vagabonds and criminals of the worst species. After the suppression of successive revolutions, the Bourbon authorities let loose the denizens of the prisons and the galleys, enrolling them often as a police force and using them as spies on the patriots. When the last successful revolution was initiated, many of these went over to the revolutionists, enrolled themselves in the *squadri*, and fought manfully. Garibaldi, aware of their character, disbanded the *squadri* and sent them home. Then followed years of anarchy and disorder, when the Piedmontese Government, bent on rooting out the influence of Garibaldi in the island, reinstated many of the Bourbon agents and enforced the law of conscription with unwise rigor. The priests, who had assisted the patriots during the revolution, turned against the national Government when they found that the law on ecclesiastical property was to be applied to the island. They instigated the conscripts against the levy, hid them in the mountains, and in 1866 headed the rabble who invaded and pillaged Palermo, which for several weeks after was kept in a state of siege. This state of things, and the special facilities afforded by the want of roads and railroads to malefactors to hide themselves in the mountains and caves, kept the island in continual disorder and confusion. Exceptional laws were the order of the day; the civil and military authority was often vested in the same person. Arrests were numerous, the prisons and galleys overflowing, but the chiefs of the malefactors were left at large and often held high place.

In 1876 the Moderate party was superseded by the Liberals, and the first care of the new Government was to restore order to Sicily. No exceptional powers were asked for, but resolute men were sent as prefects and heads of police, enjoined to apply the common law without distinction of person or rank. The effects were soon seen and felt; the malefactors were arrested, the population gladly assisting the authorities. Hitherto they had unwillingly submitted to the extortions of blackmail, to the presence of malefactors on their estates, fearing their vengeance as long as there was no strong hand to put them down. Now they brought to the authorities all the letters of *ricatto* (extortion), informed them where the malefactors were hidden, and often aided in person in their arrest. The law of conscription was no longer evaded, the law enacting the performance of the civil contract of marriage was obeyed, and Sicily ceased to be the byword of nations. Roads and railroads were made, schools opened, and for some time order reigned in Sicily.

But it is not easy to uproot habits and customs; and while crime decreased and criminals were no longer left at large, the old leaven of evil pervaded and still pervades the masses. One of the defects of the Italian system of penalties is that of enforced domicile in the islands of the Mediterranean (*domicilio coatto*), which condemns men who have committed a series of misdemeanors to a period of exile from their homes for not more than five years. At the end of the term they may return, are subjected to police surveillance for another fixed period, and then left at large. The term of their enforced domicile generally ends by leaving the delinquent a worse criminal than at the commencement. He is left at large among his fellow-criminals on the island, is not compelled to work, receives half a lira (ten cents) per day, with the sole obligation to return to his quarters at a given hour at night. This system is not calculated to reform any individual who has a tendency to evil. On the contrary, most of the *coatti* arrange and combine fresh crimes to be perpetrated on their return to their homes. The idleness, often compulsory, as there is little or no work on the islands, has unfitted them for a life of toil; hence they but seek for an opportunity to live by crime and violence, and most of the crimes committed of late years in Sicily are traced back to returned *coatti*. Another error in the system is the employment of men in the various departments of police who have no authority, who have no character, and who

too often are accomplices of the evildoers. In Sicily this defect, common to the whole of Italy, has been aggravated by the existence of a special corps of mounted militia, whose business it was to scour the country and keep order in the rural districts. This corps had too much resemblance to the old *compagni d'arme*, later called *militi a cavallo*, who were, in short, the *bravi* of the old barons, maintained by them to defend their persons and property, and as often as not to attack those of their neighbors. Of these the Bourbons availed themselves freely for their own purposes. A corps with the same name, mounted militia, was formed by the Italian Government, and opinions differ as to their probity and utility. In Sicily the people seem unanimous in denouncing them as untrustworthy, and, if not aiders of the malefactors, at least of very little use in detecting and bringing them to justice.

In 1889 Crispi, Minister of the Interior, devoted his attention to the state of public security in Sicily, and, convinced that the mounted militia was in part corrupt and totally inefficient, decided on its abolition. Meanwhile, he authorized the Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Carbineers to select 600 Sicilian carbineers from the corps, with the intention of distributing them over the seven provinces of the island. He deemed that it was necessary that all should be Sicilians, because of the extreme difficulty for individuals of the other provinces to penetrate into the mountain districts, and, ignorant of the various dialects; of the manners and customs of the peasants and miners and their relations with the proprietors, to act as guardians of the public peace. Meanwhile, Crispi was defeated, and the Rudini-Nicotera Ministry succeeded. Nicotera, approving the decision of his predecessor, abolished the *militi a cavallo*, and was organizing a new corps not only of carbineers, but of a select police, when he too was defeated, and the Giolitti Cabinet took his place without carrying out his design. Malefactors in general took advantage of the disorganization; armed aggressions in the various provinces, and especially in those of Palermo, Catania, and Messina, became frequent. Letters demanding blackmail were addressed to proprietors and wealthy citizens; three glaring seizures occurred within a brief space of time.

The first was that of Cav. Francesco Billotti, a proprietor of Castrogiovanni in the Province of Caltanisetta. On the 3d of August he was sleeping in the open, on the threshing-floor of his father's farm, with a peasant and his two sons. The peasant was awakened by a blow on his head and saw four armed men, who went up to his master, battered his head with the carbine by his side, and made both mount on mule-back. Blindfold, they were carried through several districts, then confined in a cave and barely fed. The Cav. Billotti was delirious after a few days; nevertheless, the brigands managed to make him write to his family and ask 50,000 lire for his liberation. This was a sum impossible for the family to raise; 4,000 lire, so the peasant reported, was all that they could put together. Make it five, said the brigands, and he returned. Meanwhile, the authorities demanded that the peasant should be given up to them, and with him as guide they tracked the path to the cave, where poor Billotti was found assassinated and burnt so entirely that his ashes were carried back in a handkerchief. The authorities and the population, the carbineers and the country police, went to work with a vengeance, and all the assassins were discovered and seized; one was a Calabrian, the others of Calascibetta, one only of Castrogiovanni. Here there were no *manutengoli* (aiders and abettors), no attempt on the part of any to hide or aid the assassins to escape. The assassination seems to have been perpetrated because the wounded man was too far gone to be kept alive until the ransom should arrive. Several of the culprits are returned *coatti*.

In the same month, August 22, another audacious extortion was effected. Baron Antonio Spidaliere, whose wines and brandy are among the most renowned in Sicily, having purchased a new farm, went to take possession, and spent the night with his son at the house of his wife's stepmother, the Baroness Ciacco. In the morning at seven, sending on four of his forest-guards, and leaving his son with the Baroness, he followed on horseback with other three of his dependents. At a short distance from the house armed men bade him halt, seized and bound him and his three followers as they had already seized the *campieri* who preceded him. The captors of the latter returned to the house of the Baroness with a letter demanding 50,000 lire. The young son of Baron Spidaliere aimed at them from a window, but meanwhile arrived the second relay with the captured Baron. The Baroness threw them the 50,000 from the window, but this no longer contented them. They entered with their prisoner and compelled the Baroness to conduct them over the house. When they had despoiled her of another 110,000 lire, they expressed their regret for the "inconvenience" caused, and returned to the Baron his watch, chain, and purse. This audacious aggression was the work of a band of malefactors whose headquarters were the forest of S. Mauro on the borders of the province of Catania. A dependent of the Baroness kept them informed of the movements of the family; the parish priest seems to have connived at their plot. In a short space of time the band was arrested, and its members are now in durance vile.

At the end of the same month the third aggression was enacted. One Sangiorgio of the province of Trapani was seized, bound to a mule, and carried off. The family paid a large sum for his release, but he did not return. The police and the carbineers patrolled the district, and one day during a village festival a peasant who was among the crowd excited their suspicion; he was arrested, and on his person was found a large sum of money. He at once confessed and revealed his accomplices. The carbineers went to the cave, and there found the poor Sangiorgio half dead of hunger and fright, expecting to be murdered every moment. The malefactors were arrested and are now awaiting their trial.

These are the worst cases and there is nothing uncommon in the stories. The Government has now sent a relay of police, or carbineers, and of the much desired bersaglieri. No more is heard of "brigandage in Sicily." But what will be the fate of the malefactors—will they be tried and condemned, or merely sent to *domicilio coatto?*

One of the characteristic crimes of Sicily is the theft of animals (*l'abigeato*), recalling the *razzie* of the Arabs and the rustlers of America. In these exploits, though there are no special associations of *abigeatori*, it is evident that the thief must have accomplices. The old penal code of Italy was very severe on this theft: the penalty for stealing *one* solitary horse, mule, or horned beast, was imprisonment for not more than three years; but if the beast was stolen from a herd or from the stable, the penalty was to be not less than seven years, and might extend even to the galleys for a longer period. By the new code the penalty may not exceed six years of imprisonment. No crime is more difficult of detection. Animals in Sicily live in the open except during the winter months; each herd has its special mark and so has each animal. Sometimes a number of proprietors hire a waste for pasturage, but each man knows his own animal, and all pay in common one or more herdsmen. Rarely are the animals of a large landed proprietor stolen, he having his special *campieri*, who are responsible, and who would make the thief pay heavily for the insult more than the loss of the cattle. It is the poor owner of a few acres of land and perhaps three or four mules or cattle, who is generally the victim. The thief in large wastes where the cattle of various proprietors are assembled, must have some accomplice, as, even if there are 100, all answer to their special names—"like Christians," say the peasants—and answer only to the voice they know. Then wild dogs are kept who would tear an intruder to pieces. Consequently, one of the herdsmen must be an accomplice. He calls the beast and leaves it outside the boundary, the thief comes early at night, drives off the animal, mounting it if it be a mule or horse, and rides to some distant spot, where he sells or kills it in a cavern, destroying the mark and cutting it up to sell to the various butchers in the district. When the owner of the missing animal is warned of his loss, he notifies the police, but takes care never to accuse any one. Rarely are the lost animals found, unless the proprietor is very powerful, when often the beast is returned at night as it was taken. Even this crime might be repressed if trouble were taken to alter the system of marks, and the remedy was long ago suggested by a well-known ex-member of the police, Giuseppe Alongi. But no synthetic system for the prevention, discovery, and repression of crime has yet been attempted in Italy.

The reformation of criminals once convicted has rallied to the task some of the finest intellects and noblest hearts of the peninsula. The penal establishments for women at Messina, that for men at Procida, are simply magnificent, perfect in all their arrangements. The wards are airy, healthy, the due number of cubic feet are assigned to each criminal. The food is good though scant; but as work is provided, a portion of the proceeds is given to the worker, and, a restaurant being at hand, he can supplement the prison fare with all sorts of delicacies—beefsteaks, cutlets, fried, roast, or boiled meat, and a certain quantity of wine. Never did I realize the cruel truth of Carlyle's "model prisons" as during my last visit to Procida. The absurdity of the system in Italy is aggravated by the circumstance that not only is no attention paid to the dwellings of the honest poor, who live in caves in parts of Sicily still, and in kennels and hovels unfit for beasts in most of the cities, while the proprietors exact enormous rents and never give a brush of whitewash or mend a tumbling roof, but the prisons where the accused are taken as soon as arrested are something that baffles description. The prisons of Naples and of some parts of Sicily are as bad as the Black Hole of Calcutta. No person can breathe unless he has got accustomed to the stench, the filth, the stifling atmosphere. Here old criminals, condemned and awaiting their second, third, or fourth trial, are huddled together with per-

haps a young lad of decent parents who has been taken up because his "weights or measures" have not the right mark, or because he has been at a *sciarra* (a scuffle), and here he may remain long enough to learn all the details of crime and infamy known to his comrades. These are the plain truths, and no one can gainsay them.

The present Ministry have published a programme for the restoration of the finances of the country, and if they should succeed in this, a great step would be made towards the decrease of misery, one of the great factors of crime. But the hour of social awakening has not yet dawned for Italy. The people are remembered during the elections because many of them have the vote. The Socialists promise all sorts of benefits if they should get a seat in Parliament, but such as have hitherto obtained one have done nothing—nay, they vigorously opposed many of the propositions of Crispi, who, belonging to the old school, considers that the new country can never become prosperous until all her cities are partakers in the benefits of freedom. Meanwhile the Island of Sicily has returned to its normal state. Giolitti has pledged himself *not* to interfere with the elections, to dissolve no municipal councils, to remove no prefects, until the elections are over. If he keeps his word, a great gain will ensue, for political corruption goes hand in hand with crime of every species. This is the case especially in Sicily, where malefactors have often been let alone by special orders from the central Government because they were known to dispose of a certain number of votes in favor of the said Government.

One question is now especially mooted, and that is the payment of the Deputies. Some of the best members of Parliament have refused to stand, declaring themselves incapable of living in Rome. One of these is the late editor of the *Isola*, one of the best newspapers in Sicily, nay, in all Italy—Napoleon Colaiani, a celebrated writer on social questions. His pamphlets on 'Political Corruption' and 'Crime in Sicily' are text-books for students of these questions. But his newspaper has failed and he retires into private life. So with three other members of the Left. The workmen of Milan maintain their fellow-workman, Maffi, but I know of no other instance where the political workman is deemed worthy of his hire. How far the payment of Deputies will further political morality, it is difficult to say. Crispi has always strongly advocated this measure. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE GUARANTEES FOR STATE BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the much-discussed repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State banknotes, I should like to offer a little testimony that was obtained the other day from a conversation with a Southern gentleman living near Columbia, Tenn. This city had one national and two State banks a year or so ago, when a period of depression, followed by a tight money market, brought on a crisis which resulted in the failure of the two State banks. An investigation of their affairs revealed a wretched condition indeed. The smaller bank, with a capital of $50,000, had more than $100,000 overdrafts; and the larger one, with $100,000 capital, had more than $200,000. The most reckless banking in the East can conceive nothing like this — overdrafts large enough to wipe out both the stock and the 100 per cent. assessment, with no account taken of worthless notes and depreciated collateral, the usual cause of bank failures! One may well be pardoned for crying out lest he be asked to take the currency of such banks.

But where were the examiners? You may well ask the question, for Tennessee has such officers, and I understand that they are expected to make investigations at least yearly. How well they do their duty you may infer when I tell you that one of these banks, so it transpired, had not been examined for ten years. Yet the neglect was doubtless in accord with the business methods of a community that not only tolerates but encourages such a system. For it is well known that the South and West are hostile to the national banks. The cause ordinarily assigned for the prejudice—exceptional profits on the circulation—has been removed by the premium on United States bonds. Where money loans at 5 per cent., the bank that invests $100,000 in Government fours for the purpose of issuing notes, finds the privilege worth $400 per annum; where money loans at 6 per cent., the profit is $85 per annum; where it is worth 7 per cent., the profit turns to a loss of $230; and so on, the loss increasing as the clamor against the system increases.

Has, then, the prejudice no foundation? It must have, and I believe it is found in the following answer of a Southern gentleman when asked for his explanation: "Go to Mr. A. (President of a national bank), and the first thing he inquires is, 'What collateral have you got?' Go to Mr. B. (President of a State bank), and he simply says that he shall expect 12 per cent." The national banker knows that he must be prepared for four Comptroller's calls and a searching examination each year. The State banker feels no such restraint. Undoubtedly an increased currency would be a stimulus to the South and West, but at the same time it might be made a means for introducing conservative business methods, by wisely conditioning the repeal of the tax. At any rate, too great care cannot be taken lest it be so inadequately secured as to invite still more reckless banking.

Richard W. Nutter.

Boston, October 31, 1892.

PORTRAITS IN THE *UNIVERSITY MAGAZINE*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of the men whose pictures appear in a recent issue of the *University Magazine*, I wish to correct certain inferences that might be drawn from an article in the *Nation* of November 3, entitled "Fame in the *University Magazine*." While in no way championing the magazine, I, for one, take exception to your correspondent's statement, "I am struck with the profit there is in the publication of about thirty-six photographs at $100 per head."

The facts in my own case are as follows: I was informed that I was one of six selected to represent '76 among Princeton Alumni appearing in the *University Magazine*, that it was necessary to forward a photograph and to pay *ten* dollars for the expense of having it transferred. This did not seem to me an unjust request, and, feeling honored by the selection, as I still feel, I forwarded the amount. Nothing was ever said about copies, except that I asked them to send me one, which they did. I gave no bonus for "fame," and am at a loss to know why "A. B." was charged so heavily unless his picture presented insuperable obstacles.

Yours truly, Robt. W. Johnson.

Baltimore, November 4, 1892.

THE CULTIVATION OF TREES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I call the attention of your readers to the following paragraph taken from the London *Spectator* of October 22?

"The statistics connected with British agriculture show that the landlords are by no means the helpless, 'played-out' class they are often represented, and that they are meeting the fall in the price of wheat as business men ought to meet it—by turning their land to other uses than corn-growing. This has been shown year after year by the increasing amounts of land laid down to pasturage. A recent return shows another form of landlord activity. Suitable land is constantly being planted, and the acreage under woodland, which in most civilized countries is diminishing, is increasing in England. Ten years ago, the woodland surface of Great Britain was computed at 2,458,000 acres. By the year 1888, the acreage thus occupied had risen to 2,561,000 acres, and the measurements taken in 1891 show a further advance to 2,695,000 acres. Of the 134,000 acres thus added to the approximate woodland area of Great Britain, 96,000 acres are assigned to England, 31,000 to Scotland, and 7,000 acres to Wales. Hampshire heads the list, as the best planted county in England, with 122,574 acres of wood; Sussex has 122,073 acres, and Surrey and Kent come next. These four counties have, indeed, twenty-five per cent. of the English woodlands, and of their entire surface eleven per cent. is wood. In Scotland, the most wooded county is Inverness-shire, with 169,000 acres."

If it is possible in England to plant trees as a crop and derive profit from their growth, why may not some of the deserted farms in New England be made profitable in the same way? Such farmers as I have talked with value their woodland at a high rate, but they never replant with trees the acres they have once cleared. Each year new railroads are built in the mountain regions of New Hampshire for the sake of bringing the lumber of its beautiful wooded steeps to market. There seems to be plenty of capital and of energy for the destruction of the forests nature has provided for us; is it Utopian to think that if part of the energy and capital were expended in replanting some of the deserted farms, the return for the capital might be as great here as it is in England?—Very sincerely,

M. N. S.

Cambridge, Mass., November 4, 1892.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the 'Life and Letters of Washington Allston'; 'French Art,' by W. C. Brownell; 'Rowen: "Second Crop" Songs,' by H. C. Bunner; and 'With Trumpet and Drum,' verses for children by Eugene Field.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s forthcoming publications include several translations from the French, as, 'The Memoirs of Madame de Staal-de Launay,' with forty-one etchings by Lalauze; Jean de la Brète's 'My Uncle and My Curé'; and Maxime de la Rocheterie's 'History of Marie Antoinette'; one from the Italian, 'The Poems of Giosuè Carducci,' by Frank Sewall; reprints relating to the stage, as, 'The Dramatic Essays of Charles Lamb,' edited by Brander Matthews, and 'The School for Scandal,' illustrated by Frank M. Gregory; and the following miscellany: 'The Ballad of Beau Brocade, and Other Poems,' by Austin

Dobson, together with 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes,' by the same writer; 'Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture,' by Frances Mary Steele and Elizabeth L. S. Adams; and the 'Universal Atlas,' including county and railroad maps of the United States.

'Seen from the Saddle' is the title of a volume of out-door sketches, by Isa Carrington Cabell, which Harper & Bros. will bring out some time this fall.

The Centenary Edition of Shelley's Complete Works, edited in four volumes with a life by Prof. George E. Woodberry, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., as are also Prof. Lanciani's 'Pagan and Christian Rome,' 'Italy from the Congress of Vienna, 1814, to the Fall of Venice, 1849,' by William R. Thayer (in two volumes), and 'The Nature and Elements of Poetry,' by Edmund C. Stedman.

'Man in Art,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton; 'The Lost Atlantis, and Other Ethnographic Studies,' by Sir Daniel Wilson; and 'The Last Touches, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. William Kingdon Clifford, will be published directly by Macmillan & Co.

The Cupples Co., Boston, are about to bring out 'Heinrich Heine: His Wit, Wisdom, Poetry,' edited by Newell Dunbar.

Lee & Shepard will issue 'A Woman's Philosophy of Love,' by Mrs. Caroline F. Corbin.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces 'Petrarch, and Other Essays,' by the late Judge T. H. Rearden; 'The Sleeping Princess California,' a poem by Alice Edwards Fratt, with illustrations of California scenery and flowers; and 'At the Gates of Light, and Other Poems,' by Mrs. Amie S. Page.

Funk & Wagnalls promise an important work on 'Criminology,' by Dr. Arthur MacDonald, with an introduction by Prof. Cesare Lombroso and a very extensive bibliography.

An illustrated popular account of six famous journeys of recent times, 'Leaders into Unknown Lands,' will be issued by Thomas Whittaker.

Prof. Robert Baird of Northwestern University has prepared a 'Greek-English Word-list,' containing nearly one thousand of the commonest Greek words, mastery of which will insure a most valuable nucleus for the student's vocabulary. It will have the imprint of Ginn & Co.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn and Dr. W. T. Harris are engaged upon a biography of the late A. Bronson Alcott.

A memorial volume from the papers of the late James R. Osgood is being compiled by Mrs. A. V. S. Anthony.

The following are some English announcements: a new volume by Mr. W. S. Lilly, to be called 'The Great Enigma' (Murray), and dealing with agnosticism and the Christian synthesis—subjects upon which Mr. Lilly has written a good deal; a collection of Mr. Henry Irving's 'Addresses' (Heinemann), with a frontispiece portrait of Mr. Irving by Whistler; 'The Unseen Foundations of Society: An Examination of the Fallacies and Failures of Economic Science due to Neglected Elements,' by the Duke of Argyll, with especial attention to the theory of rent, and of the wages fund; a 'History of India,' from the earliest times down to the present day, by H. G. Keene, intended mainly for the use of students, and to be published in two volumes by W. H. Allen & Co.; and a 'Life of Gavarni,' the French caricaturist, by Frank T. Marzials, to be published by Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

Old favorites in a new dress still press upon us. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's 'In the Levant' has seemed to his publishers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) to afford opportunity for the kind of illustration by photogravure exemplified in their holiday editions of Hawthorne's 'Our Old Home' and 'Marble Faun.' They have accordingly reproduced it in two handsome volumes of which the letter-press is really beyond the need of embellishment. There is a portrait of the author, and twenty-four plates of scenery and architecture, the least good being the panoramic. The binding is in red and green. From Harper & Bros. come Curtis's 'Prue and I' and Henry James's 'Daisy Miller,' the one in an elegant pea-green cover, the other in white and green stripes which somewhat obscure the gilt lettering. Mr. Albert Edward Sterner has furnished the designs for Mr. Curtis's idyll, and they are to be praised for their appropriateness and their decorative feeling; but he is properly a pen-and-ink artist, and his washed drawings compare unfavorably with the majority of his work. If we yield to the French fashion of breaking the squareness of the page by planting vignettes to one side, in the margin, in the corner, we must concede that 'Prue and I' is a very successful bit of typography, for the print is clear and beautiful. Mr. Harry McVickar, on the other hand, seems to us to have overdone the illustrations to 'Daisy Miller,' employing all the eccentricities just noted, with some peculiar to himself. His designs are too formal to be decorative as they stand, and they are not, taken together, equal to Mr. Sterner's. Finally, the criterion "Cherchez la femme" applies here, and Mr. McVickar has given us everything but the heroine. She turns her back to us in the colored frontispiece, and rightly, for her character is out of reach of the artist's imagination.

The first volume of the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels has been issued by Macmillan & Co., and ushers in a series of twenty-five. A popular sale is contemplated, and the price is really low for the solid and elegant workmanship. The print is generous and the size (octavo) dignified. The text followed is that of Scott's last revision, and Dr. Laing's notes are retained. Each volume contains an index and a glossary, and each will be illustrated by a different hand if we can base an inference on the list of artists given for fifteen of them. Mr. Charles Green's designs for 'Waverley,' the initial volume, are nine in number, and at their best are excellent, though his limitations are obvious. Without comparing the Dryburgh with the multitude of other editions, we can commend it unreservedly.

'Play in Provence,' by Joseph and Elizabeth Pennell, reprinted by the Century Co. from the *Century Magazine*, makes a charming little volume, prettily bound and clearly and elegantly printed on the highly glazed paper which is necessary for the proper effect of the cuts. The chatty text and the clever little drawings have lost none of their pleasantness.

Three fresh volumes continue the unpretentious uniform edition of William Black's novels, bound in green cloth, which the Harpers are issuing, viz.: 'The Maid of Killeena,' 'Green Pastures and Piccadilly,' and 'Macleod of Dare.' The first-named contains also 'The Marriage of Moira Fergus.'

The 'Beauties of Nature and the Wonders of the World We Live In' (Macmillan), by Sir John Lubbock, is a charming book, alike for the interest of its varied chapters and for its exemplification of the broad sympathies of its learned author. It is certainly delightful to see that a banker, a politician, and a close observer of the ways of ants should at the same time have an extended comprehension of many other natural fields. It must be noted that Lubbock includes under his title not only the graceful forms of mountain scenery and the delicacy of flower coloring, but the arrangement of river branches, and the rudimentary teeth of cows and hind legs of whales.

'The Geographical Distribution of Disease in Great Britain,' by Alfred Haviland (London: Sonnenschein), a second edition, is an extended statement of a former thesis, of which one of the chief elements is that death from cancer increases in regions of clayey soil liable to overflow by rivers, and that it is relatively rare in limestone regions. This is based upon English records apportioned by small geographical districts and then compared with the physical features of the region. Whatever element of truth there may be in the supposed relation, the present discussion does not sufficiently consider the other possible causes of variation; and until the cases are charted according to natural geological areas, the desired demonstration can hardly be reached. The book is not compactly written; the chapters on the structure and topography of the lake region, to which the most attention is given, are very diffuse; the results gained might be presented in much smaller volume. The subject of the book is, however, one on which increasing attention must be bestowed, and for this purpose better statistics are needed. We may join Dr. Haviland in condemning the British Registrar-General for allowing returns of deaths since 1870 without distinction of sex; for this is particularly unsatisfactory in the case of diseases which affect both sexes, but which are more common in one than in the other. A later volume will deal with the valley of the Thames.

Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace contributes an essay entitled 'Land Nationalization' to the Social Science Series (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners). After stating many shocking but often insufficiently verified cases of oppression by landlords in Ireland, Scotland, and England, and praising once more the lot of the peasant proprietor on the Continent, Mr. Wallace contends that pauperism in Great Britain can be extinguished only by vesting the title to all land in the Government, which shall offer to every member of the community a small piece of land, subject to the payment of a quitrent, and on condition that it be not sublet or mortgaged beyond a certain amount. What is to be done with paupers who cannot take their allotments, or with tenants who become unable to pay their rent, we are not told; but as the scheme is rather utopian in character, it does not make much difference. It should be said that Mr. Wallace proposes no plunder of landlords, and that if a body of peasant proprietors can yet be created in England, it will probably be in some such way as he suggests.

A new book on Egypt is by Flinders Petrie, the veteran excavator and explorer who for several years acted under the auspices of the Egypt Exploration Fund, but more recently upon private account. It is a book in a popular form, in which he recounts his 'Ten Years Digging in Egypt, 1881-1891' (Revell), refraining purposely from minute details, dates, and figures which might serve the single purpose of confusing those who have not made a special study of the subject. Those familiar with the author's larger works will find little new here; for them the present work is not intended. But it is an interesting and at times almost a thrilling tale which he tells, and calculated to furnish considerable information to the general public, or that part of it which cares more for results than for methods. The

book contains many cuts, but some of them are so rough as to add nothing to its value.

The establishment of steamship routes from New York to the Mediterranean by both the Bremen and the Hamburg lines has brought Spain into special prominence as a winter resort for invalids and tourists. It is almost the only European country for which there is no Baedeker, and this may be taken as a compliment to the two standard guide-books to Spain—Ford's (the best of all the Murray guides), now in its seventh edition, and O'Shea's, of which the ninth edition, edited and revised by John Lomas, is just received (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan). Both of these books are so good that it is difficult to decide which to choose; the best way may be to buy them both. Perhaps Ford's general descriptions are the more interesting, while O'Shea has more special information for students of cathedrals. The new edition of O'Shea has more than 100 pages of general information, on forty different topics. The data seem to be fresh; but whereas the new Mediterranean lines from New York are referred to (p. 152) as well as the new railroad from Algeciras (Gibraltar) to Granada, we have found no mention of the equally important new railway which at last makes it possible to go to Gibraltar from Cadiz without taking a steamer except to cross the bay from Algeciras.

Of books of travel on Spain there is no lack, the latest addition to the list being 'Spanish Cities' (Scribners), by Charles Augustus Stoddard, author of 'Across Russia.' It is simply a journalist's record of a brief trip on the peninsula (with a chapter on Tangier), combining an unadorned description of what was seen, with free borrowing from the guide-books and other works on Spain. There are no new points of view, or new regions explored, but the average tourist will find the information thus brought together useful and entertaining. There are eighteen full-page illustrations.

Two notable literary events in Japan are (1) the completion and publication of J. H. Gubbins's 'Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Words.' This three-volume work, clearly and beautifully printed, is indispensable to the student of contemporary Japanese, into the vocabulary of which the modern age has compelled the infusion of many thousand new terms unknown a generation ago. (2) Dr. J. C. Hepburn, the veteran medical missionary and translator, has completed his 'Bible Dictionary,' a handsome illustrated volume. Instead of being a mere translation, it is a scholarly condensation of the best cyclopædic literature with much original matter. It is in the style read by all classes. The mechanical portion of the work is wholly Japanese.

In the useful series, reprinted from *L'Art*, of "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Macmillan), M. Émil Michel takes up another of those Dutch families in which painting was pursued for several generations. This time it is the Van de Veldes whom he treats in his usual careful manner. In the same series M. F. Lhomme follows his study of Raffet by another of Raffet's master, Charlet.

We have received the prospectus of *Childhood*, "a monthly magazine of all that concerns the welfare of the child," to be launched next month under the editorial direction of Dr. George William Winterburn and Florence Hull. The publishers will be A. L. Chatterton & Co., in this city.

Mr. John P. Holland, to whom the *Cosmopolitan's* second prize of $100 has been awarded for an essay on aerial navigation, revives the very simple mechanism, suggested by Herschel years ago, of a pair of propeller wheels rotating rapidly in opposite directions on an axis of variable inclination. Spacious aeroplanes with an upward tilt are expected to help in overcoming gravity. Quite without doubt the plan may be put into successful operation—if the machine is able to lift and support itself in the air (which it is next to certain it could not); if it is incapable of capsizing (which it might be in a quiescent atmosphere); if the aeroplanes, their supports, and guys do not snap or undergo deformation (which, at low speeds, they perhaps would not); and if a benign Providence would only provide salvation for the aviator in case of accident. The other difficulties will occur to the inventor of the machine when he comes to try it.

Instead of "What We Really Know about Mars," the Director of the Lick Observatory might better have entitled his article in the November *Forum* "Speculations concerning Mars," or something of that sort, for the general reader would not then have been led to form the opinion that we really know next to nothing about that planet. The evidence as to the meaning of apparent surface conditions on Mars is rather ramblingly reviewed, but the natural expectation that such an article would have much to say of the observations of Mars during the past summer meets with almost entire disappointment. The sturdy defence of great telescopes is excellent and timely, and will doubtless do much toward silencing further idle detraction of the work of our great instrument-makers, the Clarks, and their European rivals.

The whole number of freshmen at Oxford this year is put at 694, as against 687 last year. Of these, as given in an incomplete list in the *Oxford Magazine*, 52 are non-collegiate; Balliol and University each have 41, and Merton 36. When the non-collegiate, or unattached, students—*non adscripti*, their technical name is—first came up to Oxford about twenty-five years ago, they were few in number, and were generally referred to in conversation as the *non descripti*. They appear to be on a better footing now.

—The November *Atlantic* offers little occasion for comment. Dr. Holmes writes his farewell verses for Whittier with that combination of strength and feeling in which he is most felicitous, and adds one more memorable poem to the sheaf of personal tributes that have been characteristic of the New England literary group. The analysis of the political principles of the two parties, by an anonymous hand, is a singularly fair statement, and would hardly invite criticism from either side on the point of impartial exposition. The papers of the Venetian ambassadors afford an episode of history pleasantly narrated, and the inexhaustible topic of the higher education of women is treated, with especial reference to enlarging their studies in the direction of sociology, by Samuel W. Dike. The serials, however, are the core of the number.

—*Harper's* opens with a series of illustrations of Mecca and Medina, after photographs taken by a Moslem officer, which give the first exact visual knowledge of these closely guarded shrines that the Western world has had. Mr. Warner furnishes a running text on the illustrations, deriving his material from the travels of Burckhardt and Burton. The work of Nathaniel J. Wyeth in Oregon, at the time of the struggle for its possession, is made the subject of a special paper. Mr. Child continues to write of Paris, and Mr. Ralph of the greatness of the West. The designers of the Fair are eulogized by Mr. Millet, and the death-masks of Mr. Hutton's collection are drawn on for a third article on a gruesome topic. Miss Wilkins is, perhaps, the most prominent interest in the number, as she is now suffering the process of exploitation, though in the page that can only be described as an inserted advertisement she is obliged to spare a corner to the claims of Mr. Davis. This is the first time, we believe, that the text has permitted the intrusion of the circular letter into its pages. It is on the whole more convenient not to be obliged to bind up the advertisements with the remainder of the magazine. Between the last words of Curtis and Mr. Warner's urbane sentences in the "Study," the intrusion is so glaring a violation of good taste that it cannot be overlooked.

—*Scribner's* "feature" for the month is a paper upon Victor Hugo, made up of extracts from notes of his conversations at Guernsey by his son. The original manuscripts of these, incredible as it seems, were discovered when his house there was renovated for new occupants, and went begging for a purchaser till some one was brave enough to give eight or ten shillings for the whole, and by so doing more than doubled his investment, selling the collection to Mr. Davey for a pound sterling or two. The notes are full, and the conversations are upon every subject; they are for the period of the five years after the *Coup d'État*. The selection here given from the mass of papers is mainly confined to anecdotes, and is, doubtless, only a foretaste of what will be published in the end. Mr. James writes of the Grand Canal, and Mr. Franklin MacVeagh shows how large a part in the expense of the Fair Chicago has undertaken, and reassures those who have entertained doubts in regard to the transportation and accommodation of visitors and to the quality of the water.

—The *Century* is more varied than its rivals of the month, but is not distinguished by any paper of greater importance than the rest. The suggestion that those who have closed the Fair on Sunday are now bound to see that that day, as one of rest, shall be put to its greatest profit, is well made, and attention is directed to ways of using the day not inconsistent with the customs and preference of our people. The Russian artist Répin, the composer Massenet, the Paris Commune and Brook Farm, scientific error in the Bible, and the traits of workingmen as seen by one of themselves, are topics which illustrate the breadth of interest in the number, of which the most valuable feature, possibly, is the series of letters between Gen. Sherman and Senator Sherman in the months before and after the outbreak of the civil war.

—Surgeon John S. Billings's colossal 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.,' has just been continued by a thirteenth volume which nearly takes in the remainder of the letter S from the preceding volume. It is noticeably full of outlandish names of authors, like the Russian Sutugin with which it closes. The general rubric Surgery falls to this instalment of the Catalogue, and fills 92 pages. Statistics fill 68, and there is a long and important list of vital statistics geographically arranged. A similar remark is to be made of Societies, occupying 57 pages. Of the parts of the body here comprehended, the Spine clearly gives the medical faculty the greatest occupation: it fills 95 pages, whereas the Stomach needs but 78, the Skin 64, the Spleen 20, the Sternum 4. Smallpox leads the ills (62 pages), while Strabismus

lags behind with 8 (besides 4 given to Spectacles), and Stammering with 4. Sleep, or the want of it, calls for a matter of 9 pages. Under Sneezing we observe several works touching the formulas so widely in vogue for turning this phenomenon to good account—a 'Disquisitio philologica de ritu salutandi sternutantes' (1704), and an essay 'De ritu sternutantibus bene precandi' (1741). In the materia medica, Strychnine is at the front with 8 pages, followed by Sodium with 7. But also the Spider and the Snail claim attention, the former for the virtues of its web as a febrifuge, etc., the latter for its efficacy (*ingéré vivant*) in affections of the lungs and larynx, in the case of hernia, and as a basis of pharmaceutical preparations as late as 1840. The old doctrine of Signatures may be seen here to go at least as far back as 1608. Jonn Snart, in 1817, in his 'Thesaurus of Horror,' touching burial alive, showed "by a number of awful facts that have transpired, as well as from philosophical inquiry, the reanimating power of fresh earth in cases of syncope," etc. The Siamese twins cut a pretty figure on page 1, in a literature ranging from 1829 to 1874, and embracing many discussions of the safety of severing their famous ligament.

—There is not much psychology visible in this multitude of titles. Socrates's demon is in question when one controversialist deprecatingly asks (1864), "Socrates était-il fou?" The quite modern Suggestion (supplementary here to Hypnotism in an earlier volume) is hardly ten years old, though there is a stray title dating back to 1862, if there be no mistake in the third figure. The unpromising title of Stumps furnishes several inquiries regarding the alleged liability, in persons who have undergone amputation, to experience sensations from or about the missing members —a curious subject; *e.g.*, "De sensuum mendaciis apud eos homines quibus membrum aliquod amputatum est" (1842), etc. H. Fabricius "ab Aquapendente" (Padua, 1603) discussed the speech of animals—'De brutorum loquela.' Somnambulism yields the title, possessing a local interest, 'Devotional Somnium; or a collection of prayers and exhortations uttered by a Miss Rachael Baker, in the city of New York, in the winter of 1815, during her abstracted and unconscious state, . . . together with a view of that faculty of the human mind which is intermediate between sleeping and waking. The facts attested by the most respectable divines, physicians, and literary gentlemen, and the discourses correctly noted by clerical stenographers.' An earlier narrative or edition will be found on p. 1,100 under the head 'Surprising (The) Case of Rachael Baker' (New York, 1814), the "clerical stenographer" being Charles Mais. Henry Stubbe, who flourished 1631-76, published at Oxford in 1666 'The Miraculous Conformist: or an account of severall marvailous cures performed by the stroaking of the hands of Mr. Valentine Greatarick [Greatorex?]'—a meaning of the word *conformist* not to be found in Dr. Murray's Dictionary, we think. Another work by the same author, printed in London in 1671, was entitled 'A Bacon-face No Beauty,' and this occurrence of the term *bacon-face* antedates Dr. Murray's earliest citation for it, from Otway, 1684, though *bacon-faced* he traces to 1600 or thereabouts.

—At the Congress of Americanists held at Huelva, Spain, in the early part of October, Mr. Ed. Seler of the Ethnographical Museum in Berlin made some interesting communications about the Maya manuscripts and the actual state of their deciphering. He began by saying that formerly the students of Maya hieroglyphs had been misled by the so-called Landa Alphabet, published by Bishop Landa in the sixteenth century in his 'Relaciones de Yucatan,' a standard work for Maya history. In Germany the deciphering of the manuscripts has lately been begun in another way, viz., by comparison. Prof. Foerstemann of Dresden was the first to discover by this method the system used by the ancient Maya people in writing their numbers. Shellhaas and Seler are both working in the same fashion. Seler found out that the first sign of the three by which every deity is accompanied indicates the action in which the deity is represented; so does the second sign frequently. Moreover, in the books of 'Chilam Balam' written in the Maya language, a fine copy of which he met with in the library of Prof. Brinton, he found a description of the thirteen "ahau katun" or periods of 20x360 days, with their names, the names of their tutelary deities, and their astrological importance. The same thirteen "ahau katun" are represented in the Perez Codex (MS. Mexicain No. 2, Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris). Thus he was enabled to identify certain deities and certain hieroglyphs of the Maya manuscripts. The contents of those ancient writings are, according to Dr. Seler, chiefly astrological and chronological.

MARKHAM'S COLUMBUS.

Life of Christopher Columbus. By Clements R. Markham. London: George Philip & Son. 1892.

EVERY historian has his pitfall, and his readers soon become conscious of it. It is some personal quality, implanted by nature or derived from experience. The purely literary man turned historian bends his narrative to secure picturesqueness or to give an artistic effect, no matter what the requirements of truth. The popular writer, knowing how the common mind yearns to be led, finds all complications of fact which perplex the circumspect student to vanish before his easy decisions. The defect of Mr. Markham, proficient student as he is in all these early American subjects, is his pride in the seaman's profession, and his unwillingness to believe that unworthy qualities can be conjoined with the essential merits of a great seaman.

It is a psychological study to watch him formulate the rules for making a maritime wonder: Call your hero a "genius" and put him beyond the pale of criticism. "Assume so able a man to be correct." If there is anything, for instance, awkward for Columbus's fame in Las Casas's abridgment of the Admiral's journal, do not hold the Admiral responsible. If there is a damaging discrepancy in one of two statements, decide that the most objectionable is "a careless copy," and if there is in the other something on record to interfere with your ideal, use the politician's art and call it a "slip of the pen." If there is an obvious difficulty in the way, as in Columbus's reference in his will to a woman whom he had wronged, lighten it by calling it "some ecclesiastical obstacle." Say that no one could have managed colonists better, but do not forget yourself and say in another place that another could have done better, in allowing that Bartholomew Columbus was "better fitted to deal" with such people. Profess that "every sentence written by the illustrious Genoese is valuable to posterity," and do not forget this when you come to speak of the oath which he prescribed on the coast of Cuba, for you may find yourself forced to maintain that the Admiral was delirious when he indited so foolish a thing, and presume that "passing whims of a vivid imagination account for the wildest vagaries." If the Admiral's writing takes the form of a falsification of his log, find it "fully justified by the circumstances." If Columbus says he never again saw his wife after deserting her, decide that he meant to say "hardly ever" instead of "never." If your hero seized poor Indians, say that he "detained" them; but when others do the same thing, say that the poor creatures were "kidnapped" or carried off "by force." Say that Columbus only forced into slavery prisoners of war, and forget that he outlined such a subjection for the Lucayans the moment he laid eye on them, as the first letter he wrote of his discovery shows.

It is impossible to suppose that a scholar of Mr. Markham's ripeness could have knowingly committed himself to such a rehabilitating process, and we must account for it solely by his being overmastered by his admiration for the magnates of a calling which he would have adorned had he remained in it. This overpowering ideal makes him forget what he must know, as when he says that Columbus reached Lisbon at a time when "the idea of sailing west had not entered into men's minds." How is it that Harrisse, then, can make his catalogue of tentative voyages for thirty or forty years before 1492? When Mr. Markham says that "assuredly the discovery of the New World was no accident," does not the dictionary on his table define an "accident" to be "an event proceeding from an unknown cause, or happening without design of the agent; an unforeseen event"? Assuredly Mr. Markham cannot contend that Columbus expected to discover America. When he wants to make it appear that Columbus believed he had seen a token of land in the mysterious light at ten o'clock, when he was approaching his goal, he says that "Columbus determined to keep the same course until daylight *under very easy sail.*" Who knew about this so well as Las Casas, with Columbus's journal before him, and he makes the Admiral say, "After sunset sailed twelve miles an hour till two hours after midnight." Irving calls this "a rapid rate," and there is no sign in it certainly of slackening speed. Would Mr. Markham call it a "slip of the pen" on Las Casas's part? Our biographer says that this light was "universally believed to be on land," to account for the claim which Columbus put in for the award of a prize. Las Casas represents Columbus as saying, "which *some* thought an indication of land." Another slip? Again Mr. Markham says: "The acquisition of gold took a very secondary place in the mind of this great man, whose unselfish thoughts were ever bent on the achievement of discoveries for the welfare of the human race." Again it is a pity that Las Casas made a slip of the pen when he wrote, "The Admiral thought and watched and worked for nothing more than to contrive that there might come income to the sovereigns"; and Columbus was a sharer in such income.

The book is a capital instance of the way in which an historian under such unconscious sway is controlled by his own wishes, as if they were proofs. He cannot bear to think that Bartholomew had been more of a pioneer than his brother, and so, without any ado, discredits the early writers who represent the future Adelantado to have been engaged in making charts in Lisbon when Christopher arrived there; simply because the notarial records of Genoa find Bartholomew in that town in 1480, six

years after his brother is known to have gone to Portugal. Is there any evidence to show that Bartholomew could not have visited Genoa after the sojourn in Spain which the early writers give him? Without the slightest evidence to support it, Mr. Markham assumes that Columbus must have had acquaintance with and been consulted by Martin Behaim in Portugal, when the correspondence of that cosmographer and Münzmeister on the subjects nearest to Columbus's consciousness contains strong indications that the German never heard of the Genoese. We may well ask for a single recorded circumstance that points to the conclusion that Columbus had ever heard of a western passage before he reached Portugal, or before Toscanelli impelled him to the belief; and yet Mr. Markham finds it meet to maintain that Columbus was in thoughts a discoverer before he left Savona.

Mr. Markham cannot even allow that John Cabot saw the Continent of North America before Columbus saw the Southern Continent. He acknowledges that very few facts about Cabot's voyages are known, believes that the land first seen was an inner corner of Cape Breton Island, and finds no mention of other land but islands; therefore, the Continent of America was not then discovered. He thus pays no regard to the distinct terms of Cabot's patent for a second voyage, which is a bit of positive evidence of what was then believed, when it speaks of "the land *and* isles of late found by the said John"; nor does Mr. Markham recognize the positive evidence of La Cosa, who used Cabot's results, when he placed the legend "Sea discovered by the English" along a continental shore.

It would seem, too, that he could not bear to have Columbus make advances for reconciliation with Fonseca, although such an advance would support his belief in Columbus being "utterly devoid of any vindictive theory." It happens that this "implacable enemy" of Columbus was advanced to the Bishopric of Placentia, and that after this event Columbus wrote to some one at the Court in terms of pleasantry, asking to have "the Bishop of Placentia" reminded of their mutual and early acquaintance and of Columbus's wish to lodge with him. Mr. Markham does not allow the slightest suspicion of doubt to rise when he asserts that it was of Deza, the bishop whom Fonseca succeeded, that Columbus spoke so kindly. It may be true that it was, and that Columbus, though in constant communication with the Court, had not heard of Deza's giving place to Fonseca in that episcopal station; but to fly in the face of chronology, without admitting a doubt, could better serve his purpose. The Catholic writers are glad to seize upon the incident as proving that lack of vindictiveness for which Mr. Markham contends.

We have said thus much to indicate how a ripe student can be swerved by unconscious predilections. If licenses like these be allowed, how can any historical character stand against the personal equation of the historian? With such a method it needs only adroitness to make a saint of any devil or a devil of any saint.

There is no Englishman who has acquired reputation in this field better able, from learning, than Mr. Markham to attack the difficult problems in it. He shows his skill when he elucidates the evidence upon the landfall of Columbus; but we hardly know how to account for his omission of the theory of Harrisse when he professes to mention all. There are not many, indeed there are few, slips in the book, where the personal character of Columbus is not concerned. It is, to be sure, strange to find Mr. Markham saying that Behaim's globe had no Antillia on it, when his own engraving of it gives evidence to the contrary. He makes a contention in regard to the Cantino map which, if it be conceded that he proves his point, not only knocks out the props of the alleged voyage of Vespucius in 1497, but also dispels some of the strongest arguments of Harrisse against that alleged expedition. He contends that what has been considered the point of Florida on that map is really the eastern cape at the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, and that the compiler of the map simply blundered in placing Cuba so near that Florida is the natural interpretation of that point. He does not seem to observe that by so doing he throws into the realm of hallucination a long series of maps following up the Cantino idea, including some of the most prominent monuments which we have of the cartography of that day, like the maps and globes of Stobnicza, Schöner, Reisch, and the recently discovered gores known by the names of Tross and Nordenskiöld. Mr. Markham has a task before him to rehabilitate this early geography if all these monuments are overthrown. The confused notions of Mr. Markham's simpleton who used the Cortereal cards in blundering on the Cantino map, can hardly have been adopted by some of these learned cosmographers.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

New types of books for the young we may not regularly expect with the recurring season of greatest productiveness, nor fine examples of imaginative creation. The class which is always with us, and which is not to be despised, is historical and geographical, and this is already fully represented on our table.

Col. T. W. Knox's 'The Boy Travellers in Central Europe' (Harpers) is the latest volume in a well-known series. It describes a summer's journey throug some of the more interesting parts of France, Switzerland, the Tyrol, and Austria. The author attempts, and not unsuccessfully, to impart some of the information which a guide-book contains in an entertaining way, by means of the conversations and extracts from the diaries and letters of the travellers. We are constrained to say, however, that his frequent attempts at humor and the foolish remarks of the mother of one of the boys do not make the book more attractive. Nor is he always happy in his choice of the topics upon which he writes. In his account of Paris, for instance, considerable space is given to a description of a reception at the French Academy and an evening at a noted salon, in which few young readers can take an interest, while places to which boys would naturally go are not mentioned. The volume is well illustrated, and has maps of the routes pursued conveniently placed on the inside of the covers. If it had an index, it might be useful as a book of reference, since it contains many valuable historical facts and short biographies of distinguished characters.

'Canoemates' (Harpers), by Kirk Munroe, is an entertaining story for boys, and will usefully enlarge their knowledge of our great Atlantic peninsula. Two boys make a trip in canoes from Key West along the Florida Reef to the western coast of the mainland, and from thence through the Everglades to the Atlantic. They have numerous adventures in terrible storms, with thieves, cowboys, wild animals, and huge fish, and especially with the Seminoles, of whom a very attractive account is given. There are excellent descriptions, also, of the peculiar scenery of the Keys and southern Florida, of the sponge-fishery, and of life in a light-house, on a key, in a station on the Atlantic coast, and in an Indian village. Much information is given about canoes, their construction and management.

The same region has attracted Mr. Charles F. Holder, whose 'Along the Florida Reef' (Appletons) purports to be a record of the experiences of several boys among the Florida Keys, with a story as a sort of thread upon which are strung numerous observations of the varied and remarkable fauna of that subtropical region. The story is of trifling importance, but the varied adventures of the boys, while sailing, hunting, and fishing, are sufficiently exciting to make a very readable book. The natural history is somewhat of the sensational order, and would probably have benefited by revision at the hands of some sober-minded biologist, and the illustrations in some cases have only a very remote connection with the text. Still, with all its faults, the book presents a picture of life in a quarter far removed from the experience of most boys, and they will doubtless welcome it for its novelty, while incidentally learning more or less about creatures not to be found in zoölogical gardens and which most of us hardly know even by name.

The scene of 'Four on an Island' (Cassell), by Mrs. L. T. Meade, is laid in Brazil, and the heroes of the story are four children—two boys and two girls, the eldest of whom is fourteen and the youngest nine—and a dog. They drift upon an uninhabited island, where they are obliged to stay for several weeks before they are rescued. During this time they build a hut and manage to live comfortably, having for food turtles, eggs, and fish. Their chief danger lies in the huge and voracious land-crabs with which the island abounds. The little folks for whom the story was written and who are not yet familiar with the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' will find it attractive enough.

'Englishman's Haven' (Appletons), by W. J. Gordon, tells of the two sieges of Louisbourg, in 1745 and 1758, and it would be difficult to find a more graphic account of the strange fate of this fortress. The colonial army under "Mr." Pepperrell, with its "mixture of reckless audacity, pious enthusiasm, and exuberant boyishness," and Boston under the double excitement of Whitefield's preaching and the preparation for the expedition, are described as if by an eye-witness. So, also, is the spirited account of the gallant defence of Annapolis Royal by Col. Mascarene against the French and Indians, and the capture of the two French men-of-war in the harbor of Louisbourg at the second siege. There is a somewhat tangled thread of romance running through the story, in which a mysterious Indian conjurer and his squaw play a prominent part. Among the noted characters introduced are Montcalm, Wolfe, and Capt. Cook. The author has very happily shown the spirit of the time of which he writes, its habits of thought and manner of speech, by making the hero of his tale, a Scotch lad, its narrator. He exhibits all the English colonist's bitterness of feeling against the French, heartily commending, for instance, the expatriation of the Acadians. The sketch of the infamous Abbé Le Loutre, we trust, is not in all points historically true, though it certainly corresponds to the reputation which he bore among his contemporaries. The illustrations are exceptionally good.

There is a quaint originality and life in Brander Matthews's 'Tom Paulding' (The Century Co.), a very enjoyable story. The scene is laid in the upper part of New York city, the days of the Revolution being skilfully linked with our own times. Three or four "real" boys, a girl, an adventure-loving Uncle Dick, the very model of what a boy would like in a bachelor uncle, are the principal actors, and the seeking a buried treasure is the main incident. The interest in the hero's quest is more than well-sustained, the last chapters being the best in the book. Tom himself is a manly, straightforward, unselfish fellow, devoted to his mother and sister—a boy, in a word, whose companionship is worth having, even though it be only in a story.

'The End of a Rainbow' (Scribners), by Rossiter Johnson, is an ingenious, but at times over-fanciful, story of the doings of some boys and girls in an inland town a few years before the Rebellion. Among other things, they search a mill-race for lost treasures, write prize stories for a newspaper, make an exploring expedition in a canal-boat, and "unhaunt" a haunted house. The story is supposed to be told by one of the number, and is for the most part humorous after a boyish fashion, but some of the fun is rather above childish heads. Nor will they be likely to understand the author's meaning in the closing chapters, which have a curiously despondent tone. The narrator comes back to his home, after a six years' absence in the heart of Java, to learn for the first time from a wounded playmate the story of the just-finished civil war.

The war is the theme of 'The Battle of New York' (Appletons), by William O. Stoddard. Two lads, one a Confederate, the other a Unionist, are the joint heroes. The former acts as a spy, carrying despatches between Gen. Lee and his New York allies. On his return from this city he witnesses the battle of Gettysburg. The other is a newsboy, and defends his house against an attack by the mob during the draft riots of 1863. The description of these terrible days and more awful nights is very animated, and is by far the best part of the book. The story, with this exception, is told in a somewhat confused and spasmodic way, which renders it difficult at times to keep the thread of the narrative. Some very improbable incidents are introduced, and there is also a tiresome imitation, by bad spelling, of street-talk, of which the less the better in this kind of literature.

The author, M. Louise Putnam, of 'The Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) disclaims any expectation of amusing the children for whom she has written. She hopes to interest them and instruct them, and we think she will succeed. But the children who will enjoy the chapters dealing with Lincoln's maturity must be older than those who will enjoy the first chapters. The book improves as it goes on, and there is some danger that those who would delight in the later chapters will be discouraged by the earlier. These are a little sentimental, and they give a decidedly rose-colored account of Lincoln's parents, while the sordid misery of his childhood and early youth would hardly be guessed from what is written. Consequently, no adequate sense is conveyed of that innate nobility which triumphed over the most unfavorable environment. A good feature of the book is its brief expositions here and there of the forms of government. The Electoral College is taken too seriously, and there is no indication of the difference of its present operation from the intention of its founders. In treating of the slavery question there is not a hint of any forces working for the destruction of slavery outside of the political parties. There is not even a word concerning the political anticipations of the Republican party in the Liberty and Free-Soil parties. Children will be apt to feel some disappointment at finding Lincoln so willing to save the Union without destroying slavery, while yet he was a good deal in advance of his party in his anti-slavery sentiments. It is a rhetorical exaggeration, aggravated by italics, to say that Lincoln's proclamation, "by a stroke of his pen, freed a whole race," as it did not affect the border States. There is no mention of the Constitutional Amendment finishing his work. The best feature of the book is the copious extracts from Lincoln's speeches and addresses. They will prove the most comprehensible parts of the story—"words so deep that a child can understand them," as Theodore Parker said of the teachings of Jesus.

"Mackay of Uganda" (A. C. Armstrong & Son) was a missionary, the story of whose stirring life cannot fail to stimulate the boys for whom it was written. He was singularly well-fitted for the work of a pioneer of Christian civilization in a barbarous country. Born in a Scottish manse, and educated partly in a university and partly in a machine shop, he joined the habits of thought and speech of a minister to the skill of a practical engineer. To these qualifications for a typical missionary should be added a sunny disposition, whole-souled devotion to his work, great tact in dealing with the natives, and a perfect fearlessness of death for a just cause. His life was crowded with interesting and exciting incidents. He was familiar not only with the perils of the African forests, deserts, and lakes, but with persecutions as fierce as those which raged in the first centuries of our era. Many lads whom he taught Christian truth while laboring at the forge or in the boat-yard, were dragged from his side to testify in the flames to their belief in Mackay's God. He himself escaped a hundred times, only because of his usefulness as a machinist to the savage king Mwanga. It is greatly to be regretted that his biographer, his sister, has so little faculty for telling his story in a manner attractive to the young. She lacks the essential power of graphically picturing the scenes in which her brother played so conspicuous and so heroic a part, and overburdens her book with frequent and long quotations from diaries and letters intended for older readers. Still, notwithstanding these defects, we believe that some boys will be led by the book to promote in some way "the moral and spiritual regeneration" of Africa.

'Mixed Pickles' (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), by Evelyn Raymond, is a very sprightly narrative of the doings of six cousins suddenly brought together in the farm-house of their Quaker grandmother. Their varied characters are well delineated, the plucky little Fritz and his bright sister Octave being made especially attractive. The account of the manner in which the boy invalid is cured, both morally and bodily, though marred a little by the improbable "mystery" of his great medical discovery, is certainly novel and interesting. A little romance is introduced by the marriage of the delightful German uncle to the rather sharp but lovable Quakeress aunt. The story is thoroughly wholesome and enjoyable, and at times not a little amusing.

BASTABLE'S PUBLIC FINANCE.

Public Finance. By C. F. Bastable, LL.D., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THE subject of public finance, Prof. Bastable observes, has not been systematically treated in English since McCulloch wrote, well-nigh half a century ago, and the lack of a suitable manual has been especially felt by teachers. Upon the whole, we incline to think that this book will supply the want as satisfactorily as is possible. To say the truth, there is practically no science of finance, nor is there any approach to agreement as to the principles upon which such a science might be constructed. A very considerable number of people look upon government as an evil only tolerable because it prevents the worse evils of anarchy, and consider it essentially and permanently incapable of transacting any business in as efficient and economical a manner as its subjects. Upon their side, they claim, all experience is arrayed. A larger number, perhaps, regard government as a "fountain" of benefits, to use Blackstone's expression, and are for enlarging its functions, and therefore its expenditures, upon every opportunity. Upon their side is the passion for equality and the belief in human perfectibility. It might seem that the difference between these schools of thought related only to the amount of expenditure, but a little reflection shows that the methods of raising revenue are equally the cause of dispute. While the controversy between free-traders and protectionists continues, it is safe to say that there will be no common consent as to what is sound finance.

Were the protectionists disposed of, there would remain the prohibitionists and anti-tobacconists, who regard the taxation of the accursed thing as implying a league between Satan and the Government; the single-tax men, who would raise all revenue from rates upon land; the believers in an income tax, who would tax persons rather than things; and those who hold to taxing all property, real and personal. As a matter of fact, the Government obtains a revenue by disregarding all these theories in part and recognizing them to a greater or less extent. In this way an empirical system of taxation comes to exist in every country, which is scientific only because it is found to work. So long as it does produce revenue from subjects and does not produce rebellion among them, it satisfies the ordinary requirements of rulers, and improvements are likely to consist chiefly in modifications that increase revenue without increasing discontent. The financial system of England is a growth of this kind, and to be defended upon this ground. Prof. Bastable does not seem to us to be free from a certain insularity of view upon this subject. He evidently regards the English system of taxation as approximating the ideal, but if we examine his arguments, it will be found that they amount to maintaining that by combining a number of individually objectionable taxes a desirable compound will result. The truth is, that the burden of taxation in Great Britain is relatively very light, and no matter how bad a tax may be in theory, if it practically is not oppressive, it is likely to be retained.

Taxation is an institution like language. Philologists could easily construct a language which should be a far more perfect instrument for the expression of thought than any that now exists. The mere substitution of the symbols of the stenographer for our alphabet would

result in an enormous saving of time in both reading and writing, and even phonetic spelling would save a year's painful toil to those who have to acquire the English tongue. But not even the least of these reforms is practicable, because it is as impossible to change the customs of a whole people as it is to frame an indictment against them. Immediate inconvenience outweighs infinite future advantage. *Nolumus leges mutari* expresses the common feeling in regard to taxation. Men know the ills of established taxes, and would rather bear them than fly to others that they know not of. Hence a new tax is almost always odious, no matter what its abstract merits; and legislators and administrative officers will generally find it safer to follow the beaten paths than to incur the risks of adopting the most attractive innovations. The history of taxation, therefore, like that of language, is the record of adaptations of existing institutions to new demands. No change is made except of necessity, and its nature when made is determined by immediate expediency.

Nevertheless, a certain number of empirical rules have come to be recognized by financiers, and it is in the presentation of these that Prof. Bastable does his best work. Certain taxes have been found to be peculiarly odious and therefore unproductive. Hence they are to be discarded in favor of those that are less unpopular. Others are uncertain in their product or expensive in their collection, and these tend to be abandoned. The machinery of collection is from time to time improved, and the most productive rates are ascertained by experience, until it is possible to determine in a well-governed country like England just how much revenue may be expected from a tax and just how much it ought to cost to collect it. So, too, in the matter of borrowing, the methods have reached a high degree of perfection, and most governments, it may be added, have taken full advantage of this improvement.

We have spoken as if finance and taxation were the same thing, but Prof. Bastable observes that although taxation is the principal source of public revenue, it is not the only one. Formerly governments were large owners of property, and although revenue from this source is now relatively insignificant, it is intrinsically considerable. The German States especially undertake much business upon public account, and just at present there is a loud cry in England for municipal ownership of gas and water-works and street railways. Prof. Bastable shows that enterprises of this kind are not as a rule very profitable. A great many States own railways, but the kingdom of Prussia is the only one that makes them pay. Whether there may be other public benefits compensating for this financial loss is a different question. It may be contended that the Government should not aim to derive a profit from such services, but it is easy to see that where a profit is not the end of a business, a deficiency is likely to occur, which in the case of governments must be made up by taxation. Upon this point the practice of the post-offices of Great Britain and the United States may be contrasted.

Considering the multifarious information collected in this volume, it seems a grave error of judgment not to provide it with an index. It will, of course, be read through by some, but its value is as a book of reference, and as such it would naturally be consulted by a great many readers who must now turn to more available sources of information. It is a little surprising, we may add, that although Mr. D. A. Wells's report on taxation in New York is quoted, Prof. Bastable seems to be ignorant of his classical reports as Commissioner of Internal Revenue and of their results. Perhaps no documents more instructive for the financier are in existence, nor has any reform in methods of raising revenue comparable to that instituted by Mr. Wells taken place at any recent date. But in general Prof. Bastable displays a very thorough acquaintance with his subject, especially on its practical side, as well as with what has been written about it. His book will at once take its place as the standard English manual of finance, and its merits are such as to make it probable that it will hold this place for a long time to come.

LORD LOFTUS'S RECOLLECTIONS.

The Diplomatic Reminiscences of Lord Augustus Loftus, P.C., G.C.B. First Series. 1837-1862. 2 vols. Cassell Publishing Co. Pp. 428 and 343.

THESE reminiscences will extend over nearly fifty years of diplomatic service, the most important scenes of which were Vienna and Berlin. The style of the writer throughout is painfully like that of a protocol, and, when he speaks of the doings of royalty, it is in language as devotional as that of the column of Court News in the *Morning Post*. But beneath the ample folds of buckram, professional and social, we find a character not uninteresting or without value. It is that of a public man who has spent a long life, not in the service of a party, but in that of his Government and his country. You can see that he is always honestly doing his best to fulfil the good objects of his calling by preserving friendly relations, settling international differences, and keeping the world at peace. He is impassive, as his profession requires, and seldom allows his own opinion, still more seldom his own feelings, to appear. But you can see that his sympathies are liberal. His judgments of men are perfectly calm. Only in the case of "Albert the Goody," as some profane persons have called him, does the diplomatist feel impelled by his loyalty to work himself up to a strain of eulogy which reminds us of the singular monument in Hyde Park, where all the representatives of the world's genius are seen filing in humble procession round the feet of the Prince Consort.

On the other hand, those who look for diplomatic revelations or spicy anecdote will suffer the same disappointment here on a small scale which they suffered on a large scale in the Memoirs of Talleyrand. If Lord Augustus Loftus saw any secret springs of action, or was behind the curtain of any mystery, the reticence of the diplomatist has prevailed. One curious document he gives us. It was placed in his hands, he says, by a colleague who had come from Paris and who was intimate with the circle of the Emperor Napoleon III. It is without signature, date, or address, but purports to be an outline of the Emperor's policy, if not an instruction to one of his Ministers. As it is short, we may give it in Lord Augustus's own translation:

"Pending the duration of the war in Italy, it will be necessary to keep back and flatter England in order to obtain her inaction and to be assured of her neutrality.

"The war in Italy happily and victoriously terminated, the great operation in the East will commence in concert with Russia, and England will be attacked simultaneously on her coasts and her naval stations in the Mediterranean.

"As for Prussia, one laughs at her diplomatic measures, which aim at obtaining a guarantee from the Emperor not to attack Austria on her territory belonging to the German Confederation, and to preserve to the minor Italian Princes their respective territories. As for Germany, a certain esteem will be pretended for her organization, her civilization, her progress; and it will be given out at Frankfort that it is a mere question of the liberation of Italy, except making solemn promises never to attack German territory; but in reality the populations will be roused against the Governments, and Prussia and the Diet will be held in check by Russia."

Lord Augustus seems inclined to think that the paper is authentic; at least he remarks that it corresponds with the Emperor's habits of mind, and receives confirmation from subsequent events.

"The Emperor Napoleon," he says, "was apt to act under sudden impulses. He was easily impressed by those feelings for oppressed nationalities which he had imbibed in his early youth, and he was the more easily seduced by those feelings when they harmonized with his ambitious views of remodelling the map of Europe, without at the same time taking any decided resolution of carrying them into execution. . . . Thus it was that his policy often appeared tortuous and inconsistent, and his apparent want of sincerity was productive of disbelief and distrust.

"There were two currents in the direction of his foreign policy, viz., that of the ordinary official current through his accredited diplomacy, and that carried on through the medium of secret agents unknown to his Cabinet, the result of which was that the language of his ministers abroad was not always in harmony with the Emperor's views and with facts. Thus, while negotiating for the pacific settlement of the affairs of Italy, he had predetermined on war, and at the same time was negotiating with Count Cavour, through a secret agent, the arrangements for action."

Napoleon III. was a sort of visionary cracksman. His imagination, wandering from one of his neighbors' houses to the other, was always planning a nocturnal enterprise against some of them. Even while his legs were under your dinner-table, his eyes were dreamily looking for the easiest access to your strong-box. But he was irresolute, and if he found your locks and bars strong, he turned his inventive genius at once in another direction. His prison meditations had filled his mind with schemes of every kind, first for his own exaltation and afterwards for the reconstruction of the world. Nobody ever was safe in his hands. While he was concocting the *Coup d'État*, he was gratuitously prodigal of perfidious disclaimers, and professions of loyalty to the Republic. The alarm about his designs which gave birth to the Volunteer movement in England, seemed to many a senseless panic, but it appears that after his fall he made proposals to the German Emperor which prove the alarm to have been anything but groundless. His fancy generally ran in the track of the first Emperor's designs, and, had the Confederates obtained his aid, they would probably have been asked to pay for it by the surrender of Louisiana.

Another curious little trait of Napoleon III. is connected with the negotiations at Villafranca which closed the Italian war. It seems that he shrank from a personal interview with the Austrian Emperor, because, as he told Metternich, he felt sure that he should fall under Francis Joseph's personal influence. "J'ai eu bien raison d'avoir redouté l'entrevue avec sa Majesté votre souverain, car j'étais bien sûr qu'elle me subjugerait." It can hardly have been the intellectual influence of Francis Joseph that Napoleon dreaded; he must have felt that as a parvenu and a usurper he would succumb to the majesty of legitimate royalty. Probably he was conscious that he

was not only a parvenu and a usurper, but an impostor, and that there was no more of the Bonaparte in his true pedigree than there was in his head and face. It is curious that this open secret, though a perfectly open secret it was, practically did him so little harm. The recollection of the falsehoods that he had told while he was preparing to spring on Austria, may also have had something to do with his personal shyness in meeting Francis Joseph.

The views of Lord Augustus on the subject of the Crimean War and the relations between Great Britain and Russia are those which one would expect from a man of sense. He sees that the war ought never to have taken place, and that its results have come to nothing. Russia has regained possession of the territories ceded in Bessarabia, and the clauses limiting her naval forces and prohibiting her construction of fortresses on the Black Sea are a dead letter. Great Britain, Lord Augustus thinks, ought to place herself at once on a thoroughly good footing with Russia, the other great Asiatic Power. Reasonable Englishmen will agree with him in this. The Empire of Russia in Central Asia has grown from causes as natural as those by which the Empire of Great Britain has grown in Southern Asia, and there is no reason why the two Empires, each of them having reached its limits of extension and become coterminous with the other, should not rest side by side in peace. Russia's threats and her designs, if she really has any, of invading Hindustan, would probably pass away if Great Britain would withdraw the veto which, for reasons not easy to understand, she persists in putting on Russia's access to the Mediterranean, where the presence of Russia, so far as appears, would be no more dangerous to England than that of the other maritime Powers. The Crimean war was brought on mainly by the personal influence of three men, all of whom were bent on war from the beginning: Lord Palmerston, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, and Louis Napoleon; the first two being actuated by that almost insane Russophobia which had before led Palmerston into the disastrous invasion of Afghanistan, the third by the desire of surrounding his upstart throne with a halo of military glory and of forcing his own way into the circle of legitimate monarchs. The overbearing temper of the Czar had no doubt furnished these intriguers with the occasion, but there was nothing which diplomacy would not have settled had they not been determined that settlement there should be none, and covertly worked together to prevent one. Had Lord Aberdeen been bold enough to recall Lord Stratford de Redcliffe from Constantinople, peace might have been preserved. But, unfortunately, Lord Aberdeen, a man of much less force than virtue, and the head of an ill-cemented coalition, was not master of his own Cabinet.

The anecdotes and personal touches in these volumes are very few. But here is an amusing little story of Brougham:

"The King [of Würtemberg] had a magnificent stud of Arab horses, which he procured at great expense from Syria, and of which he was very proud. When Lord Brougham visited Stuttgart, he was taken round the stables by the King's Master of the Horse. It was a bitterly cold day, and Lord Brougham, slightly clad, and with trousers scarcely reaching to his ankles, ran hastily through the stables, never looked at a horse, and on coming out merely observed to the Master of the Horse 'that the money spent on the stables would be more advantageously spent in building a suitable university for the education of the nobility.' The Master of the Horse, unaccustomed to receive any but loud encomiums of praise and admiration, was reduced to dumb silence."

Few are now alive who can remember those trousers scarcely reaching to the ankles, and can vividly represent to themselves how Brougham would scuttle through the stables, and with what play of face, especially of the incomparable nose, the observation which crushed the Master of the Horse would be delivered. Here is a story of Lord Westmorland, British Envoy at Berlin, also amusing in its way:

"On one occasion an English gentleman called to see Lord Westmorland on particular business. He was at breakfast, and, receiving him with his usual urbanity, asked the object of his visit. The gentleman said that he felt somewhat aggrieved that he had brought an official letter of introduction to him from the Foreign Office, and, having learnt that his Lordship had given a great dinner the night before, was surprised and hurt at receiving no invitation. Lord Westmorland exclaimed, with his usual heartiness, 'God bless me, sir, I am really quite distressed. I think I received the letter of which you speak. I will send for it.' Accordingly the letter was brought to him, and on reading it he said to the stranger, 'Ah! I thought so. There, sir, is the letter; but there is no mention of dinner in it,' on which the gentleman rose and backed out of the room in confusion."

Metternich and Bismarck appear in their usual aspect. Old Metternich said to Lord Augustus, when he told him that something would never happen, "Mon cher, il ne faut jamais dire 'jamais.'" Metternich's political memory, reaching back to the time before the French Revolution, gave plenty of point to the remark. Bismarck often said to Lord Augustus that "he gloried in having no principles, and he observed that when you wished to gain a certain object, your principles cross your path and defeat your aim." Bismarck's frankness is astounding. Perhaps it is calculated and used as the best cloak for his designs. At a dinner in London in 1861, he told Disraeli, then leader of the Opposition, that he should shortly be obliged to undertake the direction of the Prussian Government, that his first duty would be to reorganize the army, that he would then take the first pretext to declare war against Austria, to dissolve the Germanic Diet, to overpower the middle and smaller States, and to give a national unity to Germany under the leadership of Prussia. He added that he had come to say this to the Queen's Ministers. Disraeli's remark was, "Take care of that man; he means what he says."

The importance of the diplomatic profession has been greatly reduced by the change from personal to Parliamentary government. The most adroit of ambassadors can no longer serve his Government much by playing on the personal characters of kings or ministers, much less on that of kings' mistresses, as he might in former days. No diplomatic Walpole will ever again acquire a valuable connection for his country by visiting a Fleury in the hour of his temporary disgrace. Still, these men will have their value so long as anything of a personal element enters into international relations. Especially they will have their value where the foreign minister of their own country is not familiar with the national leaders and cannot well act by telegraph. This is particularly the case with regard to Washington, of the personalities of which a British foreign minister is totally ignorant, and where without a good informant on the spot he would be to a great extent negotiating in the dark.

The West from a Car Window. By Richard Harding Davis. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros. 1892.

THE only poor thing about this book is its title. It is not the West from a car window. It is the West from the inside, from among the sunflowers, the cacti, the mountain peaks. Mr. Davis is not only a practised and effective writer, but he is an acute and intelligent observer, who has the enviable faculty of understanding the most of what he sees, notwithstanding it may be novel; and when necessary, he can expose for the consideration of the thoughtful a serious subject, without burying it under solemnity or making it ridiculous by burlesque. If he could prospect for "mineral" with the keenness that he does for characteristics, a new bonanza might be developed any hour. Troopers on the field against Garza, Indians on a reservation, Creede, the settled and the barren West, the clubs and the architecture of Denver, and the amenities and the loneliness of a frontier post, ranch life, Oklahoma, and fifty other topics are treated with spirit, with accuracy, with intelligence. There is not a dull line in the book, but the United States soldier, commissioned and enlisted, and the American Indian alike have cause to be grateful for the fate that drew them into the line of vision of such a delineator. His occasional chapters give a truer view of both classes than half-a-dozen "military" romances.

Mr. Davis has enjoyed his excursion frankly, and those who follow him in spirit will enjoy it likewise. He offers only impressions, and not conclusions, but they are the impressions of a cultivated and liberal critic. He declines to draw morals for others, who may find their own; but it is quite obvious that he is like the man who would rather be a lamp-post in the streets of New York than live in wealth out of it. He doesn't say that, but he does say: "The West is a very wonderful, large, unfinished, and out-of-doors portion of our country, and a most delightful place to *visit*."

The book has many excellent illustrations, some by Remington.

Logarithmic and Other Mathematical Tables. By William J. Hussey, Professor of Astronomy in the Leland Stanford Junior University, etc. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing Co. 1892.

FOR the semi-occasional user of logarithms, collections like Köhler's are best. But a person who is destined to use up several books of tables by the wearing-down of the paper under his fingers—which commonly happens to expert mathematicians—will prefer to be provided with four-place, five-place, six-place, and seven-place tables, since the expenditure of time in working with these is in the ratios of 1:2:3:4, respectively. Can the tables before us be recommended as being about as good as others? They are printed upon paper fairly opaque and quite free from sheen, substantial but rather cottony to the touch and too white. A small page is a recognized advantage in tables of logarithms. These pages are taller than those of any five-place tables we know except Hoüel's. The ink is not quite so black as we could wish, and some pages are a little gray. Very many figures look as if printed from worn types. The fourth figure of log. 4092 comes from a wrong font. The alignment leaves much to be desired. The type is of the old pattern, which in our judgment is preferable to the Huttonian character (the pattern now common in ordinary printing, invented,

it is guessed, by Dr. Charles Hutton in 1783), but inferior to the Egyptian, which are all of one height but without hair-lines.

We may examine the arrangement of the table of logarithms of numbers. Each tenth value of the argument is printed in Huttonian type. This gives it sufficient prominence; the large black round-numbers of Babbage are unnecessary. The table is arranged in a Newtonian block, which we deem more convenient than the columnar form, especially since it brings twice as many numbers on each page. The table everywhere opens to exactly 1,000 logarithms, not counting those on the last line, which are a sort of catch, or rehearsal of the first line of the next page. This is a point of great superiority over Bowditch, Schlömilch, etc. The numbers in each tenth line are placed between horizontal rules, while the intervening nine lines are divided by leads into three sets of three. This is the plan of the highly approved tables of Bremiker; yet we prefer, with Schrön and others, the division by leads into sets of five. The first two figures of the five-figure logarithms are given only in the first column at the top of the page and where they change. Bremiker thus separates only one figure, while Bowditch gives all five in every column. The ten columns of the block are all separated by vertical rules, that after the fifth being extra heavy. This is the customary way, but we are fully persuaded that all these vertical lines are productive of error in following the horizontal lines with the eye. We consider the tables of Schlömilch, Oppolzer, J. M. Peirce, and others, which omit all but the line after the fifth column, as much the more comfortable.

The indication of a change of the figure in the last place of unrepeated decimals is by an asterisk prefixed to every logarithm affected. This is decidedly the best method. The proportional parts are exact to the sixth place. The practice of thus printing the proportional parts arose in consequence of Babbage, in his seven-place table, printing a dot under every terminal figure which had been increased. This he did on the ground that all information which could be given without disadvantage should be given—a good principle for seven-place tables, without doubt. Only, upon that principle, De Morgan's plan should be adopted of distinguishing the quarters of the last unit by means of the four ordinary punctuation marks, thus making the tables accurate to a fraction of the number entered equal to unity divided by a power of ten. However, Babbage's system was extensively adopted, and consequently it was necessary to give the proportional parts more accurately. Prof. Hussey prints a dash over every increased 5, whether it be terminal or not, and over no other increased numbers. It luckily happens that there is no case in the table of an increased 5 followed by three zeros, otherwise the system would break down. Now, we think a system illogical, and therefore inelegant, which can only be carried out by virtue of an accident. But what is the use of carrying the proportional parts to six places? Everybody must allow that it would be bad economy of time in computing to write down one's numbers alternately to five and to six places of decimals. Now, what difference does it make that we add the six-place numbers in our heads? A centimetre and a half at the bottom of each page of the table is devoted to giving the values of S and T, and that not unambiguously. This seems decidedly awkward.

There are trigonometrical tables, both logarithmic and natural, tables of addition and subtraction logarithms, etc. At the end of the book are given formulæ and constants. The latter are pretty carelessly collected and copied. The velocity of light is made to be 296,944 kilometres per second! Clarke's value of the metre in inches, 39.370432, is given, although its error has been known for many years. First Prof. Rogers and then Gen. Comstock made fairly concordant determinations, very different from Clarke's. In fact, his was merely the result of measuring copies of Bessel's toise in inches, and then deducing the length of 443.296 lines of the toise, this being the number of lines of the *toise de Pérou* intended to make the metre at the time of the construction of the latter. But recently M. Benoît of the International Bureau has shown that the metre so deduced from Bessel's toise is too long by its 74,000th part. So, correcting Clarke's determination, and combining it, reduced to a weight of ⅓, with the values obtained by Rogers and Comstock, we find:

	Inches.
Rogers	39.37027
Comstock	39.36985
Clarke, corr. by Benoît	39.36990
Weighted mean	39.37004

This makes 25.40003 millimetres in an inch. If we remember, then, that 39.37 and 25.4 should each be increased by one-millionth part of itself, we shall have the fact as accurately as it is known. We find this convenient rule used in the Yaryan Company's Tables. Prof. Hussey's book will do for easily contented computers.

Children's Rights: A Book of Nursery Logic. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Children: Their Models and Critics. By Auretta Roys Aldrich. Harper & Bros.

An Old World observer of our social traits would probably be inclined to smile at the title 'Children's Rights' on the cover of a volume addressed to an American public. Mrs. Wiggin, however, forestalls irony by eliminating at the outset any fond-mother interpretations of her theme. "A multitude of privileges, or rather indulgences," she very truly observes, "can exist with a total disregard of the child's rights." Translated into other terms, children's rights are parents' duties. A bird's-eye view of these duties is given in the first of the essays of which the volume is composed. A more than fair proportion of the nine remaining ones (three of which are by Mrs. Wiggin's sister, Miss Nora Smith) is devoted to a lively partisanship of the methods of Froebel, and to the desirability of sending children to learn of his disciples in the kindergarten.

In spite of the genuine sympathy of the collaborators for the little waifs and strays, as well as for the happier youngsters whose cause they have espoused, we do not think they have done justice to their subject. There is an unfortunate lack of sequence in the papers, and much repetition that might have been avoided. They are, moreover, composed in too disjointed a fashion to exercise on the reader the persuasion which is force. And, notwithstanding a probable and natural prepossession in favor of the biographer of the little hero Timothy, the "gentle" reader cannot fail to be repelled by such blatant slang as the following: "He does not realize that she [the American woman] not only has in hand the emancipation of the American woman, but the reformation of the American man and the education of the American child. If that triangular mission in life does not keep her out of mischief and make her the angel of the twentieth century, she is a hopeless case."

Mrs. Aldrich, fortunately, does not write in what our critics have dubbed Americanese. Her little book is modest and attractive in form and modest and attractive in expression. Though it makes no new contribution towards the philosophy of education or the government of children, it displays the happy balance of profound sense of responsibility and good common sense that has stood many an excellent mother in stead of philosophy. There is internal evidence that Mrs. Aldrich, too, writes of the kindergarten from personal experience. She, however, sees clearly that there may be need of reform within a reform, and her counsel of perfection is no less to the kindergartner than to the parent. The homely illustrations of the points to be pressed home are such as readily sink into the memory, and the book is, on the whole, one that may do serviceable work where more authoritative teachers would fail of a hearing.

A Dictionary of Botanical Terms. By A. A. Crozier. Henry Holt & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. v, 202.

For the last twenty or thirty years botanical study has been so largely turned in the direction of anatomy and physiology that a host of new anatomical and physiological terms has been introduced, many words already in use have received new meanings, and not rarely different investigators have proposed the same term for very different ideas. All this new terminology has made a new botanical dictionary very desirable. This Dictionary is necessarily very much richer in words and definitions than any of its predecessors, and a brief examination of its pages shows that much labor has been bestowed upon the preparation of it. It would be impossible that such a work should be perfect, and one may easily point out deficiencies, and even an occasional insufficient or faulty definition. Such well-known terms as *Anadromous*, *Catadromous*, *Gemmiform*, *Glochidium*, and *Hypocraterimorphous* are lacking. Instead of the last of these is given the hybrid *Hypocrateriform*, an expression which Dr. Gray rejected even disdainfully. *Algology*, another hybrid, is honored with a definition—'the part of botany relating to algæ'—while *Phycology*, the preferable word linguistically, is given only as a synonym. *Octospore* is defined as 'an eight-fold tetraspore,' which it is not; to have said 'a definite group of eight spores' would have done very well. *Palmately-lobed* is wrongly defined, for it is the sinuses and not the "lobes" that "are directed towards the apex of the petiole."

The greatest defect of the book is the entire omission of derivations, for to know the etymology of a word is often a great help toward understanding its meaning. Botanists have been accused of fondness for sesquipedalian expressions, and the best reply to such accusation is naturally to show from its derivation the fitness of each technical word. No distinction is made between un-Anglicized Latin words, such as *Hortensis*, *Humilis*, and *Pumilus*, and such good English words as *Dwarf* and *Terrestrial*; and there is generally noticeable a sad neglect of Latin and Greek, the foundation-languages of scientific terminology.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, Horatio, Jr. Digging for Gold: A Story of California. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Camilla. W. R. Jenkins, 35 cents.

Armstrong, W. An American Nobleman; A Story of the Canaan Wilderness. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Austen, Jane. Emma. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Bastian, A. Ideale Welten in Wort und Bild. 3 vols. Berlin: Emil Felber.
Bax, E. B. The Problem of Reality. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Beck, Mme. Berthe. Fables Choisies de La Fontaine. W. R. Jenkins.
Bierce, A., and Danziger, G. A. The Monk and the Hangman's Daughter. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Birkmaier, Elizabeth G. Poseidon's Paradise; the Romance of Atlantis. San Francisco: Clemens Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Black, W. Macleod of Dare. New and revised ed. Harpers. 90 cents.
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Dodge, Col. T. A. Cæsar: A History of the Art of War among the Romans, with a Detailed Account of the Campaigns of Caius Julius Cæsar. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Dorr, Mrs. J. C. W. The Fallow Field. Illustrations by Zulma DeLacy Steele. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Durward, Rev. J. T. A Primer for Converts, showing the Reasonable Service of Catholics. Benziger Bros.
Eggleston, E. The Hoosier School-Master. Library ed. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Fall, Prof. Delos. An Introduction to Qualitative Chemical Analysis. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 60 cents.
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Hadow, W. H. Studies in Modern Music. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hart, Prof. A. B. Formation of the Union. 1750–1829. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
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Horton, R. F. Revelation and the Bible: An Attempt at Reconstruction. Macmillan. $2.
Huse, Harriet P. Roland's Squires. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
Ingersoll, A. J. In Health. 4th ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
James, Henry, Jr. Daisy Miller and an International Episode. Harpers. $3.50.
Johnson, Clifton. The New England Country. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.50.
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Molloy, J. F. The Life and Adventures of Peg Woffington. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Morgan, Nina L. A Slumber Song. Chicago: Searle & Gorton. $1.
Morris, E. J. Prayer-Meeting Theology; A Dialogue. Putnams. $1.25.
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Murray, George. Poems. New York: The Author.
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Slater, J. H. Book Collecting: A Guide for Amateurs. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Smith, Mary P. W. More Good Times at Hackmatack. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Smith, Prof. W. B. Introductory Modern Geometry of Point, Ray, and Circle. Part I. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Souvestre, E. An Attic Philosopher in Paris. Appletons.
Wilcox, Ella W. The Beautiful Land of Nod. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co.
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The Week.

THE recent election seems to establish the fact that there is a twenty-year period of "tidal waves" in our Presidential contests. In 1832 Jackson, running for re-election, secured 219 electoral votes, to 49 for Clay, 11 for Floyd, and 7 for Wirt. In 1852 Pierce beat Scott "all to pieces," winning 254 electoral votes to Scott's 42. In 1872 Grant, as a candidate for a second term, swept the country, securing 286 out of 366 electoral votes. Finally, in 1892, Cleveland has been elected by from 267 to 290 out of 444 electoral votes. The only one of the revolutions just mentioned worthy to be compared with that of the present year is the overthrow of the Whig party in 1852. In 1848 Taylor had carried fifteen States, including Pennsylvania, and New York, which latter turned the scales in his favor, but in 1852 poor Scott saved only four of them—Vermont and Massachusetts in the North, and Kentucky and Tennessee in the South; Pennsylvania giving Pierce over 19,000 plurality, and New York 27,000. The dimensions of the Democratic victory this year are fully appreciated only when a few comparisons with 1888 are made. Four years ago Harrison carried all of the twenty-two Northern States except Connecticut and New Jersey. The number of Northern States has since been increased to twenty-eight, but Harrison has only fifteen (or sixteen, if he finally gets Ohio) out of the increased number. These are among the significant changes which the revolution has produced:

	1888. Rep. plurality.	1892. Dem. plurality.
New York	14,373	45,000
Ohio	19,599	Very close.
Indiana	2,348	10,000
Illinois	22,104	20,000
Wisconsin	21,321	15,000

It may be added that Ohio and Wisconsin have gone strongly Republican in every previous Presidential election since the party ran its first candidate in 1856, and Illinois in every one since 1860.

There was nothing in the late election more impressive than the conduct of the voters in Ohio. Outside the canvassing which was done by the Congressional candidates, neither of the great parties made more than a perfunctory campaign in the State. The Democrats paid little or no attention to it, conceding it to Harrison by from 20,000 to 25,000 majority. The Republicans felt so sure of it that they allowed all their best speakers, Sherman, McKinley, and Foraker, to go into other States to help carry them for Harrison. Yet all the time the Ohio voters were thinking over the issues at stake, and, when Election Day arrived, they went to the polls in silence and recorded such a verdict against McKinley that the expected Republican majority, which had not failed that party for thirty-six years, was almost wiped out. This quiet, uninfluenced proceeding is the most eloquent testimony adduced by the election as to the real meaning of the result. It shows that campaign agitation and campaign committees were merely the people's agents in recording the verdict, and that, had there been no campaign made, the people would have reached substantially the same conclusion that they did.

The loss of Ohio by the Republicans is the *coup de grâce* to the McKinley Bill. We do not wonder that McKinley himself refuses to be interviewed on the subject. Whether Ohio has gone for Cleveland or for Harrison, she has become a "doubtful" State, and has elected eleven Democratic Congressmen out of twenty-one. This last achievement shows how a gerrymander may serve to confound the gerrymanderers. The redistricting of the State was made with the confident expectation of returning only five Democrats to sixteen Republicans. Districts were carved in the most curious shapes. The most outrageous of all was the one cut out for Congressman Harter. This was the "shoestring" district of Ohio. If it had been carved in the State of Mississippi, it would have been pointed at by the Republicans as an example of total depravity and as a new argument for the Force Bill. This district begins with Knox County in the centre of the State, and runs northward to Lake Erie, embracing the counties of Knox, Morrow, Richland, Ashland, Huron, and Lorain. It has a normal Republican majority of 1,600. It has now elected Mr. Harter by about 2,000—a change of 3,600 in a single district. This is one of the most signal triumphs that have been achieved by any individual this year, in close touch with Mr. Cleveland's and Gov. Russell's. Mr. Harter has gained this victory, too, as the most pronounced anti-silver man in Congress of either party. Altogether Ohio comes out of this fight as the banner State, considering what she has been in the past, and that she has a "Napoleon" for Governor.

The election leaves Senator Sherman as a most impressive object-lesson in morals. He was the most prominent and the ablest of the old Republicans who gave their services to the party this year, and he sinned against light from his first speech to his last. Other Republican orators may have been self-deceived: we are willing to concede that there were streaks of honesty even in McKinley's egregious folly; but Mr. Sherman ate his own words and went in the teeth of his own convictions in the spirit of the basest trimmer and truckler. He is left without even the unworthy excuse that his recreancy to conviction was necessary to success. He says he believes Mr. Cleveland owes his victory to the tariff question, and that he is glad, since the Democrats have elected their President, that they will also be in full control of both houses of Congress, so that the entire burden of responsibility will fall on their shoulders. But he cannot resist dropping into demagogism when he adds that he "supposes they will carry out their ideas of tariff legislation, and that we will have an opportunity of testing practically the two systems of protection and free trade as applied to this country"—knowing perfectly well, as he does, that such a thing as free trade is quite impossible. What is possible, and what is expected by the country, is the adoption of a policy such as Senator Sherman himself so well outlined years ago when he said:

> "Every advance towards a free exchange in commodities is an advance in civilization. Every obstruction to a free exchange is born of the same narrow, despotic spirit which planted castles on the Rhine to plunder peaceful commerce. Every obstruction to commerce is a tax upon consumption. Every facility to a free exchange cheapens commodities, increases trade and production, and promotes civilization. Nothing is worse than sectionalism within a nation, and nothing is better for the peace of nations than unrestricted freedom of intercourse."

The Philadelphia *Press* publishes an interview with Senator Sherman in which he repeats his desire that the so-called Sherman Silver Law may be repealed, and says that he shall move its repeal in the Senate this winter. He thinks that a repealing bill will pass the Senate, and that the only obstacle it will encounter will be in the House. All the benefit that was expected from the bill, he says, has been realized, and there is no need of its further continuance. This latter saying is open to as many different interpretations as a Delphic oracle, but we presume it means that the bill was expected to hold the silver-producing States to the Republican party; but since three-fourths of them have voted against Harrison, there is nothing more to be expected from that quarter. We hope that Mr. Sherman will not allow himself to be deterred from the right course by his apprehensions of what the House

will do or will not do. It would be a great advantage to the incoming Administration to have the silver question settled by the present Congress, and this can be easily done, as we set forth in another column, by carrying into effect the seventh plank of the Democratic National platform.

The one thing which would round out the revenges of time so conspicuous in our recent politics, would be the passage of a free-wool bill by a Republican Senate. Just five years ago next month President Cleveland sent in his now historic message specifically demanding free wool. There is good reason for thinking that a Republican Senate would grant in December, 1892, what it jeered at in December, 1887. More than one Republican Senator from the West is prepared to "bow to the will of the people" on free wool, lest the people should bow him clean out of the Senate and public life. Even those portentous wool-growers, Delano and Lawrence, would not have the audacity to lift their voices in opposition, if, indeed, they ever get back their voices at all after the terrors they have passed through in their own beloved Ohio. We hope to see some Democratic Senator move early in the session that the Committee on Finance be discharged from further consideration of the House Free-Wool Bill now before it. Once fairly before the Senate, we believe the bill would pass without debate.

One of the thinkers of the Republican party who has not yet "had enough" is the editor of the Philadelphia *Press*, the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, President Harrison's Minister to Russia. He says in his paper of Friday that the "wide sweep of the disaster" can be interpreted in only one way. "It means a revolt against the party on the leading and central issue of the fight. It means a reaction against the Republican protective policy as the people understand it." He adds:

> "If this were an intelligent, reasoning, deliberate judgment, it would be conclusive, at least until experience had demonstrated the mistake, and it might be a finality. If the people had struck the blow with a clear comprehension of what they were doing, it would have a lasting significance. But, as a matter of fact, the blow was struck under the influence of the most shameless misrepresentations and of the most pitiable misunderstandings."

This is the old explanation of 1890. It was said then that the people had risen in revolt against the McKinley Bill because they did not understand it. Various periods of time were fixed by the Republican authorities in which the work of education was certain to be accomplished. Mr. McKinley said two years would be sufficient, and this was the favorite period of other authorities. Two years have passed, during which the education has been carried on under the leadership of McKinley in person, and at the close comes a revolt far more serious than the first. [illegible] intimates that he is satisfied. Two knock-downs are enough for him. Various other leaders take the same view. How long does the *Press* think the period should be before the verdict of the people could be called "deliberate"?

So far as the election teaches anything, it shows that the people were not at all alarmed by the dangers of wildcat currency. The only States in which the Republicans exhibited the wild cat with much apprehension of his teeth and claws were Illinois and Wisconsin. During the last two weeks of the campaign they dropped everything else. Here they circulated tens of thousands of photographs and woodcuts of old State bank-notes with the rate of discount on each, together with samples of Thompson's old counterfeit detector. They were glad enough to find something to talk about other than the McKinley tariff and the Force Bill. But the result shows that the people were not in the least alarmed by this scarecrow. It would not be correct to say that they endorsed by their votes a repeal of the tax on State bank-notes, still less that they endorsed wildcat currency. They simply ignored that as a vital issue of the campaign, or, if they took it into account at all, they relied upon Mr. Cleveland's letter of acceptance, which promised that there should be no bad money inflicted upon the people with his consent—a promise which stirred up our friend Mr. Henry C. Lea to an alarming extent, and led him to anticipate a smashing defeat of the Democratic party.

We are glad to say that the *Independent* was the only religious paper, as far as our observation has gone, which in this canvass issued a certificate of "Christian character" to a candidate. The gross impropriety of this practice had, we thought, been sufficiently demonstrated in 1884, and again in 1888, to put a stop to it, because several of the "Christian statesmen" of those years were subsequently found out and exposed. The abstract objections to it are obvious enough. Nobody should be elected to a responsible office simply because he has a "Christian character." A man who had no other equipment might ruin the country. Moreover, so full of pitfalls is politics that there is hardly any politician who can live up to a certificate of "Christian character," and if he fails after getting the certificate, he brings religious professions into disrepute among the worldlings. For all these reasons, and half-a-dozen others, it has been a matter of rejoicing to all intelligent men who care much for either religion or morals that the "old pastors" kept out of the last canvass, and that, as a rule, religious newspapers refrained from bolstering the candidates up by accounts of their piety. The *Independent*, after its experience with Wanamaker in 1888, ought to have been the last to prove an exception.

The *Bulletin* of the American Iron and Steel Association says: "Let us all hope for the best, even if our industrial enemies all the world over are to-day rejoicing with exceeding great joy." Our industrial enemies, whoever they may be, are in fact keeping a profound silence, except in Canada, where they are saying that if the United States goes for lower tariffs, Canada must do the same. The truth is, that the nations of the continent of Europe are dominated by protectionists. Instead of being rejoiced by the prospect of freer trade in this country, they are afraid of our example. Their governing classes are apprehensive that the people will compel them to follow suit and lower their tariffs also. For this reason they are exceedingly quiet, but are doing a great deal of thinking just the same. In England the manufacturers know perfectly well that the United States is their only prospective rival in the markets of the world. Joseph Chamberlain told the assembled Cobdenites this fact at their Ship Hotel dinner nearly ten years ago, and he said then that he should look not without apprehension on the adoption of free trade by the United States. Since that time, and even longer, the public opinion of Great Britain has been, on the whole, either indifferent to our tariffs or hopeful that we would continue to wear our self-imposed fetters. Of course, particular trades have been injured by the McKinley Bill, but British opinion in the large sense has not in recent years favored tariff reform in this country.

One result of the election, writ large enough for the dullest eye not to miss, is the perfect folly of supposing any longer that Federal office-holders are efficient electioneering agents. Never has the civil service been so openly used to further the election of a President as this present year. Nominated by office-holders, President Harrison was content to let his subordinates of every branch in the service neglect their duties and often violate the law in their strenuous efforts to keep themselves and him in office. All this served but to accelerate and emphasize his disastrous defeat. On the lowest partisan grounds, the victorious Democrats ought now to extend the civil-service laws as regards regulation both of appointment to office and political activity in it.

The Republicans save Minnesota, but the only thing that prevented the State from keeping company with Wisconsin, Illinois, and Indiana was the fact that the Republican candidate for Governor was an earnest and courageous tariff-reformer—so earnest and courageous that in the Fiftieth Congress he voted against his party for the Mills Bill. This is the platform which Mr. Nelson made for himself in explaining his position as Congressman in 1888, and which alone reconciled the

people of Minnesota to his election as Governor in 1892:

"In the face of the fact that so many of the barest necessaries of life are loaded down with the highest kind of tariff taxes, it makes me sick at heart to think that there are leading men on this side the Chamber who can find at this juncture, and under these circumstances, no other field for tax reduction than the internal-revenue taxes on spirits and tobacco. Surely these things are not the diet on which the poor laboring man keeps his family. Worthier, better, and juster, it seems to my mind, would it be to give our people—the toiling masses—cheaper food, cheaper fuel, cheaper clothing, and cheaper shelter; cheaper because released from the heavy and unnecessary bondage of high-tariff taxes. I will put free sugar, free coal, free salt, and free lumber against free whiskey and free tobacco under all circumstances, and so will the great mass of the American people."

The *Herald's* Valparaiso despatch says that there is "great rejoicing in Chili over the election of Cleveland," that "flags are flying from the residences of Americans," and that the general hope is expressed that "an American gentleman will be sent as Minister to Chili." It also reports rejoicing at Buenos Ayres, where it is maintained that "Harrison's defeat means a conciliatory policy towards the South American republics." Of course we know that all true patriots ought to hang their heads in shame and humiliation when foreign countries admire us, and still we think there are extenuating circumstances in the case of these South Americans. They have no intention of everlastingly ruining us by dumping their cheap goods on our shores; what they want to sell us is the raw materials which will enable us to do the dumping on other people. Moreover, the Republicans have cautiously admitted that we can trade with South America without being guilty of more than one or two of the seven deadly sins. Thus there is reason to hope that the present happiness of Chili and Argentina may be regarded by us with something less than that keen sense of abasement and alarm which we are bound to feel whenever our public acts are approved by any of our natural enemies.

M. de Varigny, a well-known French publicist, has an article in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "Political Life in the United States" which contains a great deal of interesting matter. But the most entertaining passage is that which gives an account of the part Dr. Burchard played in the campaign of 1884. After speaking of the enormous circulation of campaign documents which takes place in a Presidential canvass, he quotes the observations thereon of an "agent électoral expérimenté," who told him that the way in which for the most part the contents of these documents reached the voters was through the speeches of the stump orators, as people had not time to read them. "Of all these publications," he said, "the only ones which tell are those which in a brief, concise form sum up the arguments most easily understood by the masses." Then, says M. de Varigny:

"He cited as a model of this sort of document a card of which some millions of copies were printed in the last Presidential campaign. It was the work of the Reverend Burchard, and contained only three words—'*Rum Romanism Rebellion.*' It was profusely distributed on the Sunday before election, at the close of divine service; it was posted on the walls and slipped under all the doors. The election took place the following Tuesday, and this card, launched at the last moment by the Republican Committee presided over by Mr. Blaine, as it could not be answered for want of time, rallied to the Republican party a large number of electors who till then had not made up their minds, as it convinced them that the election of a Democratic candidate would result in an increased consumption of ardent spirits (*accroissement de la consommation des spiritueux*), the predominance of Catholicism, and a new war of secession. 'The Three Rs,' said one of the party chiefs, 'gave us the victory in the Puritan States.'"

The World's Fair directors on Friday adopted a resolution favoring the opening of the gates on Sunday provided the machinery be not run, and allowing every nation to hold within the grounds such religious services as it may desire. They say, with great force, that as all the nations of the earth have been invited to attend the Fair, it would be highly discourteous and inhospitable to inform them that they cannot do on Sunday what they would do were they at home. Furthermore, the resolution says: "The closing of the gates on Sunday means that thousands of artisans and mechanics, to whom the Exhibition will be of inestimable advantage, will not be able to attend it." The directors also point out the desirability of opening the gates on that day in order that visitors from different portions of the Union may meet socially at their State buildings. In order to accomplish all this, it will be necessary to rescind the action taken by Congress at its last session making the Government appropriation contingent on Sunday closing, and there ought to be no question that this will be done.

Especial interest is shown in the trial for heresy of Prof. H. P. Smith before the Presbytery of Cincinnati, for the reason that it is justly regarded as an incident of the more famous Briggs case, with all its momentous implications for the Presbyterian Church. Indeed, it is fair to infer that the Cincinnati Presbyterians design their trial to furnish at once an object-lesson and a rebuke to the Presbytery of New York. When the latter dismissed the case against Prof. Briggs a year ago, laments were nowhere more grievous than in Cincinnati, the leaders of the denomination in that city fairly groaning over the poor showing made by the New Yorkers, and plainly intimating that if they could only get their hands on the accused professor, they would make short work of him. Prof. Smith's heresies are believed to be of a mild character, consisting mostly of sympathy with Dr. Briggs, which he has so far defied the Cincinnati climate as to express, and of various intimations that possibly the critics know more than the ecclesiastics about the literary problems connected with the Old Testament. It is already clear, however, that he will be found guilty, the majority of the jury that is trying him having already decided that way in advance of the evidence, and the result will no doubt be hailed as a prophesy of the fate that awaits Prof. Briggs. Nor is there any doubt, we suppose, that, in the present temper of the Presbyterian Church, it would promptly decapitate the latter gentleman if it could immediately get his head on the block. But he has a far better chance than Prof. Smith to secure delay, and thus perhaps win a decision eventually on the merits of the case, not on ignorant prejudice. He has a better jury to argue before, a case that is in a better tactical position, and himself serves far heavier guns. It is understood that personally he is indifferent to the outcome, but feels it his duty to make the stoutest fight possible in the interest of the liberal party in his church. His contest is the main one, and Prof. Smith's case is only a skirmish.

The latest South American war scare has been traced to its source, and the result leaves the Associated Press in an unpleasant situation. The rumor of an alliance between Peru and Argentina for the purpose of an immediate attack on Chili seems first to have found mention in an irresponsible Chilian paper, from which it was copied into an English paper published in Chili, the *Western Courier*. When the latter reached Panama, its article was reproduced in the *Star and Herald* of November 3, and a copy of the latter paper was mailed to this city by the Panama agent of the Associated Press. It was immediately put on the wires for circulation, both in this country and in Europe. One result was shown in the reports of the London market for November 11: "Chilian bonds fell heavily, but recovered, closing ½ per cent. lower." Now, be it remembered that the rumor was at least eighteen days old when it reached this city, and that a cable is regularly working between this country and Chili, over which some hint of the affair would have been certain to come in the meantime, if there had been anything in it, and over which a ten-word despatch of inquiry would have demonstrated the falsity of the "news." But the Associated Press, with gross carelessness, swallowed the story, which was suspicious on its face, and without investigation lent itself to an attack on South American credit. We believe that this was done unwittingly, with no stock-jobbing purpose; but it was certainly done in a most reckless manner, and ought to serve as a fresh warning against the besetting sin of press associations, which is to get some bit of sensational news regardless of the authenticity of it.

THE THIRD STAGE OF OUR INDUSTRIAL ENFRANCHISEMENT.

If, as we believe, the elections of last week were not a revulsion—not a mere swinging of the pendulum—but a revolution, Mr. Cleveland's place in history is secure. The first revolution was that with which we associate the name and the fame of Washington as leader; the second was the abolition of slavery, for which Lincoln stands; and the third is that which gives us at last a prospect of attaining industrial and commercial freedom—and this we owe undeniably to the courage and self-abnegation of Mr. Harrison's predecessor and successor. These great tides have followed in a natural order: it was necessary that the British yoke should be thrown off before we could rise up against the tyranny of the Slave Power, and that contest had to be disposed of before the lesser tyranny of Protection could be attacked and brought to an end. We may, therefore, in our rejoicings over the defeat of the Republican party, properly bracket Lincoln with Cleveland as co-author of our present deliverance—the one unconscious, the other conscious. As John Stuart Mill said, at the London breakfast to Mr. Garrison in 1867:

"The other lesson which it appears to me important to enforce, amongst the many that may be drawn from our friend's life, is this: If you aim at something noble and succeed in it, you will generally find that you have succeeded not in that alone. A hundred other good and noble things which you never dreamed of will have been accomplished by the way, and the more certainly the sharper and more agonizing has been the struggle which preceded the victory. The heart and mind of a nation are never stirred from their foundations without manifold good fruits. In the case of the great American contest, these fruits have been already great, and are daily becoming greater. The prejudices which beset every form of society—and of which there was a plentiful crop in America—are rapidly melting away. The chains of proscription have been broken; it is not only the slave who has been freed—the mind of America has been emancipated. The whole intellect of the country has been set thinking about the fundamental questions of society and government; and the new problems which have to be solved, and the new difficulties which have to be encountered, are calling forth new activity of thought, and that great nation is saved, probably for a long time to come, from the most formidable danger of a completely settled state of society and opinion—intellectual and moral stagnation."

Let any one reflect upon these words, and then remember how, four years ago, the opponents of a protective tariff were held up as un-American and even treasonable, how the very flag of their common country was denied them by the Republicans, who seized it as their lawful badge, and how the autocracy of Speaker Reed, with the full assent of his party, suppressed debate, on the ground that the minority was sure to be outvoted in the end, and so had no rights which the majority was bound to respect. All this was in behalf of an "intellectual and moral stagnation" such as we long ago saw retributively overtake the protection State *par excellence*, and which was bound to spread over the entire Union if the Republican rule continued in force. It was precisely this stagnation which the Compromise of 1850 was intended to secure on the subject of slavery, and against which the Free Soil and Republican parties were a protest. Every abolitionist, even the most mealy-mouthed doubter of the divine right of slavery, was branded as a traitor, and had no protection from the flag of his country if he ventured into the domain of slavery. The Northern conscience was to be hushed, the freedom of speech and of the press to be extinguished. As far as it could bring about these conditions—by social ostracism and opprobrium, by insolent assumption of patriotism and philanthropy, and profuse charges of bribery by British gold—the Republican party became the direct heir of the Slave Power; while in the tariff it found an instrument of corruption not inferior to slavery itself, for the shaping of legislation to maintain its hold and that of the protected interests on the Government.

A hardly less curious paradox is that afforded by the affinity of latter-day Republicanism for the Jeffersonian variety. Each was at enmity with commerce, and Jefferson's Embargo and Madison's Non-Intercourse were effectually on a par with the McKinley Bill. In 1807 the planting interests of the West and South regarded the merchant with suspicion and contempt. In our day, the manufacturing interests have fastened the same odium upon him. The Home Market is but another name for the Embargo. By each, in the language of Josiah Quincy, a new writ was "executed upon a whole people—not, indeed, the old monarchical writ of *ne exeat regno*, but a new Republican writ, *ne exeat republica*." Our tariff laws have been framed on the assumption of essential dishonesty in the trading community; and the attempt to force citizens to buy only native products has logically led to the puerility of condemning those who have chosen to go abroad to satisfy their personal wants. The protectionist opposition to a copyright measure was, in the intellectual sphere, a revival of Non-Intercourse, with England in particular.

The three revolutions of which we began by speaking were all occasioned by restrictions upon industrial and commercial freedom. The author of the Stamp Act is reported to have told a visitor from the colonies that the object of it "was not merely revenue, 'but,' said he, 'you Americans have spread too much canvas upon the ocean.'" And Sabine says of the three-pence the pound duty on tea: "I must dissent from the common view of it. To me it was not, as it has been regarded, a question of *taxation*, but essentially, like all the others between the merchants and the Crown, one of *commerce*. The statements of Hutchinson, the debates in Parliament, and the State papers and the documents which I have examined, all go to prove that the object of the mother country was mainly to break up the contraband trade of the colonial merchants with Holland and her possessions, and to give to her own East India Company the supply of the colonial markets."

"There were," continues the same writer, "no less than twenty-nine laws which restricted and bound down colonial industry. Neither of these laws touched so much as the 'southwest side of a hair' of an 'abstraction,' and hardly one of them, until the passage of the Stamp Act, imposed a direct 'tax.' They were aimed at the North, and England lost the affection of the mercantile and maritime classes of the northern colonies full a generation before she alienated the South. They forbade the use of waterfalls, the erecting of machinery, of looms and spindles, and the working of wood and iron; they set the King's arrow upon trees that rotted in the forest; they shut out markets for boards and fish, and seized sugar and molasses and the vessels in which these articles were carried, and they defined the limitless ocean as but a narrow pathway to such of the lands that it embosoms as wore the British flag. To me, then, the great object of the Revolution was to release LABOR from these restrictions. . . . For a higher or holier purpose than this, men have never expended their money or poured out their life-blood in battle!"

This is a perfect picture of Protection, which, while it pretends to call industries into life, taxes others out of existence by the same act, forbids others to come into being, and then determines arbitrarily the direction of commerce and the spread of canvas upon the ocean. It is the Quays, the McKinleys, the Shermans, and the Reeds who have shaken in our faces the fetters of the British Navigation Act and the Laws of Trade, and called upon us to fall down and worship them as the only patriotic and American policy. Finally, the antagonism of slavery to industrial freedom is too obvious to need dwelling upon. So those three typical emancipators, Washington, Lincoln, and Cleveland, were all moving on one grand line—towards the perfection of individual liberty, self-government, and unshackled interchange with all the nations of the earth.

THE NEED OF PROMPT ACTION.

In the ordinary course of things, the Congress which was elected on Tuesday week would not meet until a year from next December. This is, even under ordinary circumstances, a defect in our system which has long been recognized. It is unfortunate that there should ever be a year of interval between the formal expression of the popular judgment on public affairs and its embodiment in legislation. This is true even when the majority in the new Congress is of the same political complexion as the old one. That the representative, or agent, after he has received his instructions, should get promptly to his work, is a good rule of politics no less than of busi-

ness, and is recognized as such in all constitutions but the Federal.

But the circumstances under which the Fifty-third Congress will meet are by no means ordinary. The electors have demanded a complete change in the fiscal policy of the country, and have emphasized the demand by making a complete change in all branches of the Government. The election of 1890 could hardly be called anything more than expression of disapproval of the McKinley Bill, because it left the Senate and the Presidency in the hands of the authors and promoters of the bill. But last week the voters did not confine themselves to rebuking the Republicans. They put the Democrats in their place, charging them with the power and responsibility of justifying in practice their criticisms of Republican policy. In other words, the duty is now imposed on the Democrats of revising the tariff in such a way as to promote and not to injure the industries of the country, and at the same time to put the necessaries and comforts of life within easier reach of the mass of the people. This means that they are not only pledged but ordered to make a great many changes in the duties imposed by the McKinley Bill. These changes being sure to come, it is of the last importance to the business world to know as soon as possible what they are to be, and when they are to take effect, in order to enable traders and manufacturers to make their plans for the future. Nothing could be more injurious to the industry and trade of the country, and nothing more injurious also to the Democratic party, than uncertainty, lasting from now to December, 1893, because uncertainty about the future in the commercial world means always great depression, and uncertainty caused by failure to legislate is just as serious as uncertainty caused by legislation. In fact, a Democratic Congress which met after keeping the business world in suspense for a year, would be discredited in the public eye from the outset.

We are speaking now on the assumption that the Senate will not between now and March 4, 1893, take in good part the warning which the elections have given, and pass the five tariff bills which were sent up from the House last spring, and which are now before them, namely—the bills putting wool on the free list, and reducing the duties on woollen goods; putting binding-twine, cotton ties, and cotton bagging,as also machinery for making cotton bagging, on the free list; repealing duties on silver-lead ore and tin plate. There was also a bill restricting the amount of wearing apparel which individuals may bring into the country to $100, which the House also sent up, but it seems to have been a concession to the Weaverites, rather than a serious proposal from serious statesmen. Measures of this sort, in which Custom-house officers are charged with the appraisal of the clothes in a citizen's trunk, to see whether he has more than the necessary covering for his nakedness, are worthier of ignorant fanatics like McKinley than sober-minded modern legislators. The Democratic financial policy should be in all such things large-minded, liberal, and modern, rather than petty, vexatious, and mediæval. The enlightened way to cut down the supply of clothing which people bring home from Europe is to make it no longer worth their while to get it abroad, by improving the quality of American goods. If American tailors want protection, the true way to get it is by insisting on cheap wool and good cloth, which is the result of cheap wool, and not by stripping their fellow-citizens on the wharf to see whether they have got ten dollars' worth more clothing than the American Republic can stand in the four-hundredth year of the discovery of the country.

If the majority of the Senate were wise, they would promptly bow to the popular will and pass these bills at once. Possibly they are wise enough, for the Republicans have a majority of only six, and it is by no means improbable that these six have been sufficiently impressed by the popular verdict to bow to it, and indicate their submission by doing promptly what they know will be done two or three months later by their successors. But whether they do or not, we hold that it is for the highest interest of the country, as well as of the Democratic party, that Mr. Cleveland should call a special session of the new Congress as soon as possible after his inauguration, and set them to work diligently on the tariff. They would be able to give their whole time to it, because they would have no appropriation bills to discuss or pass, or any other imperative business to attend to. If one-half what the Democratic orators and writers have been saying about the McKinley Bill be true, it is almost a crime to leave it untouched on the statute-book one week longer than is absolutely necessary. The Democratic party cannot afford to hang fire over it, now that it has got hold of it. Prompt repeal of it, or prompt modification of it, is what the business interests of the country call for, and in this we are sure Republican and Democratic business men are of one mind.

SILVER LEGISLATION.

AMONG the subjects calling for early attention in Congress is the everlasting silver question. Fortunately there is no longer any doubt what the initial step should be. The first clause of the silver resolution adopted by the Democratic National Convention calls for the repeal of the so-called Sherman Act of July 14, 1890. The resolution is in these words:

"Sec. 7. We denounce the Republican legislation known as the Sherman Act of 1890 as a cowardly makeshift, fraught with possibilities of danger in the future which should make all of its supporters, as well as its author, anxious for its speedy repeal."

It cannot be affirmed that this resolution was passed without due consideration, since more time was spent on the silver question by the platform-makers than upon all other subjects together. If there ever was a mandate given clearly and unmistakably by a political party to its representatives in Congress, it is embraced in the words here quoted. It should be added, too, that while there was much difference of opinion on other branches of the money question at Chicago, there was none as to this so-called Sherman Law. Everybody was in favor of killing that the first thing, without benefit of clergy. What has happened since the Convention adjourned? The silver men of all degrees went over straightway to the Weaver faction. They separated themselves from both the other parties, and put electoral and State tickets in the field wherever they thought they had a chance to win, and in many places where they knew they had no chance. In our opinion, they are a good riddance to both parties. Their room is by far better than their company. They have the same rights as other people, of course. It is entirely proper that they should advocate the policies they prefer and get as many votes as they can. We would not curtail their political privileges in the smallest degree. But we consider it one of the most fortunate results of this campaign that the Populists will hereafter "flock by themselves," instead of exercising an influence out of all proportion to their importance upon both the other parties. We now know just what they amount to. They have mustered about 27 electoral votes out of 444, and this is really an overestimate of their strength, since they were helped to the greater part of these votes by the Democratic organization. A fairer estimate is furnished by their strength in the new Congress, where they will have 13 members in a total of 356.

We presume that the Republicans will now cease playing with edged tools in order to get the votes of the mining camps (which they brought prematurely into the Union), seeing how grievously they have been disappointed by them in the recent election. There is no reason on that side of the house why the Sherman Law should remain on the statute-book, especially since Mr. Sherman himself has declared his willingness, if not his wish, to have it repealed. Hereafter both parties are at liberty to look upon the purchase of seven tons of silver bullion per day as the share of protection awarded to the mine-owners—as an offset to the McKinley Bill. There is nothing else in it now; and since McKinleyism has been so badly knocked out that some of its most devoted advocates admit that the country has condemned it, there is no reason why this bounty to the silver-producers should be continued any longer.

It is clear, therefore, that there are no

political reasons for continuing to accumulate silver bullion. Not even the sentimental reasons clustering around the "dollar of the fathers" remain, since the coinage of these dollars has been stopped. The public mind is now in a mood, perhaps, to take a more comprehensive view than before of the economical bearings of the problem. The simple fact is that if we need more money, we can supply our deficiency with gold just as easily as with silver. Suppose that we take the present Sherman Law and substitute the word gold for silver wherever it occurs, making the proper change in the number of ounces purchased. The equivalent of 4,500,000 ounces of silver at our coinage ratio of 16 to 1 is approximately 281,000 ounces of gold. Now, if we amend the Sherman Law so as to provide that the Secretary of the Treasury shall purchase 281,000 ounces of gold each month, at a price not exceeding one dollar for 25 8-10 grains, of standard fineness, and to issue, in payment for such purchases of gold bullion, Treasury notes of the United States, which notes shall be redeemable on demand in coin at the Treasury of the United States or at the office of any assistant treasurer, and the said notes shall be legal tender for all debts, public and private, etc., such a law will give us everything in the way of additional currency that we get under the Sherman Silver Law. There is nobody so dull that he cannot see that. But such a law would do much more. It would restore confidence. It would remove every cloud from the business horizon. It would reestablish our credit abroad and turn the stream of capital once more in our direction, and this would accomplish more in the way of reviving business than anything else that Congress could possibly do. In addition to this it would remove the present embarrassment of the Treasury in redeeming its outstanding Treasury notes in gold, since the gold would be on hand all the time.

Simply stopping the purchase of silver bullion would have the same effect as making the suggested change in the phraseology of the law. Gold would flow in to the extent that it was needed, in obedience to an economic law older than any recorded history; and the mode of getting it into the form of paper currency would not be at all complicated. It would only be necessary to take it to the Treasury either as coin or as bullion, and ask for gold certificates. It is true that the law at present does not allow the issue of gold certificates smaller than $20. But that is only a mechanical difficulty. A law of ten lines authorizing the issue of gold certificates of the same denominations as silver certificates would cure that defect. Perhaps the public would not be able to see the operation of this natural law so readily as that of a statute law providing for the regular purchase of gold bullion and the issue of Treasury notes therefor. We hope that some member of Congress will move the repeal of the Sherman Law, or such an amendment of it as is here suggested, as soon as Congress meets.

SECRET VOTING.

CAREFUL observers in both parties are agreed in saying that a powerful factor in the political revolution of November 8 was the secret-ballot system. It had its first trial in a Presidential election in thirty-five States, including all those in which the most striking changes appeared—Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, New York, Indiana, Connecticut, and California. Of these seven States, New York and Connecticut have laws which are very defective applications of the Australian system, being filled with makeshift devices concocted by the enemies of a really secret ballot. The other five States have much better laws, which secure an absolutely secret ballot, free from the confusing annoyances caused by the separate ballots of the New York law and the envelope and other slipshod contrivances of the Connecticut law. But even the poorest of the laws gave a degree of secrecy to the voting which was sufficient to check, if it did not abolish completely, two practices which have heretofore had great influence in Presidential elections—bribery and intimidation.

In regard to the effect upon bribery, it is evident from complaints which have been heard since election that this will be more apparent in the future than it is at present. Open confession has been made in several States, including New York, Indiana, and Connecticut, by the men who offered the bribes, that the returns convince them that the men accepting the bribes did not keep their bargain when they got into the secret voting-booths. Capital is proverbially "sensitive," and it has always been timid about buying a pig in a poke. If the result this year has made it apparent that a bribed voter who marks his ballot in secret cannot be trusted to vote as he is bribed, investment of funds in that direction will be greatly diminished in the future. So high an authority as the most religious Republican editor in the world, Col. Elliott F. Shepard, has decreed that it is very wicked to buy votes which you are not certain will be delivered. Buying votes under the most favorable conditions has always been an expensive business, chiefly because so large a percentage of the money clings to the dirty fingers through which it must pass before it reaches the "floater" or other person whose vote it is to buy. If now, after he has been reached, he fails to keep his bargain, the business will soon be abandoned as utterly impracticable.

We are inclined to think that in the late election the failure of bribery had less influence on the result than the utter abolition of intimidation caused. On this point there is evidence from all quarters. An observer in Connecticut, in a recent letter to the *Evening Post*, gave some very interesting information about that State. He said that the canvasses taken in advance by the committees of both parties deceived both, chiefly because the employees in various kinds of manufactories gave false reports of their political inclinations. In one large shop the workmen assured the Republican pollman that every man of them would vote Republican, and they all marched in a Republican industrial parade on the Saturday before election, yet the returns show that at least three-fourths of them must have voted for Cleveland. Similar reports come from Illinois, Ohio, and Wisconsin. This is only one of the salutary effects of the secret system which were claimed for it in advance. Thousands of workmen in the protected industries of the country went to the polls for the first time this year as free men, able to cast their ballots as they wished to cast them, and not in obedience to the orders of their employers, whose agents stood at the polls to see that those orders were obeyed. Threats to deprive them of employment if they voted as their employers forbade were of no avail, for their employers could not discover how they voted.

Other voters who were made free by the new system were clerks who have hitherto feared their employers' disfavor in case of voting in opposition to them, and long-time party men who wished to break away from their associates, but dreaded the ridicule and obloquy which were certain to follow if they did so openly. The returns in Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin are eloquent evidence of the welcome shield which the new system afforded to thousands of weary Republicans in those States. They were the "silent voters" upon whom both parties placed so much hope, and whose defection gave the Republican party the shock from which it will not recover for many years, possibly not at all. As the workingmen of the land were relieved from the bondage of their employers by the secret ballot, so these men were delivered by it from the bondage of party.

These are great and beneficent triumphs for the new system, but there is another which in importance to the highest welfare of the republic easily surpasses them. By placing an additional and nearly insurmountable barrier to the effective use of money in elections, the new system goes a long way towards abolishing the raising of money in great sums for political purposes. We do not mean to say that entire abolition has been accomplished, and that no further legislation against it is necessary. On the contrary, we think corrupt-practices legislation of the most stringent character is the imperative need of the hour everywhere. But what the first trial of the new system in a Presidential election demonstrated was that great funds, such as the Republicans were known to have at their disposal, were powerless to save the

party from defeat in any State in which the effort was made. This failure of the money to accomplish the object for which it was contributed will make it extremely difficult to collect a large fund in the future. No contributor to this year's Republican fund can say, as the protected manufacturer of Connecticut said a few months ago, when asked if he intended to contribute as liberally in 1892 as he had done in 1888: "Well, why shouldn't I? I got back under the McKinley Bill every penny that I put in four years ago." There will be no McKinley reservoir of this kind to draw from to replenish the void created by this year's contributions, and that fact of itself will discourage future giving.

We are firmly convinced that the greatest menace which hung over the country from the use of enormous sums of money in elections passed away when the protective system met its doom last week. No such abundant source of "boodle" will ever be found again. If the Republicans do not invest large sums in the elections, for the simple reason that they can buy nothing more in them, it will not be necessary for the Democrats to raise large funds to counteract them, and both parties will henceforth rely less upon bribery, direct and indirect, to carry the day. Then, too, the breaking down of the Republican party in its greatest strongholds so increases the number of doubtful States that no campaign fund could ever be raised which would be adequate for the purchase of enough votes to secure success. At the same time, we ought to enact laws which will make all use of money for corrupt purposes as impossible here as it is in England. We ought not to rest content with lessening the evil, but ought to destroy it root and branch.

AN INSTRUCTIVE COMPARISON.

A VERY instructive article from the pen of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain appeared in the November *Forum* on "Municipal Institutions in America and England," but, owing to the absorption of the public mind in the canvass, has received far less attention than it merits. It was devoted to a comparison of the municipal government of Boston—probably, on the whole, the best governed of our American cities—with that of Birmingham, England, this last being a municipality which owes to Mr. Chamberlain a large part of its excellent administration. In June, 1890, Mr. Julian Ralph gave an account of this administration in *Harper's Monthly*, under the heading, "The Best Governed City in the World," and we noticed the article at the time. Mr. Chamberlain himself describes Birmingham of to-day as follows, and certainly no one who knows the city will accuse him of exaggeration:

"The corporation came into existence in 1838 and has only gradually attained its present importance. During little over half a century the town has been transformed and ennobled. Formerly it was badly lighted, imperfectly guarded, and only partially drained; there were few public buildings and few important streets. The paving was defective; the cleansing and watering imperfectly performed; no provision at all existed for the recreation or the culture of the artisan classes. Birmingham, in fact, was an overgrown village with the population of a great town. But now great public edifices not unworthy of the importance of a midland metropolis have risen on every side. Wide arteries of communication have been opened up. Rookeries and squalid courts have given way to fine streets and open places. The roads are well paved, well kept, well lighted, and well cleansed. The whole sewerage of the town has been remodelled, and the health of the people is cared for by efficient sanitary inspectors. Baths and wash-houses are provided at a nominal cost to the users. Free libraries and museums of art are open to all the inhabitants; free schools and a school of art, together with facilities for technical instruction, are provided for their education. Recreation is not forgotten, and not less than ten parks and recreation-grounds are now maintained by the Corporation. New Assize Courts and Courts of Justice have been built. The police force and fire brigade are kept in the highest state of efficiency; while the great monopolies of gas and water have passed into the hands of the representatives of the whole community, who have also acquired the tramways and have thus retained full control over the roads of the city."

The population of the two cities is about the same, Boston 448,000, Birmingham 430,000. For the purposes of a comparison of the cost of municipal administration, Mr. Chamberlain assumes that they are also on an equality in the matter of efficiency. The table in which he shows, item by item, what each city pays for municipal purposes, is too long for quotation. The result is that the expenditure of Boston for strictly municipal purposes, leaving out schools, poor relief, and in Birmingham schools, lunatic asylums, and Poor Law, is more than six times as great as that of Birmingham. That is, Boston spends over $10,194,000 and Birmingham $1,665,000. Going to the last census for reports of the expenditure of other American cities, he finds that the expenditure of Birmingham is little more than one-fourth of the average of one hundred American cities, small and great together. Taking these figures as a basis, it appears that while the average resident in one of the American great cities pays from 15 to 30 per cent. of his income in municipal taxation, the resident in average English cities pays only from 2½ to 5 per cent.

What is the reason of this difference? The answer which will rise most readily to American lips is that in American municipalities the suffrage is so widely extended that the taxing power is in the hands of a body of persons who either do not pay taxes, or think they do not, which amounts to very much the same thing. Mr. Chamberlain meets this by showing that Boston is no worse off in this respect than Birmingham. In Birmingham all rate payers, both male and female, vote at municipal elections, and in 1891 the number of registered voters there was 88,186, and in Boston the year before, with only a male franchise, it was 73,000; so that the Birmingham government has really a wider popular basis. Nor is it true that Birmingham government enjoys exemption from the influence of politics any more than Boston. He says the local elections are generally conducted on party lines and the offices filled with party men. But the elected municipal officers, except the Mayor, hardly ever receive salaries, and no property qualification is required for a seat in the Municipal Council, which contains several workingmen. He then makes the following statement, which we believe to be literally true not only of Birmingham but of all or nearly all English cities similarly governed, but which will be read with amazement and incredulity by a great many good people in New York, so far away from healthy municipal life have we drifted:

"Although, as has been stated, political considerations exercise great weight in determining the composition of the Council, they ought never to be allowed—and as a matter of fact they very seldom are allowed—to have the slightest force in the election of the permanent officials or the day workmen employed by the Corporation. For nearly sixty years the great majority of the Town Council of Birmingham have been Liberals and Radicals, and yet during the greater part of that time the majority of the high officials have been members of the Conservative party. All the higher officials are appointed by the Council itself. The minor officials are appointed by the Councillors of the several departments and confirmed by the Council; and the day workmen, either by the Councillors or more generally by the permanent heads of the departments. When a new official has to be elected, no questions are asked as to his political opinions, and no interference would afterwards be tolerated with his exercise of electoral privileges. It is an unwritten law that no paid official shall take an active part in political contests. He is expected to refrain from the platform and the press in relation to such controversial matters, but his private opinions and his votes are matters exclusively for his own discretion. Once chosen, if he discharges his duties well and faithfully, he remains in office for life, or till his resignation; with the probability that if he is disqualified by age or infirmities, he will receive a pension proportioned to his salary and the length of his service. In Birmingham, the town clerk receives a salary which, with allowances, amounts to £2,200 per annum, the city surveyor £1,400, the city treasurer £1,050, the chief of police £920, the medical officer of health £1,000, the engineers of the Gas Department have £1,200 and £1,050 respectively, the chief engineer of the Water Department £1,200, and the secretaries of the Gas and Water Departments £1,250 and £750 respectively. These gentlemen, with all the other permanent officials, are expected to give their whole working time to the corporation and not to engage in any other occupation. Some of them have been more than thirty years in its service. They have grown with its growth and remained at their posts while the composition of the Council has

changed many times, always enjoying the full confidence of their successive employers."

Were a reformer to suggest the adoption of such a system in New York, he would excite nearly as much merriment as if he were to suggest in a Sioux village the wearing of evening dress at supper in the tepees. He would be set apart as a dreamer or visionary, who ought to be treated kindly on account of the purity of his motives, but strictly forbidden to exercise any influence in municipal affairs, were he, like Mr. Chamberlain, to keep on saying, that

"the idea that paid municipal office should be the sport of successful politicians is utterly abhorrent. The personal honor, the trustworthiness, and the fidelity to their engagements of the permanent official service—whether in the departments of State or in the municipal administrations of the country—are a national possession, and a source of pride and satisfaction to all who are interested in the welfare of our institutions. To substitute for such a class—so distinguished, so faithful, and so absolutely honest and incorruptible—*a number of casual occupants of posts for which they have no sufficient qualification—political cadgers and hangers-on, with no real love for their work—with no ambition to distinguish themselves in it and only anxious to fill their pockets in the shortest possible time before they give place to a new swarm of the same breed*—would be a disastrous revolution, and would, in the opinion of every public man in this country, be the certain precursor of inefficiency, corruption, and extravagance in our national and local administration."

Mr. Chamberlain adds:

"If ever the principles of action should change—if the best men should be so occupied with their own fortunes that they should leave the care of the commonwealth to those who will see in this duty only an opportunity for plunder—if office is sought, not for the good which can be done, but for the political patronage it may afford—if paid officials lose their pride in their work and their loyalty to the public that employs them—if incapacity is overlooked and corruption is condoned—then, if these things happen, the dignity, the efficiency, and the economy of our public service will all disappear, and the institution of local government, so long our pride and our glory, will be discredited in the eyes of the people and will become a by-word and a reproach."

Now, this is exactly what has happened to us here. The institution of local government is a "by-word and a reproach" among us, but we do not seem to mind it a bit. Any foreigner who heard the current talk about our municipality in New York to-day might safely conclude that this was the kind of local government we liked, and that, like McKinley, whose greatness lies in being hated by the human race, we were never so municipally happy as when our municipal arrangements brought on us the scorn or pity of the civilized world.

MR. GLADSTONE'S OXFORD LECTURE.

OXFORD, October 29, 1892.

FOR the first time in ten years, the Oxford undergraduate has been allowed to monopolize the gallery of the Sheldonian Theatre without the taming interjection of "lady-proctors." The occasion was a memorable one for many reasons, quite apart from the seemly bearing of such undergraduates as were lucky enough to survive in the scramble for seats. Crowds began to obstruct the streets near the theatre as early as eleven o'clock on Monday last; Mr. Gladstone began his lecture on "Mediæval Universities" at half-past two. His magnificent voice cast its wonder-working spell upon his hearers from the very beginning, and, although the academic manner of his delivery kept his eye for the greater part of the time closely fixed upon his MS., the compelling power of his personality dominated the assembled University, even when a well-considered allusion to Lord Salisbury brought down the house. Before he began speaking, and when the lecture closed at the end of an hour and a half, there was unbounded enthusiasm and limitless applause, but the thrill of these moments was not so great as to prevent his auditors from perceiving upon him certain marks of flagging vigor which they forgot while listening to the "old man eloquent." In fact, at the moment when, dispensing with the tiresome formality of a vote of thanks, the Premier turned slowly and issued forth alone through the large doors thrown open directly behind him, it was difficult to remember that the Vice-Chancellor would shortly join him, for there was a sudden lull which hushed all plaudits while the picture of his departure seemed to prefigure what, in the course of nature, may happen to us with him any day.

That part of the lecture which dealt specifically with mediæval universities was unavoidably somewhat bare of the speaker's characteristic eloquence, for the very reason that he had been conscientious in his study of the technical points involved. This careful preparation was shown in his account of the meaning of "studium generale" and "universitas": the former "did not so much signify the extension of the studies pursued as the central and not merely local character of the establishment"; the latter "meant not a high teaching institute, but a union of persons for given purposes regularly organized—that is to say, a guild or corporation." When applied to what we now call a university, the proper sense of "universitas" was "the combination into one regulated body of the teachers and the scholars." Only a word or two was given to various Italian universities, to Charlemagne, and to Alfred. The beginnings of Oxford were definitively fixed not earlier than the twelfth century, a period when Paris easily held the "prior principalitas," which did not pass over to Oxford until the fourteenth century, although, as early as 1252, Oxford began to hold its own. In claiming for Oxford Alexander of Hales, the "Doctor irrefragabilis," Mr. Gladstone is believed by competent persons to have erred; but he certainly made rather too little than too much of the general superiority of his own University over that of Paris during the fourteenth century. No one will quarrel, however, with this understatement, for the lecturer was most acute and most lucid in pointing out the cause of Oxford's greatness at this period—the decisive and exceptional influence of that order whose founder, St. Francis, had done everything to hold himself and his followers aloof from academic life. Mr. Gladstone might have pointed out that Devorguilla, when in 1282 she organized Balliol College, made of it practically a Franciscan institution, and he might have quoted Father Ehrle to the effect that in the fourteenth century Oxford became the centre of resistance on the part of minorites and seculars to the Dominican attempt, disastrously triumphant elsewhere, to displace the Augustinized Plato of the fathers of the Church by putting in his stead the Christianized Aristotle of St. Thomas Aquinas. With the year 1400 closed this "golden age of Oxford," said the lecturer, "and there is no subsequent time at which we can consistently with historic fidelity claim on her behalf a position so commanding."

During the fifteenth century there was a falling off in material resources due to the greed of monasteries and the havocs of civil wars, and a hampering of the free traditions left by Ockham and his predecessors, which was due to stringent measures against Lollardism. Still, Erasmus was enthusiastic in praise of Oxford and Cambridge as he found them in 1500, and Oxford was then still superior to Cambridge, having to boast of Selling, Linacre, Colet, and Sir Thomas More. But in this and many other respects the sixteenth century marked an entire change. It was not an academic age, but such academic activity as its fierce polemics allowed was in Cambridge and not in Oxford. The Reformation belonged to Cambridge, "where it had its real commencement." At this point a characteristically phrased allusion was made to Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer: "The three famous prelates who have been monumentally commemorated in Oxford for reasons other than academic, were Cambridge men." These words had, as they probably were intended to have, the effect of an anti-climax upon the audience, who expected either some moving allusion to the martyred bishops, or an utterance touching the recent refusal of a monument to Cardinal Newman in Oxford.

In the sixteenth century "the deepest and most vital influences within the two universities respectively were addressed at Oxford to the making of recusants, and at Cambridge to the production of Zwinglians and Calvinists." Oxford was on the losing side, and hence the Elizabethan bishops were for the most part Cambridge men. Many theologians were summoned from abroad, as if to give tangible proof of academical incompetency at home. The lecturer then sketched the quieter days of the seventeenth century, "the best which the universities had known since the time of Erasmus." Oxford founded the Royal Society, and Cambridge had its renowned school of Platonists, Whichcote, Cudworth, John Smith, and Henry More. The Anglican divines of this century were "probably to a man reared within the universities," but the larger and weightier work was done by Cambridge men. Taking the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries together, Cambridge confronts her ancient rival with Bacon, Milton, and Newton, "names before which we can only bow." Milton's name suggested that until the close of the last century, Oxford had made hardly an appreciable contribution "to the noble list of English poets." The paramount influence of an Oxford philosopher, John Locke, from the speaker's own college, was next dwelt upon, and then, passing to politics, Mr. Gladstone gave a new lease of life to those wonderfully vivacious squibs provoked by George I., when he simultaneously despatched a troop of horse to Oxford and a present of books to Cambridge. Mr. Gladstone was persuaded, but not too easily, to remind his hearers of Dr. Trapp's Oxonian version of this episode:

"The ing, regarding with impartial eyes
The want of both his universities,
To Oxford sent a troop of horse—and why

That learned body wanted loyalty:
To Cambridge books he sent, as well discerning
How much that loyal body wanted learning."

With still more effective hesitation, the lecturer then gave Sir William Browne's rejoinder for Cambridge:

"The King to Oxford sent a troop of horse,
For Tories own no argument but force;
With equal sense to Cambridge books he sent,
For Whigs admit no force but argument."

And then he added: "I think Oxford is excellent, but Cambridge, I confess, appears to me better still."

This stage situation was a marvellous example of skill in dealing with an audience. Neither of these epigrams was written down with the learned lecture, and there was a moment's hesitation as if the lecturer might not recall the lines. When they came, they were delivered off-hand, but in such a way that every intonation was well considered, and each turn of the head and hand was intentional. No more finished piece of by-play could be witnessed at the Comédie-Française.

The last third of the lecture was beyond the limits of the subject, but by no means less interesting on that account. Mr. Gladstone uttered his personal convictions in a remarkable eulogy of Bishop Butler as one of the "inheritors of unfulfilled renown," and then, passing to the consideration of the influence of the two universities upon the training of men of action, he spoke of Becket, Langton, Wolsey, and Laud as the five greatest ecclesiastics since the Norman conquest, and to these names he added Wycliffe and Newman. The first two of these came before Oxford was, though Becket was at the original Merton College; the other five were trained at Oxford. He described Laud as standing "upon the historic stage half-way between culprit and martyr," and said of Wycliffe that it was his singular destiny to produce in Bohemia results far wider and far more potent than in his own country. Newman's was a name that might still touch living memories; it was Newman who, "principally and in half a lifetime, set a mark upon the mind and inner spirit of the English Church which it is likely to carry through many generations." Returning to Laud, he made a wonderfully telling plea in extenuation against Macaulay's hard words. Macaulay praises Strafford, and yet Laud and Strafford "were the Pylades and Orestes of civil life, and it might be hard to show any single point of action or opinion on which they differed." Laud, first among English primates, was a tolerant theologian. He was powerful enough to make the Calvinistic Oxford which he found, an Anglican Oxford when he left. So Augustus found Rome brick and left it marble, "or, if the inverted form be preferred, Laud found Oxford marble and left it brick." The audience evidently regarded this last turn in the Premier's argument as a concession to his friend the "Nonconformist conscience," and accordingly greeted it with an hilarity which was not wholly displeasing to the speaker. His conclusion as to men of action was guardedly expressed, but to the effect that Oxford men shone superior to Cambridge men in action. Having multiplied instances to support this view in affairs ecclesiastical, he now addressed his remarks to political life. Every Chancellor of Oxford, from Lord North to Lord Salisbury, had been Premier, and this among many other facts justified, he thought, a belief in "some specially strong tendency of Oxford towards the exigencies of public life."

In closing, Mr. Gladstone adverted to various welcome innovations at the universities, each of which had, however, maintained its distinctive character. He protested against that theory of education, happily without foothold at Oxford or Cambridge, "which would have it to construct machines of so many horse-power, rather than to form characters to rear into true excellence that marvellous creature we call man—which gloats upon success in life instead of studying to secure that the man shall always be greater than his work, and never bounded by it, but that his eye shall boldly run, in the words of Wordsworth,

"'Along the line of limitless desires.'"

The thought behind these words is strikingly similar to that of our own Lowell at Harvard in 1886: "A university is a place where nothing useful is taught," and its highest office is "to distribute the true bread of life—the *pane degli angeli*, as Dante called it."

At the end Mr. Gladstone solemnly, though in rather cumbrous phrases, dwelt upon the beauties of theology and the loveliness of the Oxford University motto: "Dominus illuminatio mea." So ended the first Romanes lecture, given by that marvellous creature we call the right honorable gentleman, Mr. Gladstone, thrice Premier of England.

LOUIS DYER.

ON THE MORROW OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

PARIS, October 27, 1892.

THE names of La Mole and Coconas have been made very popular in France by an historical novel of Alexandre Dumas—'La Reine Margot,' one of the most amusing novels to be found. If Alexandre Dumas, senior, had worked harder, he might perhaps have written as good novels as Walter Scott. With all his levity, he still remains the only novelist of his generation whose novels have not been utterly forgotten.

I was struck some time ago by the title of a book, or rather the sub-title: "La Molle et Coconat." Why Coconat? Dumas wrote Coconas. It was evidently the same man, as over the sub-title I read: 'Le Parti des Politiques au lendemain de la Saint-Barthélemy,' and I knew that Coconas was one of the most active massacrers in that fatal night of Saint Bartholomew. The name of the author had suffered a change as well as the name of Coconas. M. Decrue wrote the life of Anne of Montmorency, Constable of France, a work in two octavo volumes which appeared in 1885. In 1892 he comes before us as M. De Crue. Though we are tolerably accustomed in France to these transformations of name, I confess that I felt a little surprised. M. De Crue belongs to the new historical school and is extremely particular about dates and names. He has corrected the name of La Mole, and changed it into La Molle; he has taken care to change the Coconas of Dumas into Coconat. He might have written Coconata, as this hero of Saint Bartholomew was a Piedmontese gentleman, who signed himself Coconata.

How was M. De Crue led to write the history of these two men, La Molle and Coconat, who inspired the celebrated author of 'La Reine Margot'? He found them among the followers of the Montmorencys, and he has called his theme 'Le Parti des Politiques,' inasmuch as the Montmorencys were at the head of the party of the "Politiques," who took a sort of middle position between the Catholics and the Protestants. The name "Politics" entered into current speech towards 1564; it was applied to those who worked for the peace of the country on the basis of the Edict of January, 1562, which gave the Huguenots, under some conditions, liberty of conscience and of worship. The three first civil wars were caused by the violation of this Edict of Tolerance. The massacre of the reformed Assembly of Vassy was the origin of the first. Condé and Coligny took arms and fought the battle of Dreux against François de Guise. After the death of Guise, before Orléans, the Constable of Montmorency dictated the articles of peace. Montmorency was the real head of the party of the "Politics"; after him, the chief of this faction became François d'Alençon, the favorite son of Marguerite de Médicis. In his memoirs, the Vicomte de Turenne describes the Duc d'Alençon as a man with a fine face spoiled by the smallpox, "haïssant le mal et les mauvais, aimant la cause de la Religion (réformée)." Turenne had been educated with him and knew him intimately. D'Alençon was the godchild of the Constable of Montmorency, and he expressed his ideas. He was ambitious. He took for his confidant La Molle, whom L'Estoile calls "le baladin de la cour." La Molle was dissolute, pious, very superstitious; he heard several masses every day. He was vain and had many enemies. He gave himself entirely, in the language of the day, to the Duc d'Alençon.

The children of Marguerite de Médicis all wanted to wear crowns. Henri d'Anjou was elected King of Poland; his brother Alençon wished to have a sovereignty in the Low Countries, and intrigued with the enemies of Spain. Charles IX. detested his brother Alençon, and twice gave the order to strangle La Molle. It is said that one day at the Louvre, with the Duc de Guise and some gentlemen who had ropes, he waited himself for La Molle, in a passage of the palace. La Molle was saved only because he entered the room of his mistress instead of Alençon's.

Montmorency, the eldest son of the Constable, retired to Chantilly in 1574. The whole kingdom was in a state of effervescence. The Duc d'Alençon was among the malcontents. La Molle, who was a great intriguer and a born conspirator, was wanting in personal courage; he found an associate and an instrument in a daring soldier, the Piedmontese Annibal Coconata. Coconata was born in 1534; he was a soldier of fortune, who had fought against the Turks and then taken service in France. He was an unbeliever, and did not care for Catholics or Protestants. On the night of the massacre of Saint Bartholomew he took part in the murder of Coligny. Charles IX. said of him: "Coconat was a valiant gentleman, but he was wicked; he was one of the wickedest men living in my kingdom. I remember having heard him say, among other things, when he vaunted his part in the Saint Bartholomew, that he had bought from the hands of the people thirty Huguenots, in order to have the satisfaction of killing them after his own pleasure, which was to make them first renounce their religion with a promise to save their lives. This being done, he killed them with his poniard, cruelly, with several cuts." This can be read in the 'Memoirs of L'Estoile,' who adds that Charles IX. used to say that, though he had ordered the massacre, he had never liked Coconat since, and had found him worthy of the end which he met.

La Molle was worthy of his companion; they were both secret agents of Spain. The Duc d'Alençon employed them in his intrigues. The malcontents placed him at their

head. Alençon was to fly from Paris with the King of Navarre, Turenne, and Coconat; at Villers-Cotterets he was to meet some other gentleman; an emissary of the Duc de Bouillon was to conduct the little troop to Sedan. Once at Sedan, Alençon was master of the situation; he could count on Ludwig of Nassau and his army, on Charles of Mansfeld; England, Germany, the Netherlands would give him money and soldiers. Alençon, at the head of an army, would give his help to the French Huguenots. Such was La Molle's plan. Turenne, however, who despised him, refused to work with him. A last meeting took place at the house of a man called La Nocle La Fin, or more commonly La Fin. Alençon presided; besides him, there were present La Fin, La Molle, Coconat, and five others. The departure for Sedan was decided on.

The conspirators did not suspect that the Queen mother was advised day by day of all their doings. Alençon was shadowed by the Italian Cosimo Ruggieri, an astrologer and a necromancer who had given lessons in Italian to François d'Alençon and lived on intimate terms with him. The Queen had other spies. The Duke of Montmorency himself, whom Alençon had tried to bring over to his cause, went to see the Queen and gave her a letter which his guards had found in the hands of a valet. In this letter one of the conspirators asked his wife to send him horses to Saint-Maur for the expedition to Sedan. The Queen lost no time; she prepared her dispositions, doubled the guard of the Louvre, had the doors shut, kept Alençon and Henry of Navarre prisoners. Seizures began. La Molle was arrested as well as Coconat, whom a great lady had concealed in an Augustine convent. Thus ended a movement which was headed at first by the "Politiques," but in reality was not countenanced by Montmorency, the chief of the party, and could therefore not succeed, though two princes of the blood were at the head of it.

The trial was conducted by De Thou, who was an enemy of the Politiques. La Molle was considered the chief of the conspiracy; Coconat as only one of his instruments. La Molle was the lover of Marguerite of Navarre; Coconat counted among his many mistresses the Duchess of Nevers and the Maréchale de Retz. It may therefore be imagined how eagerly all the details of the trial were followed not only in Paris, but in foreign courts. Alençon and Navarre were not prosecuted. The former was obliged to perform some royal functions in the place of his brother. Navarre was allowed to take walks in the park. Both of them were really prisoners and surrounded with guards.

After the fashion of the time, La Molle was subjected to torture. He kept silent for a long time, and finally denounced as his accomplices Turenne, Coconat, Bouillon, Condé, La Nocle, and a few others. He did not breathe the name of Alençon. Coconat was not so reticent; he spoke of Alençon and of Montmorency. He exclaimed, after the torture: "You see, gentlemen, the little ones are punished, and the great ones, who committed the fault, remain unpunished. You ought to attack Montmorency, Bouillon, and Turenne." In vain did Alençon and the Queen of Navarre implore the pardon of La Molle; all they could obtain was that he should not have a public execution. It was too late; the bearer of the Queen's despatch, on arriving at Paris, found the gates shut. De Thou hastened the execution; La Molle and his accomplice were carried from the Conciergerie to the Place de Grève and beheaded. A poet of the time composed this epigram for La Molle:

"Mollis vita fuit, mollior interitus."

Pasquier wrote a poem in Latin on his death, beginning:

"Vos ego, Veneres Cupidinesque,
Vos ego, Charites venustiores," etc.

Little did La Molle deserve to be celebrated in verse, in the style of Catullus. The Queen of Navarre and the Duchess of Nevers, if we believe Brantôme, made great professions of despair. It seems certain that they disinterred secretly the bodies, and had them interred in the Chapel of Saint-Martin at Montmartre. It was said, also, that they kept the heads of their lovers embalmed. Such details show us in the court of the last of the Valois a singular mixture of devotion and of gallantry. The sons of Catherine were perverted almost to madness, and the Court had, as usual, taken the manners of the King and of the Princes.

Correspondence.

NEW NATIONAL BANKNOTE GUARANTEES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The current discussion in regard to the future of our national banknote system promises to be fruitful of good results provided it can be conducted as a scientific and practical financial question and kept clear of party politics. One very encouraging feature is that the more sober writers are discarding what used to be the almost universal assumption that it was out of the question that any other security than U. S. Government bonds could form the basis of a national currency. I am glad to see that, in your article on the subject in to-day's *Nation*, you not only say that the national system is the best we have ever had and probably the best we ever can have, but also intimate that some other security may be found to take the place of the bonds, and that if thus the system could be continued, it would be better than any State system. In this you are in accord with the plan suggested by Congressman Harter two months ago, when he proposed that certain classes of bonds should be accepted as security, and went into some detail as to the restrictions and safeguards which should surround them. I think his plan, as then elaborated, can be supplemented by one additional provision which, if adopted, would make the national system perpetual and elastic, and would render the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax unnecessary.

On several memorable occasions the Clearing-House Association of this city has prevented or mitigated monetary panics by stepping in to assist banks which were amply solvent, but which would have been pushed to the wall if required to liquidate their liabilities on demand; similar action was taken by the leading London bankers to save the house of Baring from bankruptcy. These precedents show that in the world of finance, as elsewhere, in union there is strength. The same sound principles which were acted upon exceptionally in the instances referred to would, if erected into a permanent system, provide a stable banknote currency. What I would propose in order to carry out this idea is as follows. Let the Comptroller of the Currency issue national banknotes against proper securities, not to individual banks, but to the associations of national banks in the various States, cities, or counties, as the case may be. For instance, in the city of New York, the Clearing-House Association would be the medium of communication between the banks composing it and the Department at Washington; the association would receive the banknotes and distribute them among its members, in proportion to the securities that each of them had deposited for transmission to Washington; the association would be responsible to the holder of the note; that is, if any one bank failed to redeem its notes on demand, the holder could demand payment of any other bank belonging to the same association, and the bank so redeeming these notes could, on surrendering them to the Department (through the association), receive the securities deposited by the issuing bank and thus save itself from loss. In this way it would be the interest of the association to see to it that only unexceptionable securities were sent to Washington, and that each individual bank maintained a proper reserve. A currency secured and protected in this way would enjoy so great a measure of public confidence that a panic among note-holders would be among the remotest of contingencies.

Perhaps some one will object that the larger and more conservative banks will not be willing to stand as sponsors for their weaker brethren. Bankers, however, are our most enlightened and broad-minded business men, and will readily understand how much it is to their interest to have a sound and controllable currency, and one which will pass at par in all parts of the country.

I beg leave to dissent from your view (expressed in your article of October 6) that State notes would not get into circulation if they were not fully as good as national banknotes. I do not think that anybody who has a practical knowledge of the keen competition among merchants and bankers will agree with you. New York merchants nominally sell their goods for New York funds; nevertheless, the very largest and richest firms accept from their far Western and Southern customers checks on their local banks on which the actual loss in collection is from one-eighth to one-half per cent. It is true that in most cases they do not suffer the loss themselves, but pass it on to their banks, who receive such checks on deposit at par. They do it for fear of losing business. The same thing would occur with banknotes. If a large customer in Alabama or Nebraska sent a batch of depreciated banknotes to a dry-goods jobber in New York, the latter would not have the backbone to refuse them, and would deposit them at par in his bank, which in its turn would have no more backbone than he had, because it knows that a dozen other banks would be only too glad to take the account on the same terms. Before the war, when all kinds of banknotes were at all kinds of discount, the Metropolitan Bank built up a very large business in a very short time by announcing that it would receive country notes on deposit at par. Competition among banks at that time was not as strenuous as it is to-day. It was then unheard of that a bank president, or even a bank director, should go about among the merchants of his acquaintance "soliciting" accounts; it has become a common practice now. There is one bank on Broadway which last year appointed a so-called "Vice-President," whose whole business it is to go up and down the streets "drumming for trade," like any itinerant vender.

Under such conditions, which all banks understand very well, it is to the manifest interest of all conservative banks to avert a re-

turn to the State-bank system. It would benefit nobody who has anything to lose, and I am at a loss to know why anybody should advocate it as long as there is any way to maintain our present system on a safe basis. As for the opinion of Senator Sherman, quoted by you, "that the popular will has been expressed adversely to the continuance of the national system beyond the existence of the national bonds," one is tempted to say that the Senator, like Capt. Jack Bunsby, is "a man of mind and a man as can give an opinion," but that is all there is of it. I have never met with any such expression of "the popular will." Have you? A. T.

NEW YORK, November 10, 1892.

THE NILE CORVÉE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his recent book, 'Egypt To-day,' Mr. Frazer Rae states that, "in December, 1889, the *corvée* was totally abolished in Egypt, for the first time, probably, in all the thousands of years of Egyptian history" (page 177). Mr. Frazer Rae refers to me in such kind terms that I have every interest in maintaining his accuracy. He took infinite pains to arrive at the truth, and if he did not always attain the goal, the obstacles were such as would deceive, if it were possible, the very elect.

No more exact date is given on which the Egyptian serf emerged from the long bondage into the liberty enjoyed by every peasant of Europe. No "Emancipation Proclamation," no "Decree of the Council of Ministers," no "Statute of the Legislative Council" is cited. Mr. Frazer Rae gives as his authority the N. Y. *Nation*, April 21, 1892, p. 299. In a letter from Mr. Woodruff, of whose painstaking efforts to estimate at its fair value the influence of the English occupation of Egypt I was personally cognizant, it is said that the English set about to abolish the *corvée* as a part of their task. The Dual Control of Egypt had long exercised a power which rendered the abuse of the *corvée* impossible without the knowledge, and therefore acquiescence, of Major Baring. In 1882 the entire control passed into the hands of England. In 1884, M. Rousseau having been dismissed, Sir C. C. Scott-Moncrieff was made Under-Secretary of State for Public Works. He held office until July, 1892. In the (London) *World*, October 19, 1892, Sir C. C. Scott-Moncrieff informs its representative that he had instituted many humane and useful reforms.

"For instance, he abolished the *corvée*, a system of State unpaid, forced labor, which pressed most grievously upon the people, and constituted one of their great grievances. The *corvée* was employed to repair the banks of the canals, to clear the canals of silt deposit and to assist in the works of irrigation; but, as the only remuneration received was meted out in blows and stripes, the effect of this employment may be easily imagined."

This is a correct account of the *corvée;* but when was it abolished, in law or in fact? The Law of January 25, 1881, was modified by Arabi Pasha, on March 12, 1882, in favor of the Bedouins. A ministerial order was issued on March 1, 1887, signed by Sir C. C. Scott-Moncrieff, allowing "the tenants of the Pashas" the privilege of redeeming themselves. On January 29, 1888, a decree of the Council of Ministers extended this right of redemption, at forty piastres ($2.00) per man, to the peasants of *certain* provinces. In 1889 the *corvée* was in force in eight provinces, for the clearance of silt, and winter work. "The works were most thoroughly kept in order by the money of the *corvée* ransom, the *corvée* relief, and the *corvée* themselves." (Report, p. 60, §112, Cairo, 1890.) In 1891—nine years after the British occupation—her Majesty's Government published a Report by Sir E. Baring, in which he says, "The *corvée* has been wholly abolished." (Egypt, No. 3, March 29, 1891, p. 38.) Sir C. C. Scott-Moncrieff had made the same statement in *Nature*, and Sir E. Baring adopts it with the context almost without verbal change.

Thus Mr. Woodruff and Mr. Frazer Rae might appeal to authorities of the highest repute to sustain them in their position. Nevertheless, it is untenable. The *corvée* has never been abolished. It was called out within a month after Sir E. Baring had said that it had ceased to exist, in April, 1891, to fight the locusts, under the direction of Mr. Wallace of the College of Agriculture. It is in full operation at the present moment. On October 5, 1892, the *Journal Officiel* published (in English) that "Major Brown, Inspector-General of Irrigation for Upper Egypt, is still much dissatisfied with the work of the Kenah *corvée*." On October 8, "Major Brown specially praises the Mudir [Governor] of Beni-Suef, Mustapha Wahbi, for the very excellent arrangements he has made and the way in which the *corvée* has been worked."

Nor are the numbers of these forced, unfed, and unpaid laborers insignificant. In Gharbieh, three thousand peasants were requisitioned from other districts to work in the district of Chirbin. The Governor of Menufieh moves about his province, accompanied by a gang of 500 workmen. In Minieh, seventeen thousand five hundred and thirteen *corvéables* were reported as under orders on October 10. In Behera, 1,350 laborers were employed at a single point. In Menufieh, 1,200 men were at work on one bank. These facts are taken from the official organ of the Egyptian Government, pp. 1208 and 1209.

Fine and imprisonment are the legal penalties for disobedience. The law provides, however, for its own suspension, and remits the case to a Commission, formed, like the Lynch tribunals, out of a group of the neighbors, without a magistrate, who must decide, on the demand of the engineer, within twenty-four hours. There is a picturesque account, too long to quote, of a peasant, Abd el-Aty el-Sarry, who appealed to the Khedive in person in behalf of his father. "The old man" had been beaten, in spite of his obedience to the summons. The village-chief admitted that he had inflicted blows. He was "invited" not to repeat this form of compulsion on the bodies of those under his orders (*Journal Officiel*, September 29, 1892, p. 1203).

There is an ancient tale in which the little boy alleged that he was provided with a large number of first cousins, although his father had never had brother or sister and his mother had been an only child. The sole explanation necessarily imputed to the lad a disregard of truth. I recommend the moral to those who, like myself, can find no other explanation of the contradictions I have cited.

COPE WHITEHOUSE.

LONDON, October 24, 1892.

THE WASHINGTON GENEALOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just found a piece of evidence that is interesting, and will, I think, prove of high value in determining this vexed question of the Washington family. In October, 1891, I sent you a letter from John Washington, in which he made mention of "Aunt Howard, who died about a year and a half ago" (*i. e.*, 1697 or 1698). In February, 1892, I sent an extract from a letter of George Washington, in which he said: "Mrs. Hayward must have been a daughter of the *first Lawrence*, and thence becomes a cousin of the second Lawrence and John." I hazarded the conjecture that Aunt Howard and Mrs. Hayward were one and the same person, and that she probably belonged to a generation previous to that assigned her by Washington. An attested copy of the will of Mrs. Martha Hayward was accidentally discovered by me last week in the Washington MSS. in the Department of State, and is as follows:

In the name of God Amen I Martha Hayward of the County of Stafford being sick and weak of body but of perfect sence and memory, thanks be given to God therefor Doe make and ordaine this my last Will & Testament

Impr^s I give and bequeath my Soul to God and my body to the Earth to be buryed in Christianlike and Decent manner att the disposition of my Exec^rs hereafter named and as for what worldly Estate it hath pleased God to bless me w^th all I give devise and dispose of in the following manner & forme

Item I give and bequeath unto my two cousins John and Augustine the sons of my coz^n Lawrence Washington of Westmoreland County one negroe woman named Anne and her future increase and in case of their deaths before they come of age then I give the s^d negroe to the afores^d Lawrence Washington & his heirs forever.

Item I give unto my cozen Lawrence Washington son of M^r John Washington of Westmoreland County one mallatto girle named Suka to him and his heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath unto my cozen John Washington son of the said John Washington of Westmoreland county one mallatto Girle named Kate to him and his heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath my cozen Nathaniel Washington, son of the said John Washington one Negroe boy named John to him & his heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath unto my Coz^n Hen: Washington son of the said John Washington one negroe boy named George William to him & his heirs for ever.

Item I give and bequeath unto my kinsman M^r John Washington of Stafford County one negroe woman named Petty and her future Increase to him & his heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath unto my kinsman M^r Rich^d Ffoot two thousands pn^ds Tobbacco to him & his heirs for ever.

Item it is my will & desire that my Ex^trs w^th all conven^t speed after my decease doe procure and purchase for each of my two sisters in Law viz^t Mary King and Sarah Todd a servant man or woman as they or either [of] them shall both like haveing att least four or five years to serve w^ch I doe give to them and their heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath to my afores^d cozins the sons of my two coz^ns Lawrence and John Washington of Westmoreland County to Each of them a feather bedd and furniture to them and their heirs forever.

Item it is my will and desire that my Exec^trs with all Conven^t speed send to England to my Eldest sister M^rs Elizabeth Rumbold a Tunne of good weight of Tobacco, & the same I give to her and her heirs forever.

Item it is my desire that my said Executors Doe likewise take freight send for England to my other sister M^rs Marg^t Galbut [Talbut?] a Tonne of good weight of Tobbacco which I give to her and her and her [*sic*] heirs forever.

Item I give and bequeath unto M^r W^m Pruckner [?] of the County of York my gold signett.

Item I give and bequeath unto Ca^pt Law: Washington and his wife, M^r John Washington of Stafford County and his wife, M^r John Washington of Westmoreland County and his wife, Mary King, Sarah Todd and Mary Wheatley, each of them a gold of twenty shillings piece To be procured with all Conven^t speed after my decease.

Item I give and bequeath unto Samuel Todd son of Wm. Todd a heiffer about three years old

Lastly after all my just Debts are p^d all the

rest of my Estate whatsoever and wheresoever I doe give and bequeath unto Cap[t] Lawrence Washington, M[r] John Washington of Westmoreland County, & M[r] John Washington of Stafford County to be Equall[y] Divided between them and I doe hereby [ ] Constitute and ordaine the afores[d] Lawrence Washington & John Washington of Westmoreland County Execut[s] of this my last will & Testament. In Witnesse whereof I have hereunto sett my hand & ffixed my Seale this 6th day of May annoq[e] Domi 1697.

MARTHA HAYWARD.

Signed, sealed and delivered in the presence of us: Geo. Weedon, Sarah Kelly, Sarah ⋈ Powell, her marke, John Pike.

Proved and Recorded the 8[th] of December, 1697.

Vera copia Teste.

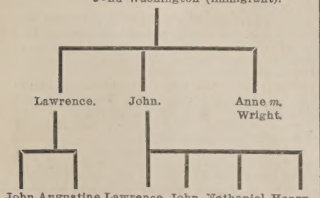
J. Perry

D. C. Cur. Com. Stafford.

From this will we establish the fact that Martha (the sister of the emigrants John and Lawrence), for whose journey to this country provision was made by John in his will, did cross the ocean and become Mrs. Hayward. The date of the will and the sentence in John's letter mentioning the death of Aunt Howard point to the same person. She moved to Stafford County, and was probably the wife of the Nicholas Hayward who obtained a grant of land there in 1689. The terms of her will would indicate that no children were given to her. The two sisters-in-law, Mary King and Sarah Todd, were probably of the Hayward connection.

We also learn of an entirely new family on the Westmoreland side—that of John of Westmoreland. The immigrant John had two sons, Lawrence and John. From Lawrence was descended the President, but of the second son nothing has been known except a rough note on the Heard table—"from whom are descended Henry of Chotank and John of Machotock." Mrs. Hayward's will gives the names of four sons of this John: Lawrence, John, Nathaniel, and Henry. We are justified in concluding that some of these sons, receiving Stafford property under this will, removed to Stafford. What is more probable than that the will of Henry Washington of Stafford County, executed in 1747, was the will of this son of John? Mr. Horace Edwin Hayden, who first printed the will, was led to believe that this Henry belonged to the line of the emigrant Lawrence, but I think Mrs. Hayward's bequests determine where Henry belongs.

So much for the light thrown upon the American family, which may be made clearer by the following table:



The will also gives us two facts hitherto unknown: the married names of the two sisters of John and Lawrence (emigrants) who remained in England. Elizabeth, who was baptized at Tring in 1636, became Mrs. Rumbold, and her sister Margaret married a Galbut or Talbut; and they were both supposed to be living when the will was made. Mr. Waters gives us additional evidence. Margaret Talbott was a witness to the will of Samuel Thornton (1666), who married an aunt of the emigrants, and so it is probable that Talbot is the married name of this sister. A sister of Mrs. Thornton, Elizabeth (Washington) Mewce, in her will (1676), left a legacy to her niece, Mrs. Elizabeth Rumball. With these additional clues to work upon, Mr. Waters ought to be able to report something of interest from the other side.

From curiosity, I should like to know if the use of the word "cozen" to denote a nephew was common at that day.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, November 8, 1892.

THE STEEL-WIRE-BINDING NUISANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An English paper, speaking of our American periodicals the other day, said that one had to use a sardine can-opener before one could read them. Would that any form of can-opener known to me could suffice! I usually have five minutes' work with a knife-blade (which almost always gets notched in the process) and two pairs of pliers, one for cutting and one for pulling, before I can read any of our more serious reviews, like the *Forum*, the *Arena*, or the *Journal of Psychology*. The pages next the cover are hurt, of course, in the process, and the leaves, having no longer any connection with each other, easily get crumpled and eventually lost. It is but fair to say of the lighter monthlies, like the *Century* and *Scribner's*, that the wires are inserted nearer the back, so that, by strongly bending open the sheets and pounding the inner angle with some heavy object, the magazine sometimes will open sufficiently to be read without springing to, although held in only one hand. More commonly, however, both hands must be actively used to keep even these magazines open enough for reading. Bookbinders inform me that the wires are, if anything, a greater curse to them than to the readers.

The last straw which has broken the camel's back of my patient American disposition, and elicited this public protest, is the sudden appearance of that admirable journal the *Philosophical Review*, hitherto decently stitched and openable, with its back pinched up in a spick-and-span suit of steel wires on which I have just notched another knife-blade. Now, even in our non-resistant land, cannot some protest be made which may shame the publishers? In no other land that I know do they venture so to count on the tameness of the consumer, although in other lands the prize of a cent and a fraction saved on each copy must be equally inviting.

The worst of it is, that in this, as in so many larger matters, the universality of an abuse is bringing up an entire generation in ignorance of any better practice. In a few years none of us will remember that there ever were stitched-backed magazines, and our souls will be resigned to steel wires as to overheated cars and concert-halls and blizzards. But before that time comes, cannot the newspapers say a single helpful word? Or, better still, cannot a handful of readers whose spirit is not yet entirely broken organize a boycott which may have some effect? When the *International Journal of Ethics* first appeared, it was in steel wires. A lively letter to the editor from a single subscriber brought about its reform, and it has been stitched and readable ever since. Other editors may have less power; but if even a small number of subscribers to a review were to address the publisher, stopping their subscriptions as long as steel wires should continue to bar the way, they *might* produce a change of heart. Will not some readers of these lines adopt the suggestion?—Truly yours, WILLIAM JAMES.

FLORENCE, October 27, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF SPELLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Ever since your article "English at Harvard, and Elsewhere" appeared, I have been looking for a discussion of our irrational way of teaching how to spell and for proposals toward a radical reform. Indeed, I have often wondered why it is that we should cling to a method so fundamentally wrong, and why more rational methods should not be adopted. The faults of method, as I conceive them, are these:

(1.) Spelling is taught in utter neglect of the one great law of memorizing, the law of association. To remember a thing by itself and without joining it in some way to a thing already known, is always a difficult matter. But just this is what the child is expected to do: he must remember how a given word is spelled when he has nothing to remember it by. To illustrate: The two words "there" and "their" are continually confounded; yet where is there a teacher who would employ such a simple device as this?—Write on the board the two words "there" and "their." Take the first of these words, draw a line between the *t* and the *h*, and say that when the *t* is dropped, we have "here." The words "here" and "there" are readily remembered as going together, and the pronoun "their" will not be brought in. Again, the words "two" and "too" are continually confounded throughout the grammar school and the high school. Yet what can be more simple than a radical cure like this?—Write the word "twice," which no body misspells, and call attention to the fact that "twice," meaning *two* times, has the letter *w* in it, just as has the numeral *two* from which it is derived.

I am fully aware that the great multitude of teachers at once object to such a plan as taking too much time. This is a grievous mistake on their part. Of course not every word in the language requires such treatment; it is true, however, that all the common and ever-recurring mistakes in spelling can be thus eradicated by very simple means. Nor is this an untried opinion, and any teacher of spelling who will devote a little attention (and inventive power) to the subject, will find all the common mistakes vanish as if by magic.

(2.) Our scholars are required to learn the spelling of words with which they are altogether unacquainted and which convey to them no meaning. This amounts to an absurdity. I was once present at an old-fashioned spelling-match held at a teachers' institute. The word "syzygy" was given out to spell, and Mr. Schmidt was called on to spell it. "I do not know the meaning of the word," said he; whereupon there was a burst of laughter at so foolish an excuse.

Why does not some industrious schoolmaster win laurels by writing (say) a 'Magic Speller' upon the plan indicated? Here is a fine field for the display of inventiveness and of wit and wisdom. And what a blessing it would be to see all the common mistakes banished!—Respectfully,

WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, November 5, 1892.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a contribution to the discussion of "English as she is wrote in our colleges," I en-

close a clipping from the "Agricultural Department" of the *Ariel*, the weekly paper published by the students of the University of Minnesota. CORNELIUS.

ST. PAUL, November 9, 1892.

With this edition of the ARIEL the present editor of this department, having a very generous feeling for my fellow students, and not wishing to see any of them miss the advantage to receive the benefit that is always desired from a good honorable position, and having held the position for over one year, could not conscientiously hold it any longer, thereby standing in the way of some fellow student, therefore I resign, and have the pleasure of introducing to the readers of the ARIEL Mr. Thomas A. Haigh, a bright and energetic young man of the class of '94, who no doubt will fill the position better than it has been for the past year. We all wish him success in his new work. ED. AGR. DEPT.

Notes.

WARD, LOCK, BOWDEN & Co. will publish directly a 'History of the English Parliament, together with an Account of the Parliaments of Scotland and Ireland,' by G. Barnett Smith, in two octavo volumes, with facsimiles of documents pertinent to the theme, and the full text of Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, etc.

Charles H. Sergel & Co., Chicago, have undertaken an edition of Voltaire's works in English, in forty volumes, by way of commemorating the two-hundredth anniversary of his birth. They will also add to their Medallion Series three books by Alfred de Musset—'The Confession of a Child of the Century,' 'The Beauty Spot, and Other Stories,' and 'Barberine, and Other Comedies.' 'Chile,' in their Latin-American Republics Series, will be by Anson Uriel Hancock, and 'Mexico' probably by Gen. Lew Wallace.

Worthington Co. announce for immediate publication 'Intellectual Pursuits; or, Culture by Self-Help,' by Robert Waters, author of the 'Life of Cobbett.'

J. B. Lippincott Co. announce 'Mother and Child,' a book for domestic use, by Drs. E. P. Davis and John M. Keating.

The Appalachian Mountain Club will publish this week, through W. B. Clarke & Co., Boston, a beautifully illustrated work entitled 'The Land of the Cliff-Dwellers,' by Frederick H. Chapin, author of 'Mountaineering in Colorado.' As the title suggests, the work deals principally with natural scenery and archæology, yet a succinct presentation of the history of the settlement of the Southwest forms the introduction. The 180 pages of text are interspersed with some 60 full-page illustrations, phototypes and half-tones, made from the unusually fine set of photographs taken by the author, chiefly in the San Juan Mountains and in the labyrinth of cañons that cut the strange Mesa Verde of southwestern Colorado.

The letters of Heine to various members of his family, the publication of which we have already announced, are 122 in number, and are said to throw much light—much needed light, one might say—on a tender side of Heine's character. They will also add to what is known at present about the poet's marriage. Mme. Charlotte Embden, Heine's sister, who publishes the letters, is now ninety-two years old.

The Harpers publish in a dainty little volume 'The Desire of Beauty,' by the late Theodore Child. There is nothing especially new in the book, but it is pleasantly written and sound in doctrine, and in this sort of general criticism the author is at his best, being unhampered by that lack of specific knowledge of art which we have heretofore commented upon.

'Emma,' in two volumes, is the latest issue in Mr. Brimley Johnson's careful and elegant little edition of Jane Austen's novels (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The series is one to which we might wish there were no end.

There is very little art, but there is something of nature, in Zulma DeLacy Steele's charcoal landscape illustrations to Mrs. J. C. R. Dorr's verses, 'The Fallow Field.' The poem invites rather a purely decorative treatment, for only a *tour de force* could keep the pictorial treatment of a fallow field, in black and white, from being monotonous.

The Messrs. Putnam have struck an excellent vein in their annual holiday reproductions of Irving, and this year's "Agapida Edition" of the 'Chronicle of the Conquest of Granada,' in two volumes, seems to us the best of the series. The text is framed in a constantly diversified border of an arabesque pattern in red and pale olive, and the thirty photogravure illustrations embrace not only scenery and architecture, but also portraits, historic paintings, and antiquities. They are of very even merit and a real help to the reader. The cover is elaborately wrought in white, gold, and color. Altogether, here is a gift-book well devised.

Mr. Garrett's illustrations hardly furnish a ground for preferring to the English edition of Matthew Arnold's selected 'Poems of Wordsworth' the one now brought out by T. Y. Crowell & Co. They are unimportant in themselves, if once or twice graceful, and the typography does not approach the English in openness or beauty, while the volume is swelled and weighted by over-thick paper.

When it first appeared, a few years ago, Mr. Fitzgerald Molloy's 'Life and Adventures of Peg Woffington' was shown to be a readable compilation of careless gossip, put together with little regard for accuracy. A new edition has now been published by Dodd, Mead & Co., admirably printed, and illustrated by some three-score "process" plates, mostly portraits and views, and neither skilfully chosen nor carefully reproduced. The best portraits of contemporary actors and actresses have not been selected, and those selected have been processed rather muddily, often from inferior impressions. The theatrical portrait-gallery of the end of the last century is extraordinarily rich in beautiful mezzotint engravings, many of which could be reduced and reproduced inexpensively and very effectively. As it is, these two seemly volumes look as though they had just left the hands of one of the professional "extra-illustrators" who do cheap work in London for export to New York.

Charles Scribner's Sons have now published in a beautifully printed volume the 'Three Plays,' by W. E. Henley and R. L. Stevenson, of which we made mention a few weeks ago. The three plays are "Deacon Brodie," "Beau Austin," and "Admiral Guinea." To the two former are prefixed the names of the actors who performed in them during their brief career upon the stage; the third has not yet been tried by the light of the lamps. All three are interesting experiments, written with curious care, like all of Mr. Stevenson's work, and yet not convincingly dramatic. Perhaps the scene most likely to be effective in the theatre is the final one of "Admiral Guinea"; but it may be doubted whether this play would find quicker popular appreciation than its fellows. We may note that the authors had already printed "Deacon Brodie" privately twice, and that both of these versions differ more or less from that here presented. In conjunction with Mr. Henley, Mr. Stevenson has also written a fourth play, a version of "Robert Macaire," and he has also printed for his friends still a fifth play, written in collaboration with Mrs. Stevenson.

"C. de Hurst," author of a little manual, 'How Women Should Ride' (Harpers), is a *nom de guerre* suggestive of Long Island and of the dangerous cross-country riding which is indulged in by members of the hunting set. Hence, perhaps, an inconsistency by which, on the one hand, women's riding to hounds is countenanced, and, on the other, parents are warned not to allow girls under sixteen to ride at all. It would be easy to obtain the very best medical testimony in favor of allowing girls to ride in moderation at any age, even when a leading-rein is an indispensable safeguard, while experience seems to be constantly strengthening the case against female cross-country riders. With this exception, the author's suggestions and illustrations are excellent, the book is pleasantly written, and it will doubtless prove very useful to young riders.

In his 'Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in Russia' (Cambridge, Mass.), Mr. W. M. Griswold can enumerate only about 100, and these, with the selected notices of critical journals, fill only twenty-one pages. What is striking is the fact, now readily discernible, that Russian fiction began to be presented to English readers a great many years ago. There was as early as 1831 a translation of Thaddeus Bulgarin's 'Ivan Vejeeghan' put on the London market, and pirated here the next year. In 1850 two attempts are recorded; in 1853 Turgeneff's' 'Annals of a Sportsman' appeared in Edinburgh, and an abridgment was borrowed by *Graham's Magazine* in 1854. Even Tolstoi's 'Childhood and Youth' found a London publisher as far back as 1862. With Eugene Schuyler's version of 'Fathers and Sons' in 1867, the tide began to rise steadily.

The Russian bibliographer Pavlenkoff, in a review of the book production in his native country for 1891, gives, among others, the following figures. During the past year there appeared in Russia, excluding Finland, 9,053 books and pamphlets in about 29,000,000 copies; of these, 6,588, in 23,000,000 copies, were in the Russian language, 840 in the Polish, 393 in German, 380 in Hebrew, and 219 in Lettisch. One of the most popular forms of literature in the Czar's land seems to be calendars, of which 229 were published, many of them in editions of over half a million. The most notable event in the Russian book world during this period was the expiration of the copyright of Lermontoff's works, in consequence of which ninety-two editions of them appeared in over a million copies. It is perhaps not wholly without significance that the largest class of publications was that of educational works, to the number of 574, exceeding belles-lettres by 65. The third largest number was medical. More than a third of the total number of publications appeared in St. Petersburg.

The Board of Women Managers of the State of New York for the Chicago Exposition have put forth a tentative 'List of Books and Articles by Women Native or Residents' of the State, which makes a creditable appearance. Notice of errors or omissions is desired to be sent to Mrs. Florence C. Ives, Assembly Parlors, Albany.

Miss Lucy M. Salmon, Professor of History in Vassar College, publishes a "Statistical Inquiry concerning Domestic Service" begun by her in 1888, the returns being collated by the

Massachusetts Labor Bureau. The paper also appears among the publications of the American Statistical Association. Some 5,000 circulars addressed to employers were distributed, over 1,000 of which were answered. About 700 replies were received to the circulars issued to servants, but an employment bureau in Boston added information as to the wages paid in some 3,000 cases. From these returns it appears that more than half the persons engaged in domestic service are of foreign birth, and that more than half of these were born in Ireland. The average weekly wages are figured at $3.23. Miss Salmon argues that, considering the board and lodging furnished to servants, they are better off financially than ordinary working-women, and are able to save as much as teachers in the public schools. Many opinions were obtained as to the relations between mistress and maid, but we do not observe that any fruitful generalizations are derivable from them.

In the new Department for the Graduate Instruction of Women at the University of Pennsylvania, whose formal opening was noticed in these columns last May, there are thirty students. Some are doing special work in chemistry, biology, metallurgy, and history; but the majority are studying for the regular Ph. D. degree. A Philadelphia correspondent writes "that the success of these women students has been so great as to cause the serious consideration of changing the name and scope of the Department so as to permit women students to enter the undergraduate as well as the graduate schools of 'Old Penn,' making it possible for them to secure a majority of the degrees awarded by the University." Those friends of higher education who, from the first, hoped that this new departure of the University of Pennsylvania would prove the entering wedge which should eventually open all departments, but particularly the Medical, to women, can evidently cheer themselves by recalling the statements frankly made by the University authorities in the spring, that while they deemed it "inexpedient to admit women to any but the post-graduate courses," they believed that full co-education could be "safely and effectually conducted."

We have received the first number of the *Kansas University Quarterly*, published by the State University. Its five papers have for subject, "Universal Curves by Method of Inversion," "Foreign Settlements in Kansas," with a map, "The Great Spirit Spring Mound," "On Pascal's Limaçon and the Cardioid," and "Dialect Word-List."

The *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History* for October opens with a paper on the ancestry and earlier life of Washington, by the Rev. E. D. Neill, which is accompanied by a photo-engraving of the sketch for the first portrait of Washington, made in May, 1772, by Charles Willson Peale. It is now owned by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

F. Lhomme makes in *L'Art* for October 1 a forcible protest against the proposed statue to Baudelaire, which he suggests should be placed at the outlet of a sewer if erected at all. He calls it "awarding to this dirty jester the same honors as to Corneille, Molière, Lamartine—to those who have strengthened, delighted, and consoled mankind." In the same number is given a sketch of the statue of Alfred de Musset, from Georges Veyrat's recent work, 'Les Statues de l'Hôtel de Ville'; and two caricatures from life by the same poet, representing the Princess Belgiojoso ("Elle était belle, si la Nuit"), from the Vicomtesse de Janzé's 'Étude et Récits sur A. de Musset.'

Petermann's Mitteilungen for September contains the results of a series of observations of the northern lights made between September, 1882, and the following April, by Sophus Tromholt. After a description of the station, a Lapp village in the extreme north of Norway, and of the methods pursued by him, he gives numerous tables showing the intensity, height, extent, form, motion, etc., of the appearances. In the same number is the map of Emin Pasha's route during his recent expedition to the west of the Victoria and Albert Nyanzas. From this it appears that he was able to get within 150 kilometres of Wadelai, his former seat of government in the Equatorial Province, but that he did not succeed in pushing his explorations to the westward in the great forest. The country between the Albert and Albert Edward Lakes is mapped in considerable detail, but the course of the river uniting them is still left undetermined.

'The International Date Line,' by Henry Collins (Syracuse: Bardeen), is an instructive little pamphlet concerning the change of date commonly made on the Pacific Ocean. It is shown that the meridian of 180 degrees has not in this respect the importance generally attributed to it. In consequence of the curved course of the date line, varying its longitude between 117 degrees E. and 168 degrees W., the duration of any date, as January first, extends over 53 hours. Therefore, during five hours in the forenoon of New Year's Day with us, certain islands in the mid-Pacific are already in January 2, while the Philippine islands are still finishing December 31.

The Görlitz and the Rügenwalde sheets of Vogel's Map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) have just been issued, and now of the twenty-seven squares into which the map has been divided, only one remains blank that does not touch a finished square.

—The Washington-Madison Papers (McGuire collection), to be sold in Philadelphia early next month, make the most important collection of historical MSS. ever sold in this country at public auction. The remarkable series of letters from leading Virginians are of high value as autographs, being fine specimens, but are of far greater interest from their contents. The Washingtons alone, upwards of seventy in number, written in the fullest confidence to Joseph Jones and James Madison, are unequalled; the only collection that can be compared to this is the Washington letters to Joseph Reed, sold in 1875. For a single letter of the Madison number the late James Lenox offered what was a fabulous price at the time, for it contained the first hints for a farewell address—the hints that four years later were developed into the address as issued. Apart from the Washingtons, the collection must stand unique in its series of letters from Joseph Jones (122), Edmund Pendleton (135), Edmund Randolph (132), John Armstrong (85), and Jonathan Dayton (17)—all to Madison, with more than 200 from Madison in return. It is impossible even to hint at the contents of these letters, but they are of exceeding interest. The sale is absolute: the Washingtons will be disposed of piece by piece—the others in series or lots. In the latter part of the catalogue are some letters of Washington to Tilghman, sold at auction before, but bid in by the family; some remarkable Revolutionary letters, and a unique Duché—a copy in his own hand of his famous letter to Washington. It is a striking evidence of the value of the greater part of this collection that the merit is at once seen in spite of the vagaries of the cataloguer, who has missed his vocation, and should be the writer of headlines on a twopenny dreadful. His misstatements are too numerous and glaring to require criticism, yet one calls for notice. Lot 90 is the *Journal* of the Constitutional Convention, not the *Debates*.

—The McGuire collection has twice been placed at the disposal of the Government, and offers a good illustration of the indifference of our officials to historical material. At the time Congress purchased the Madison Papers, it was due to the carelessness of its agent that these letters—the cream of the Madison collection—were not included. After they had honestly come into the possession of Mr. McGuire, the Government sought to establish a claim, but its own Attorney-General, Caleb Cushing, decided in favor of Mr. McGuire. Four years ago the attention of Mr. Bayard, then Secretary of State, was called to the possibility of purchasing them, and he once opened a negotiation, which remained inactive through the neglect of Congress. A part of the Joseph Jones letters were printed, by Mr. Bayard's instructions, to show their historical value, but without exciting any intention on the part of Congress to seize the opportunity. The result is that the Government holds the so-called Madison Papers, while the more valuable, though smaller, portion of what the Government did not get, is to be scattered beyond recall. It may be added that three of the great collections of historical MSS. in the Department of State are in this curious position, viz.: the Jefferson, the Madison, and the Monroe papers, for in each case the Government holds but a part, and the descendants or representatives of these Presidents the rest. The neglect is the more shameful as copies of the McGuire could have been secured at no cost to the Department.

—A new edition of Herndon's 'Life of Abraham Lincoln,' revised and enlarged, has just been published in two attractive volumes by D. Appleton & Co. Among the new matter are an introduction by Horace White, a description of the Lincoln-Douglas campaign of 1858 by the same writer, who was Mr. Lincoln's travelling companion during the greater part of that celebrated contest, and an important chapter on Mr. Lincoln's speaking campaign in Massachusetts in 1848, which has been neglected by previous biographers. This chapter, and the excellent revision of the whole, are due to Mr. J. W. Weik, Mr. Herndon's fellow-worker in the preparation of the first edition. Some matter in the first edition which was objected to on the score of good taste, but was not essential to a true biography, has been omitted and the illustrations have been sifted and reëngraved. The three portraits of Lincoln are the best that exist, and not the least characteristic of these, the Lincoln of the Douglas debates, has never before been engraved. When this book first appeared, we said:

"Mr. Herndon's personal recollections of Lincoln will doubtless remain the most authentic and trustworthy source of information concerning the great man in the period prior to his elevation to the Presidency. His real subject is the growth and development of Lincoln's powers and character. From many other sources we may get fuller material for the part of Lincoln's career which properly belongs to history; but Herndon's narrative gives, as nothing else is likely to give, the material from which we may form a true picture of the man from infancy to maturity."

An examination of the work in its new dress and of the additions made to it confirms this

view. The publishers are to be congratulated on the improved appearance of the volumes.

—A small volume just issued from the French press of Arthur Rousseau, Paris, must be taken as a significant sign of the times. 'The Political Condition of Women' (*Essai sur la Condition Politique de la Femme*, by Louis Frank, Docteur de la Faculté de Droit de Bologne, et Avocat à la Cour de Bruxelles), is the Rossi prize thesis in constitutional law for 1891. This prize is offered by the Law Department of the University of Paris, and the subject appointed for last year's competition was, "The Condition of Women with respect to the exercise of public duties and political rights: a comparative study of legislation." The thesis is an exhaustive study of the political rights of women, and a refutation of the accepted arguments against the recognition of such rights; its conclusion is, that the age of the subjection of women is rapidly passing away, and that in the new conditions we shall lose nothing and gain much. Those who dread the effect on women of a general acceptance of their rights and personality, may feel comforted by Dr. Frank's assurance that not even equality in political privileges will prevent women from devoting themselves with their habitual ardor to please the so-called superior sex. A supplement gives a full collection of laws and documents which set forth the present political rights of women in all civilized countries. From such accurate data it appears that, while the foundations of society are not thereby in any appreciable way disturbed, women have to-day full suffrage in Wyoming, Nova Scotia, the Isle of Man, Chili, Ecuador, and in five provinces of Austria. They have municipal suffrage in Austria-Hungary and Croatia, in Prussia, Saxony, and Brunswick; in the majority of the Scandinavian countries, *i.e.*, Sweden, Finland, and Iceland; in Russia, in England and Scotland, in all the English colonies from Cape Colony to New Zealand, and from Australia to Canada, and in the State of Kansas. In twenty-one of our States they have school suffrage.

—The latest grant of a "fair field and no favor" to women comes from the University of Edinburgh, which (in exercise of the discretion conferred by Ordinance 18 of the Scottish Universities Commissioners) on Wednesday, October 19, opened its Arts class-rooms to women students on the same terms as men. The Scotch lads thus brought face to face for the first time with coeducation promptly endorsed the decision of the University authorities for mixed classes, and "cordially cheered the new arrivals as they entered, accompanied by the Association for the University Education of Women." While numerous women students appeared in the classes in history, geology, logic, moral philosophy, mathematics, Latin, and in the Senior Greek Class, the "pressure" from the new contingent of University students was focussed in the class-room of Prof. Masson, a stanch friend of women, and a popular lecturer with "Tennyson" for his subject. His audience (640 men and 80 women) proving too large for the ordinary class-room, was adjourned naturally and without comment to a hall of more generous proportions. This final assimilation of the women's classes (conducted strictly on University lines of study, by University professors) with the University of Edinburgh finds six women waiting for their degrees, and one hundred and twenty in mid career for that honor, having already passed in several of the "sacred seven" subjects required by the orthodox curriculum. With this new departure of mixed classes, the University gives to all students a wider choice of subjects qualifying for a degree, and the results of such latitude in its effects on study and "honors" will be closely watched by Scotch educators. Although women, like the Irish, are being rapidly deprived of their traditional grievances, as in the case of the Irish also each fresh sop merely whets their appetite for more—the more in the case of the University of Edinburgh being that the grace now granted to women Arts students shall be extended to women Medical students, as has been done at the University of Glasgow.

—The October number of *Free Russia* gives some account of a little book just published by H. Georg, at Geneva, which will be of special interest. It contains, besides various political matters, the letters that passed between Herzen and Turgeneff from 1849 to 1869. These letters throw a good deal of new light upon the personal attitude of Turgeneff towards the revolutionary movement in Russia, as well as upon his relations with Herzen and his journal, the *Kolokol*. It appears that about 1860-61 Turgeneff took a very considerable part in editing that journal, both furnishing and inspiring articles denunciatory of the Government, some of which went so far as to attack personally the Czar himself. In 1862 a difference arose between him and Herzen. Turgeneff wished to begin an agitation for a representative assembly of deputies gathered from all the provinces. Herzen disliked constitutionalism, and the difference widened till the two men severed all relations with each other. The final breach was caused (according to Prof. Dragomanoff, the editor of the volume) by personal weakness on the part of Turgeneff. What sort of personal weakness is meant we are not told, but any one familiar with the story of Turgeneff's proposed duel with Tolstoi may perhaps guess it. The book has an appendix containing an account of the relations of Turgeneff with Dostoyevsky, and some personal details about Turgeneff contributed by the editor. Unhappily for most readers, the book is published in Russian; it should be put into English, or French, as doubtless it will be.

—In the latest fascicule of the *Giornale Storico della Letteratura Italiana*, Renier and Luzio bring forward supplementary evidence of a new character to demonstrate that the 'Questio de aqua et terra,' so long attributed to Dante, is a sixteenth-century forgery. Unknown to the early biographers of and commentators on Dante, the 'Questio' first came to light in 1508, when it was published at Venice by Fra Benedetto Moncetti da Castiglione Aretino, who took the liberty of correcting Dante's handiwork "diligenter et accurate," according to the taste of the period. Little attention was paid to it at the time, and not until recently has it been reprinted with Dante's other works. As to its authenticity, scholars have been divided. Some, and with them a geologist of note, have maintained that Dante, upholding the proposition that the earth is everywhere higher than the surface of the sea, had so far penetrated into the secrets of nature as to divine several of the discoveries of later science—that of planetary attraction, among others; the opposing party finds that several of these revelations of genius were common to older writers, Brunetto Latini and Ristoro d'Arezzo, and that others are best accounted for by supposing that the 'Questio,' of which no manuscript is known to exist, was written shortly before its publication. As to the internal evidence, Renier and Luzio withhold their opinion, contenting themselves with publishing letters to and from Moncetti, and facts about him, that go far to make it antecedently probable that he would never have hesitated an instant to forge any document helpful to his ambitious projects. He was, it seems, greedy for high and lucrative church offices, which he eventually secured, and to obtain which he made a lavish use of dedicatory and congratulatory epistles. The 'Questio' is elaborately dedicated to Cardinal Ippolito d'Este, and is followed by numerous flattering poems of a certain Gavardi, his friend (and perhaps his sometime master), among them an epithalamium for the marriage of Alfonso d'Este with Lucrezia Borgia, whom he styles *sponsa pudica*. The accumulative evidence of trickery and wily flattery is not of course conclusive to prove the inauthenticity of the treatise, but it at least makes us resolve not to give Moncetti the benefit of many doubts in the trial by internal evidence.

STEPHENS'S ORATORS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The Principal Speeches of the Statesmen and Orators of the French Revolution, 1789-1795. Edited with introductions, etc., by H. Morse Stephens. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

WHAT is the essential difference between the Revolutionary eloquence of France and the Parliamentary speaking of England? This is a question raised and answered by the admirable treatise on French oratory which Mr. Morse Stephens has written as an introduction to his collection of orations delivered by Revolutionary leaders. The inquiry is, both from a literary and from an historical point of view, well worth consideration. The aim of this article is to set forth the answer either directly raised or immediately suggested by Mr. Morse Stephens's luminous analysis of the characteristics which marked the rhetoric or eloquence of France towards the end of the last century.

French eloquence is essentially a part of French literature:

> "The French people have as much cause to be proud of their orators as of their actors; for the qualities which make them preëminent on the stage are likewise indispensable to the statesman in the tribune and the preacher in the pulpit. . . . . A natural aptitude for speaking in public is supplemented by the use of a language peculiarly fitted for the turns and tropes of oratory, and by the systematic cultivation of the study of rhetoric. . . . Rhetoric as an art has always been sedulously cultivated in French schools and universities, and, while it has dropped out of the curriculum in most European countries, it has maintained its position in France as one of the most important branches of education."

These words of our author's, taken from a passage too long for complete quotation, but every line whereof is worth reading, contain the solution of the problem before us. The speeches published by Mr. Morse Stephens are nearly all of them elaborate literary productions; they differ in merit according to the varying talent of the different speakers, but they all belong rather to the world of letters than of politics. They were most of them read rather than spoken; they were written for publication; they are the work of the pen, not of the tongue; they tell of the closet and the lamp; they bear comparatively small traces of the readiness in repartee which belongs to debate, or of the cut and thrust which marks Parliamentary warfare. Still less are they

infected by that quarter-sessions style which gives an air of commonplace dulness to the debates recorded in Hansard.

Many circumstances tended to give to French eloquence a tone which was always rhetorical and frequently theatrical. But our author has called attention to one fact of supreme importance which has hitherto, as far as we are aware, not received among English critics of the Revolution anything like due attention. The statesmen or the Revolutionists who came to the front in the States-General, in the Legislative Assembly, or in the Convention were many of them endowed with the highest oratorical gifts; but, whatever their natural talents, they had before them no native models of political oratory. Since the reign of Louis XIV., the Ministers who governed France, the men really acquainted with the art of administration, had not studied, because they had no temptation to study, the art of addressing or of leading a popular assembly. Real administrative ability, or skilfulness in intrigue, might raise a man of talent to power; but, under Louis XIV. and his successors, political office was not gained by eloquence. In the pulpit, on the bench, at the bar, in the literary academies which were scattered over France, or on the stage, eloquence might lead to fame and riches. Hence French oratory was either the oratory of the pulpit, the oratory of the judgment-seat, or the oratory of the Academy or the theatre. The inevitable result of this condition of things was that the speakers who sought to guide or charm Revolutionary assemblies which had suddenly become possessed of supreme power, spoke like preachers, like magistrates, like advocates, like Academicians, or like actors, but, except where individual genius, as in the case of Danton, broke through the trammels of literary tradition, hardly ever spoke like debaters or statesmen. To this must be added the consideration that, just because statesmanship or administrative ability was not allied with knowledge of affairs or capacity for conducting either Parliamentary or, indeed, any other kind of government, the actual business of conducting France through a period of unexampled peril fell into the hands of committees who addressed the ruling assembly through lengthy reports.

Mr. Morse Stephens has not been able to lighten the infamy which has made the name of Barère a by-word for meanness and faithlessness. He has, however, explained how it happened that the most worthless of a gang of villains should exercise the influence undoubtedly possessed by the Gascon liar and traitor. The explanation is, that the fluent pen of a ready writer, who could at any moment express, in a style which met the taste of the day, the wishes of whatever party happened to be in power, was a necessity for administrators who were forced to communicate with an assembly by means of written documents. Barère wrote reports, just as some scoundrels write leaders, with absolute indifference to the morality or the expediency of the policy of which he was for the day the advocate. Here again we come round to the fact from which we started, that French eloquence, during the height of the Revolution, was a portion of French literature. No doubt at the time when Barère played a leading part, French letters, in common with French eloquence, were under a cloud. When the policy of the nation is determined by an appeal not to argument but to the guillotine, it is impossible that men should reason forcibly either in writing or in speech. Still, Barère's position shows how important was in his time literary as compared with rhetorical ability. Except in the press, Barère, or a man like Barère, but of ten-fold his ability, would have been useless either to Pitt or to Fox. Parliamentary statesmen are themselves the guides of Parliament. They do not need, in Parliament at least, the services of a fluent and a bombastic rhetorician.

Let us, however, remember that French eloquence has gained as well as lost by its predominantly literary character. The speeches edited by Mr. Morse Stephens are, like almost all orations, written or spoken, dull reading. An address composed to influence hearers can hardly ever be well suited to the taste of readers. It is common knowledge that the words of men who sway, and rightly sway, the passions or judgment of popular assemblies, when put down in writing neither excite the feelings nor convince the reason of readers. Still, the Revolutionary oratory of France reads better than one might expect, and, to do French speakers justice, we must recollect that the whole taste of the eighteenth century was rhetorical. Much of the declamation which Mr. Morse Stephens repeats, sounds nowadays stilted and absurd. It is hardly possible for the reader to understand how Louvet's indictment against Robespierre produced the immense effect which critics who heard it attribute to it. We can, however, partly understand Louvet's immediate success when we reflect that the charges he brought against Robespierre were, as the event proved, substantially true, and that the effect of declamation depends upon the way in which it is delivered. It is easy enough to believe that the rhetoric of Louvet and the eloquence of Vergniaud derived at least half their force from the mode of delivery. Declamatory harangues are not easy reading; still, the speeches of the French orators are speeches which, in the mouth of a great rhetorician, might, conceivably at least, produce a grand oratorical effect. Robespierre is a preacher, and a dreary preacher, but even his painful sermons are not always deficient in at any rate the possibilities of rhetorical power. Can any one say as much for nine-tenths of the speeches which load with their heaviness the unread and unreadable pages of Hansard?

The Parliamentary oratory of England, if, indeed, it can be called oratory, is, both in its defects and in its merits, the exact antithesis to the eloquence of France. It is deficient in anything of literary character. Let any one, for example, try to read passages from the speeches of Peel, of Lord Russell, or of Palmerston. He may find in them a good deal of historical interest; he may, if he reads between the lines, see in them marks of debating power; but no one would dream of considering the speeches of these statesmen as in any sense contributions to the literature of England. Names, no doubt, occur to one of here and there an orator who has left behind him spoken words of literary merit. There are speeches of Burke's which will be read as long as the English tongue endures; but then Burke, with all his immense genius, was not preëminently successful as a speaker. His speeches are read partly for the very reasons which, when the speeches were delivered, made them comparatively ineffective as orations. It may well be doubted whether of recent times any speaker, except John Bright, has produced speeches which will be found permanently readable. On the other hand, English oratory, with all its literary faults, has the virtues inherent in its Parliamentary character. Speeches which read badly enough as compositions are often, as any intelligent critic can see, admirably suited for their purpose. The purpose of a Parliamentary speaker is to be effective in debate. It may be true, as Mr. Morse Stephens more than once asserts, that a speech in Parliament never changes a vote, though we suspect the statement to be to a certain extent exaggerated. It is certainly true that speeches, both in Parliament and out of Parliament, do indirectly, if not directly, affect the power and position of political parties. No doubt success in debate does not mean the same thing as success on a division; but debating talent would not be cultivated if it were worthless. If a new Cromwell were to close the doors of Parliament and, unlike the Protector, keep them permanently closed, capacity for arguing before a Parliamentary audience would soon die out in England.

This capacity for debate is no trifle; it means something more than mere rhetorical deftness. It means a certain knowledge of human nature and a power of dealing with men, or at lowest with men of a certain class. A glance or two at Danton's speeches will show that Danton was a born debater. Place Danton's terse reply to Roland's report side by side with Robespierre's lengthy answer to Louvet's indictment. They both in substance deal with the same thing. Neither Danton nor Robespierre can really get rid of the terrible responsibility for the massacres of September. Still, Danton's answer appeals to feelings sure to weigh, and to a certain extent rightly, with every assembly. It would have been as effective, if delivered under like circumstances, at Westminster as it was at Paris. Robespierre's speech contains some effective points, and one or two of them are so unlike the ordinary manner of the speaker that it is impossible not to conjecture they may have been suggested by Danton. But, on the whole, Robespierre's apology is as weak as it is lengthy. It was apparently effective at Paris. It is hard even now to understand how the maudlin hypocrisy of his rhetorical tears over the fate of the "one" innocent man who may have perished in the massacres of September, failed to excite irrepressible indignation. Was it, after all, the force of Robespierre's arguments or the power of the Parisian mob which induced the Convention to pass to the order of the day?

The capacity for debate which is as undoubtedly possessed by many English Parliamentary speakers as it was undoubtedly wanting in most of the Revolutionary orators, does not relieve the reader of Hansard from a sense of unutterable weariness. If he wishes to do justice to English Parliamentary speaking, he must note its real merit, which has absolutely nothing to do with literary ability. The speeches which English Parliamentary leaders deliver are spoken by men who, as a rule, are more or less versed in business. Their language is the language of politicians who have been in office or who expect to gain office. Many, again, of the audience are persons versed in local business or in commercial affairs. Quarter sessions or a counting-house are not schools of oratory; but a great deal is learned there of which the members of the Revolutionary assemblies were ignorant. The essential difference, in short, between the eloquent rhetoric of the Revolutionary era and the humdrum speechifying of the House of Commons is that the one was the outcome of French literary training, the other is the product of Parliamentary habits. A Revolutionary style produces a Revolutionary tone of thought; a Par-

liamentary style produces a Parliamentary tone of feeling.

There is a very close connection between the oratory and the policy of the Revolution. At some future day we may point out to our readers some of the historical inferences suggested by Mr. Morse Stephens's book. It is a piece of excellent workmanship; it never should be out of the hands of any one who is studying the annals of the Revolution. On the present occasion it is enough to look at Mr. Morse Stephens's introduction as an essay on French eloquence. It is a charming essay in itself, and is specially interesting to any one who cares to work out the fundamental contrast between the French and the English type of character.

OLD ITALIAN MASTERS.

Old Italian Masters. Engraved by Timothy Cole. With historical notes by W. J. Stillman and brief comments by the engraver. The Century Co. 1892.

THIS reprint, in book form, of Mr. Cole's wonderful engravings from the old masters which appeared originally in the *Century Magazine*, makes a most interesting volume. It is interesting not only as the latest attempt at an elaborate series of renderings by engraving of the masterpieces of the Renaissance, but as the best that has been made, and as, perhaps, the last that is likely to be made. The very causes, apart from Mr. Cole's own talent, that have rendered such fidelity in copying possible are likely, henceforth, to render such copying superfluous.

Of Mr. Cole's talent or of the merit of these copies there can be no doubt. Mr. Cole is, in many qualities of his art, and those precisely the qualities most needful for the task he has undertaken, the first wood-engraver that ever lived. In delicacy, refinement, accuracy, subtlety of light and shade, beauty of tone, he has no equal. There have been engravers of more original force and vigor—engravers capable of a bolder and freer interpretation of nature or art—but never was an engraver so fitted by temperament and skill for the close and infinitely delicate copying of a work of art. To produce this work, however, it needed not only the man but the tool. The condition of the work was the development of modern wood-engraving, which, in its turn, is conditioned upon the development of photography. In Taine's phrase, "the *milieu* and the moment" were favorable to the production of the work. They are already beginning to be unfavorable to the production of such another.

Many of the older engravers upon copper and steel were artists of great power, but they had not been trained by photography to understand an accuracy of rendering essentially unfitted to their material, and they treated the pictures they engraved much as the earlier wood-engravers treated the drawing on the block, as material for the evolution of an independent work of art. As engraving much of their work is admirable, but as an aid to the study of the originals it is quite useless. Photography came and instructed the world, and a demand grew up for such reproduction of works of art as should give not only the composition of the original but its very touch. From this demand grew the modern art of wood-engraving, and wood-engraving as Mr. Cole practises it was, for a time, better than photography itself. Photography had very serious faults: yellow took black, and blue took white, and often the whole scheme of light and shade of a picture was thus completely disorganized. Photography had taught us to value accuracy of reproduction, but it was not itself accurate enough to supply the demand it had excited. This was the "moment" for such a work as Mr. Cole's. His engravings, at their best, are not only much more like their originals than any engravings that had ever been made, but they are, in some ways, more like than any ordinary photographs. Compare, for instance, his plate of the head of Botticelli's "Primavera" with the common photograph of the same head, and you will see at once the superiority of the former in light and the effect of color.

Wonderful as an interpretation may be, however, it is still an interpretation, and the student will prefer to use his own eyes and will distrust another's. We prefer, when we may, to read our art, like our literature, in the original. Even a bad photograph has this great advantage, that it has no personal equation; the page may be torn and blotted and hard to read, but it is not a translation; the statue may be mutilated, but it is not "restored." And photography has not stopped in its development. Within the last few years the orthochromatic process has been perfected, and photographs are now taken as marvellous in their rendering of tone and color-value as the first photographs were in their rendering of form, and as much beyond any hope of human rivalry. The day of the reproductive engraver is passing. Henceforth the sun will do our copying for us, and man cannot contend with Phœbus Apollo. The engraver must become an independent artist if he is to exist much longer. Therefore it is that we believe this book to be not only the best piece of work ever produced in its line, but to be the last very important piece of work in this line ever likely to be produced unless by the same hand.

Mr. Stillman's "Notes" are, of course, able and careful from the point of view of the archæologist and historian. As a critic his views are obviously colored by his extreme idealistic theories. He not only believes that the spirit is more than the form, and that imagination is better than naturalistic power, but he seems reluctant to find imagination in any work possessing anything like technical perfection. He has not only, in common with us all, an almost unbounded admiration for Giotto, but also a most hearty admiration for the smaller men that succeeded him. Orcagna he apparently places at the summit of art, "like Saul, head and shoulders above the crowd—great in all the great qualities of art." With Masaccio a marked coldness begins and increases to the end. Leonardo he thinks a realist, and considers him "the most luminous proof in the history of art that the really scientific and the completely artistic faculty do not coexist in one mind." Michelangelo he cannot help admiring, but he seems to do it grudgingly and to wish that the master had confined himself to sculpture, while he overlooks the most personal qualities of that artist, even as a sculptor, by calling the Pietà in St. Peter's "the most perfect of all his works." Raphael he finds "full of the graces that demoralize art," and he expresses his personal preference for "the earliest stage of his evolution" as shown in the "Madonna del Granduca." The great naturalistic schools naturally suffer still more. There is no word of praise for Titian except in the one phrase "the greatest of colorists," and no such word at all for Giorgione, while Veronese is only "the greatest of the decorative painters of the sixteenth century, *judged as decorator simply*," and Correggio meets with denunciation rather than praise.

Mr. Stillman maintains that there was no "return to nature" in the work of either Cimabue or Giotto, though his argument only tends to prove that they did not paint directly from nature, and not at all that they did not try to get more nature into their work than was to be found in Byzantine art. On the other hand, he can see in Masaccio only the initiator of that period of scientific and naturalistic research which followed him, and seems to miss altogether his peculiar merit, that of the man who, a hundred years before Raphael, prophesied the grand synthetizing style of that master. He seizes upon Dürer's remark that Bellini was still the best painter of Venice—Giorgione being dead and Titian more than forty-five years old—as a justification of his own judgment that Bellini "held the position in the school of Venice that Phidias did in that of Greece," without noting that Dürer's nature and training rendered him the most biassed of judges, and one who would inevitably decide in favor of the clear and finished work of Bellini as against the broader method of his successors.

"Later," says Mr. Stillman, "Giorgione and Titian revel in a far more complete abandonment to the fascinations of art and in the pursuit of 'art for art's sake,' just as in the Greek school Praxiteles and Scopas carried the triumphs of art, if not its refinements, to a stage beyond the Phidian. We give an intellectual adhesion to the preëminence of the Elgin marbles, but, in my opinion, every artist who is honest with himself says to himself that he enjoys the Hermes and the Venus of Milo more than the pediment of the Parthenon, just as he prefers the 'Sacred and Profane Love' to a masterpiece of Giovanni Bellini."

We have quoted this passage in full because it seems to us to show, more than anything in the volume, the errors into which a critic may be led by adherence to a theory; for almost any serious sculptor will tell us that he does *not* enjoy the Hermes more than the Parthenon marbles, and that precisely one of the things he most enjoys in the latter is the combination of ideal power with a magnificent *realism* (we insist upon the word) which is unequalled in any work, earlier or later, and which makes the Hermes, when compared with the Ilissus, look like a man of clay compared with a man of flesh and blood.

It is this same combination which marks the giants of the Renaissance, and Mr. Stillman's dislike of realism in any form blinds him to their noble ideal power and leads him to misjudge them. He will not allow that all progress in art has been made through the careful and *scientific* study of nature. Realism as an end is bad, but as a means it is invaluable. Genius is incommunicable, but when it comes, the better the tool it finds to its hand, the better the result. When the highest genius uses as its tool the most perfect technique, the true masterpiece is born, but there are always some who cannot see the genius for the very perfection of the technique, and who cry out for the work that seems to have greater meaning because it certainly has little else.

We will touch on a minor point or two. Mr. Stillman denies that Titian was a "pupil" of Giorgione, and, in the strict sense of that word, he is probably right; but we think he goes too far in denying any considerable influence of one upon the other, and in maintaining that everything characteristic of their art is derivable directly from Bellini. In this contention he seems to ignore the technical manner of painting. Either Giorgione or Titian,

or both of them, invented the modern method of painting, with heavy masses of color, called impasto. Bellini painted thinly to the end. The probability seems to be that Giorgione was the more precocious genius of the two, and first broke with the traditions of the school of Bellini and initiated the new method, and that the tradition is right that makes Titian his follower, if not, strictly speaking, his pupil. A misprint on page 216 makes Mr. Stillman put Perugino's death a hundred years too early, while a strange slip of the pen makes him speak of Louis XIV. as reigning in 1563 or thereabout. It is a pity that the generally chronological arrangement of the Notes should be disregarded in several instances, most unaccountably in that of the notice of Carpaccio, which is placed immediately after those of Lorenzo Lotto and Luini. To the careless reader this is likely to prove a stumbling-block. In the life of Veronese it is stated that when he came to Venice, in 1555, Tintoretto was "absorbed in his great undertaking at the School of St. Rochus"; yet in the life of the latter the date of the first competition for that work is given as 1560, and Veronese himself is stated to have been one of his competitors.

The "Notes by the Engraver" are full of a naïve charm, and, while not free from the vice of reading profound meanings into the blunders of early painters, often show a deeper sympathy with the artist discussed, not to say a truer insight into his methods, than do Mr. Stillman's more formal criticisms. In conclusion a word should be spoken for the wonderfully perfect printing of the blocks by Mr. De-Vinne, which is much in advance of what was always possible in the *Century*, and almost doubles the value of the work.

Favorite Flies and their Histories. By Mary Orvis Marbury. With many replies from practical anglers to inquiries concerning how, when, and where to use them. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MRS. MARBURY is a daughter of Mr. Orvis, a dealer in artificial flies, and the illustrations with which the book abounds are copies, lithographed in colors, of his handiwork. This and the constant references to the Orvis factory are likely to make a carping reader think the work was intended chiefly as an advertisement of the goods of this especial brand. There is, however, much of interest in the book, and Mrs. Marbury, when she writes herself, shows a familiarity with entomology and a love of nature that make one wish she had contributed more largely to the volume, and not confined herself to 50 or 60 pages. The other 400 and odd are chiefly made up of letters written to Mr. Orvis, in response to inquiries made by him, from anglers in all parts of this country, with regard to the kinds of flies used in the localities where they fished. As may be imagined, this disconnected mass of letters, though instructive to a limited extent, is not at all fascinating reading. Of the colored plates of flies there are about 300, which will give an idea of what a man should have to be thoroughly equipped for angling from the natural Orvis standpoint, assuming, of course, that the fly-book should contain an assortment of sizes of each kind. The fact is, that this great multitude of flies for any kind of fishing is the most arrant nonsense, as certainly two-thirds of them are so nearly alike that no trout, bass, or salmon could tell the difference. Pennell perhaps goes to the other extreme in claiming that half a dozen are sufficient, but his outfit on the whole would be about as satisfactory as, and infinitely cheaper than, the other.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. H. D. Warriors of the Crescent. Appletons.
Austen, Frances V. Elfie's Visit to Cloudland and the Moon. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Baker, Sarah S. Our Elder Brother: Thoughts for Every Sunday in the Year. Randolph. $1.50.
Barrie, J. M. A Holiday in Bed, and Other Sketches. New York Publishing Co.
Clark, Imogen. The Las' Day. Randolph. 60 cents.
Deland, Mrs. Margaret. The Story of a Child. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 24, 1892.

The Week.

OUR esteemed contemporary the *Times*, which at first opposed any extra session at all, but now sees some possible advantage in calling one in September or October, has overlooked one noteworthy fact. The McKinleyites, when they determined on their last attack on the consumers and taxpayers of the country, did not say, "We must not do this in the spring, and we cannot sit over it in the hot weather, and had we not better wait until the fall?" They held that for the kind of work they had in hand all seasons were good and no session too long. Accordingly they began to hatch their bill in January, 1890, and they introduced it April 16, opened the debate on it May 7, and passed it in the House May 21 (that is, in about twelve working days), passed it in the Senate September 10, and got it approved October 1. Not only did they sit waiting for it through the long heat of a Washington summer, but they got their Speaker to suspend the deliberative functions of the House, and convert himself into a prime minister charged with the carriage of party legislation. Now, if we are to have any reform in the system of fiscal oppression which these men have fastened on the country, we must be as prompt and courageous and determined in doing good as they were in doing evil. We must not fear either heat or cold any more than they did. We must not scorn delights and live laborious days any less than they did. We must not go into summer quarters, and let them refill their magazines and strengthen their defences at their leisure. If the McKinley Bill could be concocted in April and passed in May, so might the repeal or modification of the McKinley Bill. But we anticipate no such reckless haste as characterized the action of Reed's Congress. The necessary changes must be made decently and in order, and after proper deliberation—for, thank God, the House *is* still a deliberative body, Mr. Reed to the contrary notwithstanding. The *Dry Goods Economist* well observes on this point:

> "In point of fact, from three to six months would be inevitably consumed in formulating and discussing a new bill, if the details of the work are to be done by Congress; and even after the legislation had taken final shape, a further period of several months would be allowed to elapse before it would be put in force. In view of this fact, which any one familiar with the process of Federal legislation will confirm, there should obviously be no unnecessary delays in getting at the work."

Even supposing a complete revision of the tariff could not be made in the spring, consider what might be done in the way of commending tariff reform to the country, and restoring hope and confidence to industry in general by simply taking the duty off one article—wool. This would at once start one of our most important industries, the woollen industry, which has long been languishing, into renewed activity. Clothing, blankets, carpets—all prime necessaries of life—would promptly feel the effect of it. The shoddy mills would shut up with much cursing and execration of free-traders, but the poor man would get a coat whose cheapness and durability would, far from making him a "cheap man," increase his self-respect as well as his temperature, and he would go to sleep under a real woollen blanket, and not a McKinley cotton or shoddy simulacrum. The fraud of the McKinley Bill on the poor through their blankets alone contains moral guilt enough to fill one of the biggest penitentiaries in the country with malefactors. Now suppose the public had this experience of what tariff reform meant between April and December, who can doubt the encouragement it would give to the work of tariff reform when the ordinary session of Congress began, and the extent to which it would strengthen the confidence of the country in the Democratic party and in the new Administration? If this be true of wool, it would be, *à fortiori*, true of binding-twine and tin plate, the duties on which the Democratic House of the present Congress has tried to repeal. In short, three or four such bills, which could be readily passed in extra session, and which need no additional inquiry or consideration, would, as samples of the whole work to be done later, have an excellent effect on public opinion, besides giving sensible and immediate relief to interests which are suffering seriously from McKinleyism.

The wool and woollen schedule of the Mills Bill made wool free and woollen goods dutiable at 40 per cent. ad valorem. This was a higher rate of "compensatory" duty than the manufacturers themselves asked for when the tariff of 1867 was adopted. The rates in the McKinley Bill range from 50 to 150 per cent., which of course includes what is called compensation for the duties on wool. There is one thing certain in coming tariff legislation, and that is free wool. The Democratic party long since ceased to be frightened by the jack-o'-lantern of the political shepherds, and since they have practically lost Ohio in an election where the wool tariff was the most important issue, they have become a laughing-stock for the whole country. There is one reason why the wool tariff should be repealed at as early a day as possible. The price of wool in the London market has been greatly depressed since the passage of the McKinley Bill, and in consequence the foreign manufacturer of woollens has got his raw material at very low rates. This condition of things now prevails. The foreign manufacturer knows that there will be free wool and lower duties on woollens in this country within a measurable period of time. He knows, too, that when the wool duties are repealed and American manufacturers appear in the wool market on equal terms with himself, the price of wool will go up in consequence of the new demand for it. Obviously it is for the interest of the foreign manufacturer to accumulate as much wool and make as much cloth as possible in the interval, to be sent to this country when the tariff is lowered. The longer the change is postponed, the more advantage the foreigner will gain. If the Republicans want to save the woollen-manufacturers from this artificial and temporary disadvantage, they will do well to pass the Springer Bill, which is now in the keeping of the Senate Committee on Finance.

Secretary Rusk's annual report was evidently drawn up before the election, and has all the old cobwebs on it. He views imports with alarm, especially imports of raw materials that go to the building up of great industries. Overhauling the Custom-house returns, he finds "$40,000,000 worth of animal products, $67,000,000 worth of fibres, $27,000,000 worth of hides, $30,000,000 worth of fruits and wines, and $25,000,000 worth of raw silk"—all which articles could, he thinks, "with proper encouragement, be produced in our own country." One great blessing brought about by the result of the election is the fact that it is no longer necessary to treat such rubbish seriously. "Uncle Jerry" came back from Wisconsin in bitterness of spirit, confessing that "we were cleaned out." His report was among the things most thoroughly cleaned out, and will find its way to the paper-mills with rather greater celerity than its predecessors.

One looks in vain in the election returns for any trace of the effect which several great issues were counted upon to produce in the popular mind. There were Peck and his wonderful statistics, for example—what evidence can be found in the Republican vote that he induced anybody to turn to Harrison and Reid? Then there is the enormous pension expenditure by the Republican party, designed solely to consolidate the "soldiers' vote" for the party's ticket. Where are the traces of the "soldier vote" in the returns? Then there is the "American hog" issue. That was counted upon to win votes in the Western States; yet the two chief hog-raising and hog-packing States in the Union, Illinois and Ohio, went back completely on the Republican party, giving it the worst blows it received

anywhere. Finally, there were the "great Constitutional arguments" in defence of McKinley protection by George Ticknor Curtis. Is it possible that no man's vote was won by these? No trace of one can be found, but there are abundant evidences of thousands of votes repelled by some mysterious and all-powerful force, and it may be that Mr. Curtis supplied it.

We invite the attention of our Republican friends to the recent advance in wages in cotton-manufacturing at Lowell and elsewhere. The three following announcements have all been made since the election:

"At a meeting of the agents of the Lowell cotton-mills to-day it was decided to grant an increase, not to exceed 7 per cent., in the wages of the operatives, to take effect December 4."

"The Lonsdale Company and the firm of B. B. & R. Knight of Providence notified their employees to-day of an increase in wages, to go into effect December 5. The amount is not given out. This action will doubtless be followed by the other cotton-manufacturers in the State."

"The Blackstone Manufacturing Company, cotton manufacturers of Blackstone, Mass., will advance wages December 5. Prices have not yet been made known."

Now that the election is over and wages have begun to advance, the ears of some people may be open to the fact that cotton-manufacturing began in this country and prospered greatly before there was any such thing as a protective tariff. Samuel Slater began spinning cotton at Pawtucket, R. I., in 1790. The hundredth anniversary of his enterprise was celebrated at that place with much *éclat* two years ago. Under high tariff, under low tariff, and under no tariff has this mill gone on without interruption or cessation. And now, in the one hundred and second year of the industry, just after an election that was to bring bankruptcy on owners and misery on operatives if Cleveland should be elected, there is an advance in wages of 5 to 7 per cent. Is it not astonishing? Well, not very. The astonishing thing is that there should be so many people who read but one side of any political question, and yet think they know all about it. Such people will be equally surprised to read the following Associated Press despatch of November 17:

"The Stewart wire plant in South Easton, which recently passed into the hands of the reorganized Stewart Wire Company, will next week start up on double shift, employing twice as many hands as it did a year ago. The number of wire machines has been increased from 100 to 150. A large building, idle for many years, has been taken by the company and made a part of its plant."

The question of wages, we are constrained to add, is one of very great complexity. It was a common saying, during the last campaign and during several previous ones, that a reduction of the tariff would bring wages down to the European level. But what is the European level? We all know that English wages are generally higher than Continental wages, yet that does not prevent England from competing successfully with the Continent in manufacturing. It does not prevent French, German, and Russian manufacturers from begging their governments for protection against England. But suppose we leave England out altogether, and ask what is the level of Continental wages to which we must subject our workingmen if we do not protect their employers by tariffs. In 1887 our State Department made some investigations into the subject of Emigration and Immigration, and published a book of over 700 pages under that title. By way of showing what were the impelling causes of European emigration, inquiries were made as to the rates of wages, and the fact was brought out that wages differ in Prussia, for example, by as much as 100 per cent. in places not far removed from each other and where there is entire freedom of personal movement. We quote from page 35 of this report:

"Not only do east and northwest Germany differ from each other up to 150 per cent. (compare, for instance, Oppeln and Stade), but the average wages of even the little Thuringian capital exceed those of the neighboring mountain village by 100 per cent., and one town often exceeds the next by so much. Froessen and Goerkwitz, for instance, two villages in the principality of Reuss (Younger Line) differ by precisely 100 per cent. in the day wages for female laborers. To construct a 'normal rate of wages' which should satisfy 'them of Froessen' as well as 'them of Goerkwitz' is probably beyond the skill of any social-democratic conjurer."

It is an odd coincidence, and a sarcastic reflection on the wages-tariff argument in this country, that the German manufacturer asks for protection against the *higher* wages paid in Great Britain. He says: "How can we compete with the Englishman when he can afford to pay 25 or 50 per cent. more wages than we do?" With the high wages, the Englishman obtains the services of a superior class of workmen, and so undersells his German competitor; and this rule holds good all over the world, and always will.

When the tariff-reforming begins, whether at once with the help of repentant Republicans or after the 4th of next March without that help, we hope that one of the things that will be "reformed altogether" is the tariff upon works of art. The tariff on wool and the tariff on tin are barbarous and unenlightened enough, but neither the one nor the other is so utterly savage as the tariff on art. Even McKinley admitted that that tax ought to come off, but the Republican Senate could not agree with the Republican House as to one of the few good things which that House proposed to do, and so our citizens are still paying 15 per cent. ad valorem for the privilege of helping in the education and civilization of their countrymen. The last three Presidents of the United States have recommended the abolition of this tax, a Democratic and a Republican Ways and Means Committee have each proposed the abolition of it, the artists of the country have again and again demanded it, but there the silly thing still is. Now that the country has proclaimed its intention to have a reformed tariff, and proclaimed it loudly enough for all to hear, may we not hope that at last the most stupid tax upon the list will be cleared away, and that we may cease to blush for it before the world?

McKinley's international reputation is now entering upon a new phase, which raises a serious question for all patriotic Americans. When he was hated and feared among all civilized nations, it was our obvious duty, of course, to bow before him as a miracle of wisdom and benevolence, and let him walk over us to his heart's content. But now he has become an object of world-wide and inextinguishable laughter. Whenever anybody starts up with some mad economic proposal, like Mr. Lowther's crazy plan to revive the Corn Laws in England, he is told that he is posing as a McKinley—that is to say, as a solemn charlatan who is fated to complete exposure and repudiation. In fact, the name of McKinley is now the occasion for the most ribald and brutal ridicule among foreigners. What obligation does this devolve upon us? There must be some urgent duty for Americans to be inferred from this pronounced sentiment of other nations. What ought a man's compatriots to do when the whole world is making fun of him? We refer the question to Mr. Depew, who ought to be a great authority on victims of general scorn and mockery.

The Homestead strike is formally declared "off" by the Amalgamated Association, which is the organization responsible for starting it. There had been so many breaks in the ranks of the men that the leaders could no longer hold them, and the decision was forced upon them. The men have lost wages to an amount estimated at $2,500,000, and many of them have lost their old places besides. They have also strengthened the public distrust of all labor organizations, and thus given a blow to the cause of "labor" which they professed to have at heart.

The lawless and barbarous treatment of the steerage passengers on the steamship *Weimar* at Baltimore by the Treasury authorities continues. Of all the belongings of the present discredited Administration, the Treasury Department is the most discredited. Mr. Foster's branch of the service is more so than Mr. Wanamaker's because its capacity for mischief is greater. It omits few opportunities to make itself odious, but in no case has it behaved with greater contempt for the law, or greater indifference to the sufferings of innocent people, than here. If there were any society for the protection of immigrants as vigilant as the Indian

Rights Association, Mr. Foster and his subordinates would have been sued as individuals before this time for their high-handed proceedings. We suppose that the North German Lloyd Company is deterred from bringing suit by the power that these officials have to work them injury in other ways and places between now and the end of their little brief authority. That fact, however, need not intimidate them longer than the 4th of March. Every person owes it to the community to assert his own rights when they are trampled on, so as to deter other officials from repeating the offences. A judgment for damages against Foster, Spaulding, and their subordinates would be a wholesome warning to their successors in years to come.

It is only because we have got so used to the spectacle in this city of gross and conspicuous unfitness in office, that the proposal to send Mr. Edward Murphy to the United States Senate has had as much success as has thus far attended it. How it is that Mr. Richard Croker, who has of late displayed a certain shrewdness touching the standing of Tammany Hall in the Democratic party, and has the reputation of being a good, kind "boss," should have allowed Murphy to be "slated"—for even United States Senators in this State are now "slated," not elected—for the Senatorship, is one of the mysteries of Tammany politics which we do not profess to be able to solve. Nothing could well be more damaging to Tammany's reputation with the country at large than the appearance of Mr. Murphy in the Senate from Mr. Cleveland's own State. An odder way of "supporting Cleveland" could hardly be hit upon. The Senator from New York, elected immediately after the Presidential election by the victorious party, ought to be the President's right-hand man, his mouthpiece in the Senate and organ of communication with the leading committees. He ought to share the President's views, be able to expound his policy and defend his acts, or, in other words, be a man of weight, influence, and authority wherever he makes his appearance, and especially a man agreeable to the President, and on friendly if not intimate terms with him. We will say nothing here of what the Senators from New York have been and ought to be, if the influence of the State, as the richest and most populous in the country, is to be maintained in Washington, and especially if its great business interests, commercial and industrial, are to be properly looked after in Congress. We are now looking at the matter solely from the party standpoint. Tammany found out at Chicago last June how the country at large feels towards it, and it can hardly, after its experience there, flatter itself that its position will be improved by sending a Murphy to Washington to reinforce a Hill. To examine Mr. Murphy's qualifications for the place would be a waste of labor. He would doubtless himself consider an analysis of them an elaborate joke. One Senator of the type is surely enough to satisfy the worst enemy of State pride and respectability. Two would seem to be wasteful and ridiculous excess.

A movement has been started in Kansas for the division of the State into two new commonwealths by a north-and-south line. It finds its chief support in the fact that the east and west parts of Kansas are opposed to each other politically, the east being in the control of the Populists and the west of the Republicans; but it is also urged that the interests and wants of the two sections are so different that one Government cannot satisfy both. In area Kansas is a good deal larger than the whole of New England, but its population is not much greater than the combined populations of Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. It is growing steadily, however, and each of two new States in its present territory would probably have a million people early in the next century. It is not at all likely, however, that the present talk about division will come to anything. The Constitution provides that "no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State without the consent of the Legislature of the State concerned, as well as of the Congress." It will, therefore, be necessary to secure a majority in favor of the scheme not only in the Kansas Legislature, but in each branch of Congress, and it remains to be seen whether its advocates can carry even the Legislature.

The announcement that the present English Government regards the International Monetary Conference as purely "a deliberative body," with no power to bind any country represented to any action whatever, is no news to anybody, but serves as a fresh indication, coming on the eve of the Conference, that it will simply go over the old dreary debate again without arriving at any agreement. The English case, and, indeed, the case of the leading nations in Europe, is powerfully stated in an article in the last number of the *Investors' Review*. One of its strongest points is that "the whole world is at present the debtor of England, France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and most of all the debtor of England and France." By what possible process of mystification could those countries be led to take payment of their just dues in bad money? The writer of the article asks a question which goes to the vitals of the whole business when he inquires: "In sober earnest, can these bimetallists point to a single country at this present hour which, able to pay for more currency, wants it, or to one which, lacking what it needs, is able to pay for it?" He accurately reflects, no doubt, the common English opinion of the Conference when he says:

> "The innocent metal silver is to be made to bear the odium of all our woes in many a sounding harangue and declamatory appeal. And yet we look down on the Israelites because they worshipped the golden calf! Well, at least their calf was gold. They did not bow the head and bend the knee to the baser silver cow and call on it to save them, when bereft of the brick-making industry."

The general election in England has been productive of some ten or eleven election petitions, several of which are now on trial before judges of the High Court. In each case the trial takes place in the constituency concerned, witnesses are called on both sides, and the procedure is like that of an ordinary Assize Court trial, except that there is no prisoner in the dock. The member whose seat is assailed is in the position of the defendant, and has to rebut the case which is brought against him by his political opponent. There seems to be no petition in which a Tory is claiming a Gladstonian Liberal seat. All the claimants are defeated Liberals who, on various grounds, allege that their defeats were brought about by unfair methods. It is doubtful whether there has ever been a general election which was not followed by several petitions in connection with cathedral constituencies. Cathedral constituencies still have the reputation of being corrupt, and if the allegations which are being made against the return of Tory members for Rochester and Lichfield are substantiated, this reputation will continue to attach to the smaller cathedral cities. The loss of the seat at Rochester in July was an unlooked-for reverse to the Gladstonians, as it was one of the seats which they had carried at the bye-elections. At Lichfield, Sir John Swinburne, Mr. Richard Chamberlain's father-in-law, was defeated by only five votes in a poll of over 12,000. In this case the slender majority had much to do with the petition.

The despatches from France show that the Government has determined to have a thorough judicial inquiry into the scandals connected with the collapse of the Panama Canal Company. Before the extraordinary scene in the House on Monday it was felt that the Cabinet must do something to divert public attention from its embarrassments in connection with labor troubles and anarchistic threatenings, with the Swiss treaty, and with colonial matters. After M. Delahaye's startlingly direct if impersonal charges, there was nothing left but to make a rigid investigation into the whole Panama swindle. The first legal step to be taken is prosecution of prominent administrators of the Company, including Count de Lesseps himself, and many if not all of the contractors, for malversation and fraud. It will be sought to prove that millions of francs were given to newspapers and politicians, and that the contractors were allowed to steal right and left.

MR. CLEVELAND AND TAMMANY.

THE Brooklyn *Eagle* has done the public a genuine service by a piece of indiscretion. It has blurted out what passed at that famous dinner at which Mr. Cleveland met the Tammany chiefs, and at which, according to his enemies, he sold himself body and soul to "the organization" in return for a pledge of support at the Presidential election. We have no hesitation in saying that the belief in this story cost him fully 10,000 votes in this city, besides causing many disgusted Republicans who voted for him a good many pangs of conscience. There are, too, among the lewd Democrats of the baser sort, many who confidently believe that as soon as Mr. Cleveland takes office he will, in accordance with his pledges, hand over the Post-office and Custom-house in this city to Mr. Richard Croker, to be disposed of according to Tammany rules of distribution.

The true version of what passed between Mr. Cleveland and the Tammany leaders has long been known to us. We have known all along that the revelation of what passed at that dinner would reflect increased credit on Mr. Cleveland's character. We have never thought it necessary to reveal it, however, even if we had felt at liberty to do so. To have made it the basis of an attack on Tammany we should also, we admit, have considered very injudicious on the eve of an election, because we have never been able to assimilate the great doctrine, which the Republicans formulated after Mr. Blaine's defeat, that bad men should not be allowed to support a good ticket. We believe, on the contrary, that the worse a man is, the more desirable it is to get him, by honorable means, to do a good thing. In a democracy it is impossible to obtain references as to character from voters, or to make up parties composed solely of the pure and good. A political party is not a church or social club. People have to be let into it without references. The one duty a good party man owes to a bad one is not to bribe or mislead him, and not to chase him away from the polls by insult or abuse.

But the main reason for keeping silent about Mr. Cleveland's alleged pledges to Tammany was that a defence of him against such a charge, by any one who respects him as much as we do, would inevitably have the air of an imputation, on the well-known principle that excuses are accusations. Mr. Cleveland has in his career, and especially in his tariff message and silver letter, *a priori* protection of the strongest kind against all accusations of bargain-making in order to obtain the Presidency. He has already furnished the strongest possible proof of his unwillingness to seek the Presidency in any way. The two acts of his life which, in the opinion of all politicians, did most to make his renomination and reëlection difficult or impossible, were not forced on him. They were voluntary acts. The notion that a man who committed them, with his eyes open to their probable consequences, would subsequently sit down and, in order to obtain the prize which these acts had put away from him, make pledges which would degrade him for ever in the eyes of all who had ever honored and admired him, was, in our eyes, too absurd to need refutation.

To the question why did Tammany then support Mr. Cleveland so enthusiastically, if it was not to get the kind of reward which Tammany most values—namely, offices and power, particularly after it had so strenuously opposed his nomination—the answer is very easy. Those who ask it apparently class Tammany with the Barnburners or the Conscience Whigs, who bolted under the solemn obligation of patriotic conviction. Tammany opposed Mr. Cleveland at Chicago because it did not like him, but it supported him because its present managers are far shrewder men and take longer views than John Kelly. They want to maintain their standing in the Democratic party, and get a hearing and have some influence in future national conventions, particularly now that New York is ceasing to be a pivotal State. This would be impossible if they kept on "knifing" or defeating every candidate who, against their opposition, had secured the required majority in the Convention. If, after what happened in 1888, another Democratic nominee had been overthrown through their treachery, they would have had very great difficulty indeed in getting a chance to be heard and to vote at Presidential conventions hereafter, and any such exclusion from the national party councils could not but tell on the power and permanency of the organization in this State and city.

It is as certain as anything of the kind can be that Mr. Cleveland takes office with fewer pledges, with less sense of obligation, to any person or society or club, than any President who has entered the White House within the memory of living men. He will decide on his own policy and select his own advisers and do his own thinking without outside assistance, and put up with such honest criticism as all this may call forth. But we are quite sure he would be the last man to suppress, even if he had the power, the innocent journalistic amusement of making Cabinets and distributing great offices of state, which usually goes on between the election and the 4th of March. During this period large numbers of our fellow-citizens live in an ideal world, and award honors of every description in accordance with their own ideas of abstract justice and eternal fitness, and we feel satisfied that they are all the better prepared to meet the stern realities of life by this little excursion into Elfland.

THE OBJECTIONS TO AN EXTRA SESSION.

THE plan of an extra session of Congress in April, to make a beginning of the business called for, or, in truth, commanded by, the late election, has received more or less discussion during the past week, and has, on the whole, been favorably received by the press. On looking through the papers to find what are the objections to it, we really find only one that merits serious consideration, and that is that an extra session is very unusual, and is viewed by members of Congress with disfavor, inasmuch as it carries them to Washington for what seems extra work, for which they get no additional pay.

The answer to this is, that the long interval between the election and the meeting of Congress, in the first year of the Presidential term especially, is an acknowledged defect in our system. The most unusual thing in our whole governmental machine is the length of this interval. No other representative government exhibits such an anomaly. In every one of our States the newly elected Legislature meets almost immediately after the election, ordinarily within two months. In England, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, the same rule is followed, and it is a rule based on principles both of business and of human nature. The time for legislators to begin work which the constituencies have declared to be necessary, is as soon as possible, and the situation of legislators in this respect is the same as that of all other trustees, agents, and employees. We venture to assert that the members of the American House of Representatives are the only paid agents in the world who get their appointment one year, and draw their salaries for nine months, before they do any work. Moreover, of all trustees the political trustee is the one who, from the very nature of his task, is most firmly held to prompt action. The exact things he has to do cannot be put down in black and white in any mandate or commission. He has to have great freedom of hand, great largeness of discretion, because he has to act in concert with a great many other men, representing different localities, and has to put into shape hopes, desires, and aspirations which his constituents can communicate to him only in a vague and nebulous form, or roughly in the shape of general principles. It is therefore of the last importance that he should go to work fresh from his intercourse with them, fresh from the discussions which have roused their ardor and formulated their grievances.

Bearing all these things in mind, it will be most unfortunate if no attempt to embody in legislation the great change of policy ordered by the people a fortnight ago can be made until December, 1893. For in that interval all the arts of persuasion through which the protectionists have been successful during the last twenty-five years, in luring on Congress after Congress to raise the tariff higher and higher, until it culminated in the McKinley monstrosity, will be brought to bear on the Con-

gressmen whom we have just elected. They will be cajoled, intimidated, confused, if not worse. The manufacturers will fill the air with rumors of industrial disaster, actual or impending. They will close fictitious mills and foundries, and dismiss bogus workmen by the dozen every month in all their newspapers. Every bankrupt will swear that his failure was due to Cleveland's election, and every drone and incapable driven out of business by the fear of healthy competition will ascribe his breakdown to the same cause. The worst of it is, too, that these wailings and predictions will derive an air of plausibility from the business depression or inactivity which is sure to accompany a long period of uncertainty, and the final result will be that when Congress meets in December, 1893, it will find itself an already distrusted if not discredited body. The memory of the great victory of 1892 will have grown dim, and the confidence of the members in the judgment then formed will have grown weaker, and possibly the attention of the public will, by some unexpected occurrence, have been drawn away temporarily from the tariff altogether.

The extra session is a remedy provided by the Constitution for any danger or inconvenience that may arise from the great length of the Congressional recess. The power of calling one is intended to be used on "extraordinary occasions." No more "extraordinary occasion" has arisen since the war than this recent reversal of our tariff policy. It behooves us to deal with it promptly; and since the ordinary session of a new Congress does not begin when all sensible men acknowledge that it ought to begin, we must use the extra session to meet the emergency. That Congressmen do not like extra sessions is, as we have said, natural enough. Salary without work is sweet to the best of us; but the nation is entitled, if necessary, not simply to six months per annum of the Congressman's time, but to the whole year if the public business requires it, so that the objection of inconvenience is really as futile as the argument of unusualness.

It only remains to notice the argument that we ought not to have an extra session because we ought not to "act hastily" in so serious a matter as the reform of the tariff, and because various Republican politicians and newspapers are urging us to have it called. The first of these is based on the assumption that in order to avoid acting hastily, we must not act at all, or, in other words, that there is no way of escaping over-exertion but sitting still. The truth is, that it is because hasty action is objectionable that we ought to begin work as soon as possible. We need all the time there is in order to revise the tariff properly, and, therefore, to pass nine months in sheer idleness, or in distributing offices, would look like criminal waste.

The second, that we must not do what the *Tribune* and Mr. Depew would like, or say they would like, to have us do, is a relic of that immense silliness of the McKinley economists under which we were to see what the foreign newspapers wished us to do in our domestic affairs, and then do the exact opposite. This, of course, would in practice be tantamount to allowing foreigners to control our policy. The foreigners are not such dunderheads as not to discover our system easily, and then they would simply have to preach against what they desired of us, in order to get us to supply it to them. To be guided in one's political or business conduct by finding out what course some foolish person, who dislikes us, and whom we dislike, would wish us to follow, and then *not* follow it, no matter how much it may commend itself to our judgment, has an air of the kindergarten about it which really exempts grown men from any elaborate discussion of it. The Reids, Depews, and Lodges naturally desire an extra session because they feel confident that the Democrats will blunder over the tariff in any session whatever, extra or ordinary, and, believing this, they naturally wish the blundering to begin as soon as possible. But the majority of the voters evidently do not agree with these gentlemen. They think the Democrats will not blunder, and for this reason wish them to begin reforming as soon as possible.

WHO ARE "GOOD AMERICANS"?

THE Republican orators and writers all over the country are, with one or two exceptions, such as Senator Hawley, taking their defeat in a very sensible manner. They seem to have at last waked up to the fact that no man is "a good American" who believes that more than one-half of the voters are so ignorant or so depraved that their triumph at the polls would mean the industrial and political ruin of the country; that the Constitution of the Union is so frail a thing that, like the Napoleonic Constitution in France, only one party can be trusted to maintain and defend it, and that among 65,000,000 of people nobody understands finance and taxation and the conditions of national prosperity except a handful of manufacturers and the handful of Congressmen from whom they procure protective legislation. All these amazing propositions have, however, during the past ten years formed the basis of the Republican claim to a continued hold on the Administration. The Republican contention in 1884 was that the election of a Democratic President would in some mysterious manner, and with the consent and approbation of the majority which elected him, result not only in the closing of all the mills and furnaces, but in literally looting the Treasury by the payment of sums on account of "rebel claims" amounting, according to the *Tribune*, to more than $3,000,000,000, or about the cost of the late war. The contention in 1888, after Mr. Cleveland's first term, was that, although it had to be admitted that he had refrained from paying the Southern claims and the rebel debt, yet he would certainly have closed the mills and furnaces if he had not been prevented by a Republican Senate; and this, combined with more or less "soap," was undoubtedly instrumental in causing his defeat in that year.

During the last four years this view of the probable consequence of a Democratic triumph has been put forward with renewed emphasis, but with the addition that not only do the Democrats know nothing about finance, or taxation, or the conditions of national prosperity, but the bulk of the Republican voters know nothing either. The McKinley Bill was defended on the stump in 1890 by all the Republican chiefs on this very ground. They said that the reason it was disliked, even by Republicans, was that the people did not understand it, and would not understand it for about two years; or, in other words, that the McKinleys, Reeds, and Lodges were so much wiser than the masses of American citizens that the latter had to take from them, blindly and on trust, measures seriously affecting all their material interests, their trade, industry, and domestic consumption. So that, what with Democratic ignorance and wickedness and Republican ignorance and simplicity, there seemed to be nobody left fit to conduct the American Government except a small group of gentlemen who had never given any proofs of extraordinary ability of any description except in the electioneering field. Before the McKinley Bill, nobody had ever heard of Messrs Harrison or Reed or McKinley or Lodge as economists and financiers of such commanding and conspicuous talent that whatever they said about commerce or industry would be questioned only by fools or knaves. This was, however, substantially the position taken by Speaker Reed when he abolished the deliberative functions of the House and converted it into an executive chamber, charged simply with the passage as quickly as possible of bills drafted by himself and his cronies in a committee room.

The election of 1890 was a solemn warning to this little clique that the American people were not disposed to acquiesce in the claims of these gentlemen to quasi-supernatural wisdom, and that they had better give others some credit for knowledge and patriotism. But they did not heed the warning in the least, and went on the stump this year with a full assortment of the horrors that would follow inattention to their opinions. No more melancholy account of the prospects of any country on the eve of a peaceful election was ever given than their account of the prospects of the American Republic in case Mr. Cleveland was elected, *i. e.*, in case the majority of the American people refused to take their advice. Senator Hawley, for instance, "plunged us into chaos on all questions of tariff and currency," "without compass or North

Star." Mr. Whitelaw Reid "overshadowed the land with disaster and unhappiness," and Mr. Chauncey Depew not only accused us of "consummate folly" if we elected Mr. Cleveland, but threatened us with "ruin" and "paralysis of business."

Now, the lesson of the day which we are glad to see these wise men are taking to heart—for they are one by one admitting that their wails were all what the boys call "poppycock"—is that talk of this kind is talk in which no man calling himself a "good American" ought to indulge. No man who really loves his country and believes in her future, and in the capacity of her people for self-government, ought to give forth such pictures as these of her condition to the world at large. No popular government, based on universal suffrage, could last many years which was in danger of "ruin," "chaos," and "paralysis" whenever the body of the people refused to listen to the advice of a small knot of wealthy gentlemen of, as far as the world can see, very moderate abilities. These amazingly vain and foolish predictions ought to be left to barroom politicians. They ought not to be produced on the stump by legislators and candidates for high office. They lower the country in the eyes of foreigners—a consideration which surely ought to appeal to people who ask us in every canvass to see what the London *Times*, and the *Economist*, and the Liverpool *Echo*, and the Cobden Club say before we cast our votes. The country, as a political corporation, is composed in the main of sensible business men. The majority who voted for Cleveland is not made up, as Mr. Henry C. Lea would have us believe, of knaves and dupes in equal proportions. If it were so, the outlook for the human race would be sorrowful indeed. Democrats do not live by fraud or robbery or on bananas and yams any more than Republicans. They live either by American wages or American capital. They are interested as much as Republicans in the success of American investments and in the productiveness of American labor. The notion that either through ignorance or wickedness they are likely to embark on courses that will "overshadow the land with disaster and unhappiness," if honestly held, would indicate a want of faith in democracy which it would be difficult to discover nowadays anywhere outside the palace of the Sultan or of the Czar.

THE PROBLEM OF SECTARIAN SCHOOLS

It was expected that the "school question" would play a decisive part in the elections in Wisconsin and Illinois this year, but the anti-protection wave rose to such an unexpected height in both those States that no one can say the Republicans might have carried them but for the Lutheran disaffection. Secretary Rusk and Senator Cullom have had to admit that the attitude of their party in the matter of parochial schools accounts only in part for its defeat. Yet there can be no question that the school controversy in the States mentioned took on an important political bearing, and this fact, together with the apparent breakdown of Archbishop Ireland's compromise plan at Faribault, and the recent meeting of the Catholic Archbishops with a messenger of the Pope's in this city principally to discuss the relation of parochial schools to the State, makes a review of the situation a matter of present interest.

It has been somewhat hastily assumed by the *Educational Review* that the main offence of the Bennett Law in Wisconsin, and the corresponding statute in Illinois, was the provision for compulsory instruction in English. It says: "The question at issue with these German-speaking Catholics and Lutherans is, whether the American commonwealths shall or shall not pass and enforce a law that every child must receive an elementary education in the English language." Doubtless there has been and still is a great reluctance on the part of some Lutheran parents and pastors to see their children learning English speech and American ways, and so tending to escape from the control of their church. But it was not this which made them so bitter against the Bennett Law. There had previously been statutes making attendance on public schools compulsory, and also teaching in English compulsory. But section 2 of the Bennett Law practically put parochial schools under the control of local school-boards and county superintendents, and this it was which aroused both Lutherans and Catholics to resent what they thought an unwarrantable interference of the State with the rights of parents and churches. So that the question, after all, is only a part of the larger one of the general relations of the State to sectarian schools.

If the recent political history of Wisconsin and Illinois shows that the supporters of parochial schools will fight against State control, it is just as stubborn a fact that the majority of the people in the country as a whole, and in every State, will, on the other hand, oppose State aid to these schools. This is a fact which those Catholics who are coming more and more openly to demand, as a right, a part of the State school fund for their parish schools, may as well make up their minds they have to reckon with. They may say that it is all an unreasoning prejudice, but they must admit that it is a most tangible and formidable prejudice, one which is certain to endure for many years to come, and to block any attempt they may make to secure State grants for their church schools. We freely admit that, from their point of view, there is much to be said for their contention that they are suffering injustice. We have read many of the addresses and appeals which they have put forth on the subject, and have been struck by the sincerity and thorough conviction with which they argue against being taxed to support institutions which they regard as dangerous to the eternal welfare of their children. Nor are we insensible to the almost incredible and heroic self-denial with which they, in their poverty, have endeavored to provide, independent of the State, a Catholic education for their youth. But, when all is said, there is no reason to expect that they will ever succeed in getting the State to support their schools.

Nor is there any good reason to desire that they should succeed. We believe the principle of entire separation of Church and State to be the only wise and safe one for this country to adopt. If it has been violated in the interest of Protestants, that is a reason for putting a stop to such violation, not for encouraging another one in the interest of Catholics. If one sect is to get favors from the State, so must another, and soon all government would be nothing but a confused and endless sectarian warring. For this reason it is a matter of congratulation that an effort has been made to break up an alliance between the Federal Government and the denominational Indian schools. The Methodist Church was the first, we believe, to pronounce against the policy of grants from the National Treasury for such schools, and to declare its intention of taking no more. A similar determination, we understand, was arrived at in the recent Episcopal Convention. This is most encouraging, and marks, we hope, a reviving sense of the fundamental place and value in our system of the independence of Church and State.

What, then, is to be done with the parochial schools? And is there no way by which the Catholics can be reconciled to the public-school system? It is precisely because the Catholics are so tenacious of their present position, and the people so stubborn in defence of the system of public schools as it is, that we have considered Archbishop Ireland's plan of establishing a *modus vivendi* between the two as really statesmanlike. In its application at Faribault it appears to have received a temporary check through a union between extreme Catholics and extreme Protestants, though this is by no means certain: the new School Board may not, after all, undo what has been done. Certainly the plan worked well for a time, if we may believe what Mr. John Conway, the editor of the Catholic *Northwestern Chronicle*, wrote of it in the October *Educational Review*. He said:

"It is sustained by a splendid public opinion in the town of Faribault itself. No clergymen of any denomination in that town are opposed to it; Faribault's three newspapers support it; the teachers in the school like it; the parents are pleased with the progress made by the pupils; the members of the School Board are enthusiastic over the arrangement. A most intelligent member of the School Board told the

writer that the children made greater progress in secular branches during the past year than ever before in the same period."

This plan, moreover, has the immense advantage of meeting the approval of the Propaganda at Rome. The famous decision *tolerari potest* is only the canonical way of saying "fully allowed." It is, by implication, an acknowledgment by the Holy See of the right of the State to control education, while it furnishes a working basis of agreement between Protestants and Catholics. We cannot believe so broad and statesmanlike a plan, with such high ecclesiastical sanction, will be allowed to fail for lack of further trials. It has in it the promise of satisfying both parties to the controversy, provided they are willing to make unimportant concessions, and of leading to a permanent conciliatory arrangement which will take a troublesome question out of public discussion. The resolutions adopted by the Archbishops, given out on Saturday last, certainly look like a guarded endorsement of Archbishop Ireland's plan, and a willingness to see it extended.

HENRI DE VIRIEU.

PARIS, November 10, 1892.

THE Marquis Costa de Beauregard has published already several volumes relating to the history of his own family, an old family of Savoy, long devoted to the Dukes of Savoy, and which has become French since the annexation of that province to France after the battle of Solferino. 'Un Homme d'autrefois' was the dramatic history of the grandfather of the present Marquis. 'La Jeunesse du Roi Charles-Albert' and 'Les Dernières Années du Roi Charles-Albert' gave the whole biography of the father of Victor Emmanuel. 'Le Roman d'un Royaliste sous la Révolution' is the history, not of a Costa, but of Comte de Virieu, one of the men who, after having first espoused the cause of the French Revolution, became its victims. The name of Virieu is chiefly known in France since the time when Lamartine became the intimate friend of a Virieu and dedicated to him some of his immortal poems. The book of the Marquis Costa is dedicated to the present Marchioness of Virieu, who is a daughter of the Duc de Noailles.

The family of Virieu is a very ancient family of Dauphiné. Henri de Virieu was born on the 5th of April, 1754. His father died when he was four years old; his mother was living in Paris while he was brought up in Dauphiné on the family estate at Pupetières. His mother died suddenly; her friend, the Duchess of Rohan, promised to replace her with her son. She sent for him, and had him placed in the Collège d'Harcourt, which was at the time the school of the children of the highest nobility. The Duchess of Rohan was a D'Uzès; she was a person of strict principles, a friend of the sisters of Louis XV., a severe critic of the dissolute manners of the Court of Louis XV. She was very aristocratic, and did not much favor the philosophers. It is certainly a curious instance of the *esprit de corps* of the French nobility to see how completely she adopted young Virieu, though he was no relation of hers.

The young man had the enthusiastic ideas of his generation about nature and man; he was, consciously or unconsciously, under the influence of Rousseau's 'Émile.' At the age of nineteen he wrote to Mme. de Rohan: "You know, madame, I detest Paris. . . I will never consent to take out a patent of servitude. What should I do near the Princes—I, who feel a certain stiffness of character which does not allow me to bear the sight of vile people and of their tortuous actions?" Mme. de Rohan, severe as she was on the score of morality, lived in the world and at court. She wrote very sensible letters in answer to this virtuous provincialism of Virieu's. "Believe me, my dear child, you dream of the life of a beneficent country gentleman. But, in order to feel the charm of such a life, you must have felt the inconvenience of the life of the world and of Paris. At nineteen you don't know much about it. Your sensibility persuades you that it is only virtue you are seeking for in a provincial life. Be not deceived; there is as much *amour-propre* as sentiment in this taste for seclusion. *Amour-propre* takes many disguises. You prefer to shut yourself up in a small circle, where you think you can easily secure admiration, rather than take the needful care to obtain the esteem of more distinguished persons." Virieu was not quite convinced; he gave himself up entirely to the ideas of Rousseau; he was not contented with being a philosopher, he became a Freemason. It was the fashion of the time; many princes became Masons. I have in my collection of engravings a curious one which was made to commemorate the nomination of the Duc d'Orléans (the father of Louis Philippe) as a high dignitary of the order.

After the death of Louis XV., the Duchess of Rohan, who belonged to the virtuous section of the court, became very powerful, and by her influence Virieu received, at the age of twenty-five, a commission as colonel. He married Mlle. de Digeon, the daughter of a *chef d'escadre* in the royal navy, an orphan, who was very charming, as is proved by the portrait which Mme. Lebrun made of her. Mlle. de Digeon was a Protestant and changed her religion. The contract was signed by the King on January 21, 1781, a date which may be noticed, as it was on the 21st of January, 1793, that Louis XVI. was beheaded. The young people lived in the Hôtel de Rohan, in the Rue de Varenne. A child was born to them in 1785, and the Duchess placed in the cradle the lace which the Duchesse de Bourgogne used to wear when she left her bed after a confinement. This lace had been given by the Duchesse de Bourgogne herself to the Duchesse d'Uzès, born La Rochefoucauld. It is magnificent, and is still preserved as a relic at Pupetières.

Virieu was sent as a delegate of the French Freemasons to a great Congress of Masons held in 1782 at Wilhelmsbad, by the order of Weisbaupt. He seems to have come back disappointed; he said to a friend on his return, "I cannot reveal to you what passed at Wilhelmsbad; all I can say is, that a conspiracy has been formed against the monarchy and the Church which is truly formidable." The great necklace trial became a source of no little agitation in the Hôtel de Rohan. The feelings of the Duchess were very mixed; the Cardinal who had played such a scandalous part in the affair was a Rohan, but she did not approve of Marie Antoinette's levity and her contempt for the old etiquette; she was a little of a *frondeuse* at all times. In 1786, Virieu was sent with his regiment (Royal Limousin) to Corsica. The Corsicans were, like the Americans, the objects of universal enthusiasm and admiration. They had freed themselves from tyranny. Henri de Virieu was a lover of liberty; he was in Corsica when he heard the news of the Convocation of the Notables. He was enraptured. Soon afterwards the provincial diets were summoned. Virieu, who was a Dauphinese, remembered that the treaty which gave Dauphiné to France had a clause which gave the Dauphinese the right to have their own diet. "My province," he writes to the Duchess of Rohan, "emerges from a gloomy despotism." The Duchess was less provincial, less particularist. Virieu, on leaving Corsica, rejoined his wife at Pupetières; he made the acquaintance of the Liberals in Dauphiné, particularly of the lawyer Mounier. He was sent to Paris as bearer of a memoir concerning the Parlement of Grenoble, with two of his friends, in 1788.

The Province of Dauphiné was the first to rise against the edicts of Loménie against the provincial diets. The Diet of Dauphiné met at Vizille, in the old château of Lesdiguières. At the first sitting it passed resolutions favoring the eligibility of all Frenchmen to all functions, the double representation of the *Tiers*, taxation by the Diet, etc. The Assembly of Vizille gave the programme of the famous year 1789. Necker became Minister amid general acclamation, and the States-General were summoned. Virieu was elected; he was then thirty-four years old. The procession of the members of the States-General at Versailles on the first day of their meeting was witnessed from one of the windows of the Petites Écuries by the Duchess of Rohan and the Comtesse de Virieu. The Deputies from Dauphiné excited great enthusiasm in the crowd. Among them was Virieu in the costume of a Deputy of the nobility—a hat with white feathers, a mantle of embroidered silk; a very brilliant costume compared with the black mantles of the gentlemen of the *Tiers*.

Madame de Virieu, between the Duchess of Rohan and her husband, was between the hammer and the anvil. The Duchess, who disliked Marie Antoinette and her favorites, was pleased with the silence of the people when she arrived. The formula, "The silence of the people is the lesson of kings," had not yet been invented, but Madame de Rohan, as well as the Queen, understood what it meant. Madame de Virieu felt that it was a bad omen; she had a dim vision of the future. She loved her husband, but had none of his illusions. The Duchess herself became very angry with Virieu when he went to the Jeu de Paume notwithstanding the orders of the King—when he joined the *Tiers*, with some other Deputies of the nobility. The Duchess was a stern person, she was willing to criticise Marie Antoinette's manners, but she did not forget who she was. Virieu wrote her letters to explain his conduct; she refused even to read them. She had seen at a glance that everything was lost, and she would have nothing to do with the men who were preparing the Revolution, consciously or unconsciously. Some great ladies, Mesdames de Simiane, de Tessé, de Coigny, were courting the Revolution; she disdained to do so. She broke completely with Virieu after a little while, when he took his place among the members who urged the King to dismiss the troops, and who forced him to call back Necker, whom he had dismissed. Between his second mother—his best friend—and himself there was now an abyss. Virieu left the Hôtel de Rohan and

lived at Versailles. As soon as the King had sent away his guards, he was besieged in his palace at Versailles and dragged to Paris as a prisoner by the multitude. Virieu was among the Deputies who were chosen to accompany him. What a journey! And how inane seem now the words of Bailly, the Mayor of Paris, when he received the King: "Sir, Henry IV. reconquered his people; today the people reconquers its King."

Virieu was still under the charm; the crimes which took place the next day, the murder of Berthier and Lally, opened his eyes; he suddenly had a vision of what was coming. He persisted, however, in his attitude and took part in the famous night of the 10th of August, when the nobility abandoned all its feudal rights. He heard soon afterwards that the peasants of Dauphiné, understanding the Revolution in their own way, had entered his château of Pupetières, ransacked it, pillaged the chapel, destroyed the archives, and drunk all the wine in his cellars. Madame de Rohan had taken a resolution to emigrate; the Prince de Condé, the Comte d'Artois, Madame de Polignac had set the example. One morning she entered the room of Madame de Virieu. "We must go, my child; it will not be for long; . . . all this cannot last." M. de Virieu remained; he was a Deputy. He found Madame de Rohan on the point of starting in a post-chaise, and giving her last orders. He wanted to kiss her hand; she refused it. "You are going to stay. . . . Is it irrevocable?" Virieu did not answer. She then denounced his conduct with great violence: he was a traitor to the King, whom he sacrificed to his own ambition. Madame de Virieu entered and threw herself at the feet of the Duchess, and offered to accompany her. "No," said she, "you owe yourself to your husband. Remain in this house. I intend that it shall always be yours." And away she went. The Duc de Rohan was already in Burgundy, waiting for her at the house of Madame de Jaucourt.

Correspondence.

THE PENNSYLVANIA BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Baker Ballot Law bears upon its face the innocence of a dove, but is within infected with the guile of a serpent. The press of this State generally speak of it in terms of approval. It is true that it has one good feature—but only one. The ward-heelers' occupation is gone in so far as they were able impertinently to thrust ballots into the faces of voters. But, alas, this Ballot Law was prepared with an eye single to forcing Republicans and Democrats to vote the straight party ticket. When a Harrison supporter was urged to vote for an anti-Quay legislative candidate, he simply "winked the other eye," and said: "Do you think I am fool enough to split my ticket and run the risk of having my vote thrown out?"

I placed an X after the word "Democratic" at the head of the column and placed another X after the name of the candidate for Supreme Judge in the same column, not observing that the Presidential electors and judge were in the same group. The "watchers" at my voting precinct told me it would be counted. I went to a precinct in another ward and the "watchers" there told me it would be thrown out. I understand that this diversity of view prevailed to such an extent that at one precinct alone in this city seventeen ballots were thrown out for irregularity. This was about one-third of the total vote cast at that precinct. Indeed, it seems that each set of election officers made a law unto themselves in their construction of the Ballot Law.

It is also expressly provided in this law (section 27) that if a man sells his vote he can call his vendee into the voting-booth in order actually to witness the delivery of the "goods." The ballot is then (section 23) numbered (convict-like) for the purpose of giving the election-officers a chance to keep a tally of the politics of the voter.

Before the election all Republican voters were carefully and systematically warned against the danger in splitting their ticket, and so frightened that it was almost impossible to induce any of them to make an X outside of the Republican column. Democratic voters were also warned in the same way by a circular marked "Confidential." In this manner the lock-step ballot served its purpose, and candidate Harrison was made to drag the Quay candidates into the Legislature.

C. P. R.

Pittsburgh, November 14, 1892.

THE CHOOSING OF ELECTORS BY DISTRICTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Before the ineffective Miner Law of Michigan is dismissed to political limbo, it may be worth while to note that not only the choice of Presidential electors by the people in Congressional districts, but also the employment of this method of choice by a party accidentally in possession of the legislative power in a State as a legally unassailable device to defeat, at least in part, the anticipated majority of its opponents at an approaching Presidential election, is by no means a new idea. On the contrary, this, the characteristic feature of the Miner Law, was first suggested in a letter addressed by Alexander Hamilton to Gov. John Jay of New York on the 7th of May, 1800. Supposing that the Federalists would not control the newly elected Legislature, Hamilton wrote: "The moral certainty, therefore, is that there will be an anti-Federal majority in the ensuing Legislature; and the very high probability that this will bring Jefferson into the chief magistracy, unless it be prevented by the measure which I shall now submit to your consideration, namely, the immediate calling together of the existing Legislature. I am aware that there are objections to the measure, but the reasons for it appear to outweigh the objections. . . . The calling of the Legislature will have for its object the choosing of electors by the people in districts; this (as Pennsylvania will do nothing) will ensure a majority of votes in the United States for a Federal candidate." (8 Hamilton's Writings, ed. Lodge, p. 549.) Jay endorsed the letter as "proposing a measure for party purposes which it would not become me to adopt" (1 Jay's Life, by William Jay, p. 414), and apparently made no reply to Hamilton. H.

Ithaca, N. Y., November 12, 1892.

ENGLISH IN THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I received yesterday, from the Committee on English Composition and Rhetoric (of which you are a member), its Report to the Harvard Overseers to which you called attention editorially on October 20, and again on October 27. No part of the public can be more grateful to your Committee for the demonstration, upon conclusive evidence, of the inefficiency of most pupils, and the deplorable neglect of most schools, in the matter of English composition, than those teachers of English whose enthusiasm and intelligence are seriously devoted to the accomplishment of the ends which you desire. The Committee, however, pass summary judgment on the methods and aims of certain schools, and print, partly in facsimile, specimens of student work which the public interpret as justifying that judgment. Now, on this point, in justice to the general reader and the better schools, you should also call attention to the method adopted by the Committee in selecting those specimens. "All names have been omitted, as the printing them seemed calculated to draw discussion away from the facts to personal controversy," the Committee says, more commendably in spirit than in English. Now, I write neither in a spirit of "personal controversy" nor with any desire to belittle the great educational value of the *facts* gathered by the Committee; but to protest, in behalf of the schools, that the Committee's absurd, illogical conclusions put the better schools, at least, in a false light before the public.

The report "is intended to operate directly upon the preparatory schools, with a view to elevating the standard and, if possible, changing radically the methods of instruction." "This result," the Committee says, "may best be obtained by showing what is now done in each and all," and then proceeds to enlist the sympathy of the schools by printing, for purposes of illustration, "*the poorest papers only of those handed in.*" "This was necessary to accomplish the object of the Committee," the report says; and you say (*Nation*, 1426, p. 320) that the report "was calculated to raise a blush on the cheek of every principal who reads it." Now, if the object really was to show just what poor stuff could be collected, just how little time is devoted to intelligent instruction in most schools, and what an incubus of poor material "freshman English" has to carry, the method of investigation could not have been happier; and the conclusions, if confined to showing the failure of school methods and aims to produce creditable results *in the cases adduced*, could not have been gainsaid. But I submit that to ask college students to describe their "preparation in English" at a time when the worst features of it are freshest in their minds, and under conditions which would not naturally suggest to them that the careful English work which, in many cases, had been exacted of them in their laboratory notes, historical theses, mathematical demonstrations, and translations, oral and written, was not only a necessary part of that other work, but also their best "preparation for English A"; that to accept these descriptions alone "as sufficiently setting forth" the "systems and aims" of the schools from which they come, and then to give the public "only the poorest of the papers handed in"—is to endeavor to get at "what is now done in each and all" of the schools in a way which, "though it make the unskilful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve." In the case of one school, at least, the testimony of one-third of its representatives wasn't taken at all; four of them had been ambitious and proficient enough to do the work of English A before entering college, and were therefore in sophomore English when the evidence of

the "methods and aims" of their school was taken.

As a matter of fact, there are some schools that for five years at least have been asking the College for protection against misrepresentation by the very class of students which, to their utter amazement, are in this report allowed to be their only public spokesmen. Almost every good school in any close touch with Harvard College at times finds its "final" class encumbered by material upon which, through no lack of strenuous effort, its aims and methods have failed to make satisfactory impression; raw students from inferior schools recommended to it for a final year of "polish"; or students who, from devotion to athletics and from allied causes, fail to keep up to the standard of the school, and whom, therefore, the school would like to hold over in order to make them do the very work recommended by your Committee; or unfortunate fellows who, from inheritance, disposition, or lack of home training, rarely thrive under any system. By refusing certificates of proficiency, the school can prevent such students from presenting themselves for preliminary examination; but upon presentation of a certificate of moral character (which the school cannot fairly deny them), they are accepted by the college for final examination, and often are admitted in spite of their school record. Does not the College, by accepting the test of one examination, and by ignoring the teachers' estimates of the students' ability to pass the final examination based upon a series of examinations and upon personal knowledge, forfeit its right in such cases to throw the responsibility of bad preparation wholly upon the schools?

The schools that have any reputation to lose are not disposed to shirk their responsibilities; they accept, with chagrin, perhaps, but without demur, the testimony of the "poorest papers" as to the meagre results that appear in many cases. They protest, however, with indignation, against the use of that testimony alone to set forth in any adequate measure the "methods and aims" of their whole work. Any one who has even a slight acquaintance with the actual working of the good schools, has a pretty clear idea of the fairness and conclusiveness of an investigation that could warrant such preposterous observations as these: "that in not more than two instances do the preparatory schools the methods of which have been described in the papers submitted to the Committee, seem to have adopted the ordinary and apparently obvious practice of causing the students to do two things at once—that is, to translate their Greek and Latin and learn to write English simultaneously" (p. 152); and "that in America, under the educational systems prevailing in the preparatory schools, no attention whatever is paid to the rendering of Greek or Latin into concise written English"! (p. 153). Part of its work the report does effectively; but, like the familar *reductio ad absurdum* in Hill's 'Rhetoric,' "it proves too much."

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NOVEMBER 3, 1892.

[The writer of the foregoing communication has been led by his feelings to take a wholly wrong view of the plan and purpose of the Committee's report. In publishing facsimiles of about 10 per cent. of the papers of students submitted to them, the members of the Committee did not for a moment propose to present a fair average specimen of the whole, as our correspondent seems to imply they should have done. On the contrary, they quoted in the beginning of their report an extract from a letter of one of the instructors of the English Department of the College, in which the statement was made that "from one-seventh to one-fifth of the entire number of men taking English A" came to college so badly prepared in the matter of writing English that they "drag down the grade of instruction in the class, and, at best, they simply scrape through the course." To illustrate what that statement meant, the Committee printed facsimiles of 10 per cent. of the papers submitted to them. These necessarily were the poorest. Our correspondent appears to think that some of the better papers should also have been reproduced in facsimile. How, we would ask him, would reproducing the better papers throw light on the character of the worse, of which alone complaint was made?

Some 40 out of 440 papers were reproduced in facsimile, as part of the report. Of the 400 remaining papers, between 40 and 50—good, bad, and indifferent—were printed in full in the body of the report. Space did not admit of more. The remainder were carefully examined by the Committee, and compared with a body of examination papers, specimens of which, also, were included in the report. From that large body of evidence, the Committee, after careful conference with the college instructors, drew those inferences in the report which our correspondent characterizes as "illogical," "absurd," and "preposterous."

Neither, we are compelled to add, were the papers by students prepared for Harvard at the particular school referred to by our correspondent especially creditable to its methods, or, as a whole, among the best of those submitted. In the printed prospectus of this school, sent to us by our correspondent, under the title "Greek," it is stated, "Original, free, idiomatic English insisted upon in all translations." The following is an extract from the examination paper in "Advanced Greek" of one of the candidates for admission to college, who last June presented himself from this school:

"Him, the best of the Achæans upon their ships will hand, and who accomplished this to him will come glory. The swift ships are guarded even as formerly they were, or they (*i. e.*, Achæans) overcome beneath our hands plan flight among themselves: Nor do they wish to keep guard through the night, being overcome by dreadful woe."

Here is another specimen of "original, free, idiomatic English," such as seems to be "insisted on":

"Now the mighty sun had penetrated into the heavenly orbs, and the soft moon was dissapearing in its golden car, and Aurora was scattering the shades of darkness with her rosy hairs: The pastor turned his flocks from the stables to the well-known pasture and sought the lofty summit of the mighty mountain, where pasture covered the surrounding hills."

We have space for but one more specimen of this sort of rendering Latin and Greek into English, and will merely add that all the papers by the candidates from this school are of about the same grade:

"Neither did Hector allow the lordly Trogans to sleep: but at this very time he was calling upon all the best men, as many as were leaders and rulers of the Trogans. And, when he had called them together, he opened the crowded council. 'Who will do a great deed if he be promised a great gift? His reward (pay) will be sure. For I will give him a chariot and two horses with graceful necks, which are the best beside the hollow ships of the Achæans. Renown must be won by him whosoever dares to go near the swift going ships and dares to learn whether the ships are guarded as is the custom or whether (the Greeks) conquered by our hands, are planing flight among themselves and are not willing to watch during the night, because they are worn out by dreadful slaughter.'".

What inference would our correspondent have even novices like those composing the Committee who prepared the report draw from such results as these? Had these young men of nineteen ever made a written translation from Greek or Latin into English before? If so, could the translation have been accepted as made into that "free, idiomatic English" which the programme of this school assures us is "insisted upon in all translations"?—ED. NATION.]

MISDIRECTED ENERGY IN THE FITTING-SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The undue crowding of the work of the last two years of the fitting-school is an evil that needs redress, in the interest of both teacher and pupil. From the fact that so many different subjects must be kept in hand for the examinations, the tax on the pupil's time and strength is too great, and much of his endeavor is misdirected. For the sole purpose of passing the examinations with credit, a prominent place is given to reviewing ground previously covered—a practice which tends to produce in the mind of the pupil the feeling that for him no knowledge is of account except that likely to be called in question by the entrance-examination papers.

In a case coming under my observation, the pupil's energies are this year divided among the following studies: Greek, Latin, French, German, algebra, astronomy, the history of Rome, the history of Greece, and English. In working for the final examinations next year the same pupil will be obliged to study geometry, astronomy, physics, Greek, German, and English. Such a programme as this demands an almost continuous succession of recitations in school and many weary hours of application at home. The nerves and eyes are under a constant strain. If the colleges will help to do away with this state of things, they will receive their students technically as well fitted as at present, and the students themselves will have the advantage of better eyesight as well as a more liberal spirit and a deeper enthusiasm.

The examinations for admission to Harvard College (and I believe the same is true of all colleges requiring examinations for admission) may be divided between June and September of the same year, or they may be taken in June in two successive years. There is no provision for a division into three or four parts. An arrangement for such a division would, I am convinced from experience, make the conditions for work in the preparatory schools much more satisfactory, by relieving

t e present congestion during the last two years of the course, by allowing advanced work to take the place of tedious reviews, and by sooner bringing the pupils into relations with the college.

If a boy at the close of his second year in the fitting-school, where the course is five years, should be allowed to take examinations under the auspices of the college in one or two subjects, such as algebra, French, or history, he would better realize that his year's work was directly telling upon the completion of his preparation, and he would assuredly go on with renewed vigor and pride, for he would know that the seal of the higher institution was set upon a portion of his work. At the close of his third year such a boy could easily succeed in passing in algebra, geometry, one of the modern languages, and history. This would leave for the last two years physics, Latin, German or French, Greek (or advanced electives in mathematics or science), English, and two advanced electives in language, mathematics, or science, giving at most four subjects to each year.

The advantages arising from such a division as this are many. The choice would be open between Greek (now often taken with reluctance merely as a *pis-aller*, in the belief that it saves time), and the elective work in mathematics and science, which can be completed easily and well in the last two years. Time would be saved from drill-work for a more adequate study of English, which is too often deferred for a hasty "cram" during the last year—a practice which completely subverts the purpose of the college in providing that the examinations in English shall be taken at the finals only. Vacant hours would be found for the study of the history of other countries than of those prescribed for the examinations and for lectures on art and literature; all coming thus at the period when the young spirit is most sensitive to noble influences, and when it is possible, by a soulless grind, to harden it to such influences. The college examinations would assume their true proportions in the school economy, and would, by their frequency, be robbed of half their terrors. With the motto "Divide et impera," the pupil would see each year's work break down a part of the barrier between him and the college. The work of the earlier years, too, would be done more satisfactorily if carried on with a view to the demands of the college.

Is it too much to hope that in the near future Harvard College at least will, by allowing such a division as has been outlined, help to remove from the fitting-school the reproach that much of its work is but a cramming process of the most utilitarian character, which keeps in view only the baser purpose of passing certain examinations? G. H. M.

CAMBRIDGE, November 14, 1892.

STEEL-WIRE BINDING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: In your issue of the 17th inst. I find a letter from Prof. William James, dated Florence, October 27, in which there is a general denunciation of the method of binding magazines by means of steel wires. Prof. James gives the occasioning cause of his letter in the following words:

"The last straw which has broken the camel's back of my patient American disposition, and elicited this public protest, is the sudden appearance of that admirable journal, the *Philosophical Review*, hitherto decently stitched and openable, with its back pinched up in a spick-and-span suit of steel wires on which I have just notched another knife-blade."

I am glad that Prof. James entertains a good opinion of the contents of the *Philosophical Review*, and it has been my constant endeavor to have the paper, print, and binding on a par with the articles; but, by some mischance, which I greatly regret and which I am unable to explain, wire was used instead of thread in binding our September number. That it was an accident, and that there was no intention of continuing the new departure, is clear from the fact that the November number, which was ready before Prof. James wrote his letter, was stitched like the numbers for January, March, May, and July. It will be clear, therefore, to Prof. James and to the public that no protest on the part of subscribers will be necessary in order to secure the publication of the *Review* in the form most convenient for readers.

Respectfully yours, J. G. SCHURMAN.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, November 19, 892.

COUSIN DENOTING NEPHEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Your correspondent, Mr. Worthington C. Ford, makes inquiry, in his letter in this week's number of your journal, concerning the use of the word "cozen" as denoting a nephew; such use having been found by him in the Martha Hayward will of 1697. It is probably familiar to Mr. Ford that the word itself appears in early modern English in many forms —as *cozin*, *cozen*, *cosin*, *coosin*, *coosen*, *cosyn*, etc. But as to the use of the word as designative of one standing in the relation of nephew, it may be sufficient to mention an example or two—one from a testamentary document like his own illustration, and one from literature.

In the will of Mr. John Hooker of Marfield, Leicester, England (a brother of Rev. Thomas Hooker, founder of the Connecticut Colony), dated January 1, 1654-'5, he makes two bequests—one to his "Cousin Samuel Hooker, student in New England," and the other to his "Cousin John Hooker, student in Oxford." These were nephews, sons of Rev. Thomas Hooker, then dead at Hartford; Samuel, soon after minister at Farmington, and John, who went back to England, and, after studying at Oxford, became a clergyman of the English Church at Leckhampstead in Bucks.

In "Romeo and Juliet," III, i., *Lady Capulet* exclaims:

"Tybalt, my cousin! O my brother's child!
O prince! O husband! O the blood is spilled
Of my dear kinsman! Prince, as thou art true,
For blood of ours shed blood of Montague.
O cousin, cousin!"

GEORGE LEON WALKER.

HARTFORD, November 17, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: An American example of the use of "cousin" to denote a nephew may be found in a letter of Franklin to his nephew Jonathan Williams, jr., in which Franklin addresses him as "Dear Cousin," and subscribes himself as "Your affectionate uncle." This letter is printed in Bigelow's Franklin, vol. vi, p. 306; but the words "uncle" and "cousin" are there transposed by some oversight. M.

NEW YORK, November 18, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: A large general acquaintance with the records of Lower Norfolk, Norfolk, and Princess Anne Counties, Virginia, enables me to answer the question asked by Mr. Worthington C. Ford, in his article on the Washington genealogy in the *Nation* of the 17th of this month. The word "cozen" (cousin) almost invariably meant nephew or niece.

Very respectfully, EDWARD W. JAMES.

No. 34 FENCHURCH STREET,
NORFOLK, VA., November 20, 1892.

THE ABANDONED FARM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: It will be generally conceded that the term "abandoned farm" readily captivates the eye of the common reader. Doubtless this may be attributed in part to the notoriety which the subject has gained during the past few years, through the publications, in more or less glowing language, of commissioners who have been deputed to relieve their several States of acres which have from various causes fallen into disrepute. There would seem, however, to be a more potent cause for the interest thus so widely manifested. May it not be found in the appellation "abandoned," which at once implies *undervaluation*—a condition readily seized upon by the great majority of men and not always to their advantage? However it may be, these commissioners have done good work for their employers, although their success has not always been commensurate with their labors.

In the issue of the *Nation* for September 4, 1890, was published an article entitled "One Abandoned Farm Less in New Hampshire." Granting that your readers are still interested in the general subject, they may be pleased to learn how far the experience of the three past summers has met the expectations therein held out at the time of purchase. But before giving this information it may be well to recall some of the motives, conditions, and circumstances which governed that purchase, and which were considered as requisite on the part of the purchaser. The situation should be among mountains; it should be directly upon the shores of a large lake, with every facility for bathing and sailing; it should be retired, but at comparatively easy access to store and post-office, and not more than a half day's journey from the metropolis of New England. The surroundings should be attractive and beautiful, and free from all detractions caused by disreputable neighbors, or by the presence of some undesirable manufactory or business centre; the extent of domain to be sufficient to create in the owner that sense of freedom and Robinson-Crusoe lordship which is in itself a delight. There should be fine forests and a sufficient amount of arable land. The buildings should be in fair repair, affording at least a more substantial shelter than had hitherto been offered under canvas during the summer outings. The supply of water from well or aqueduct should be abundant, and free from any suspicion as regards its sanitary condition.

Fortunately, after a few days of agreeable search in the month of June, all these requirements were happily filled, and the premises, which were occupied by a very respectable family, were vacated and possession given within a week. The exact situation of the farm was not given, for satisfactory reasons, in the article to which attention has been called, nor was it there intimated that it was an "abandoned" one in the true sense of the word. Its location shall now be more definitely revealed.

On the eastern boundary of that lovely lake, the Winnepesaukee, extends for several miles, with a width of two miles or more, a peninsula whose irregular shores are indented by nu-

merous coves. In one of the most spacious of these, protected at either extremity by jutting wooded points, and bordered by a dense forest of pine and hemlock, stretches for the entire length a beach of clean white sand, as closely compacted as if rolled by the mighty waves of the Atlantic. Several contiguous wooded islands make the seclusion still more complete, while the openings between these afford glimpses of the distant passing steamers—sufficient evidence of the life of the busy world beyond. In the rear of the beach, the land gradually rises until it attains a height of perhaps a hundred feet above the lake, when it spreads out, forming a nearly level plateau of sixty acres of cultivated land. Upon the western border of this plateau, and within convenient proximity to the water, stands the low, long, one-story-and-a-half farmhouse with its spacious barn. The storms of more than a century have only added to its picturesque appearance, while the capacious chimney rising from its midst has defied their destructive powers. From the upper portions of this elevated plain Mt. Washington, at the distance of sixty miles, rises in all its noble proportions. Nearer, the Sandwich range, as seen through the forest openings, stretches across the northern boundary, while the Ossipees shut in the eastern horizon. Across the lake westward extend the foothills of the Franconia Mountains, among which lie hidden the sparkling waters of Asquam. The stately forms of the Gilford range complete the widely extended view on the south. The prospect thus presented, always grand and impressive, varies with the season and even with the hour of the day, so that the eye is never weary with gazing at the ever-changing scene.

As the investment was made for summer saunterings, the determination made at the outset that the soil should remain undisturbed beyond the cultivation of a few flowers immediately about the house, that no agricultural experiments should be attempted, and that Nature should be installed as foreman, under slight supervision, has been strictly adopted; so that the farm, in one sense at least, may with propriety be called an "abandoned" one. The days are all too short for the many ways of spending them. In addition to the usual household avocations, delightful walks in every direction, bathing, fishing, sailing, and reading, serve to fill up any vacant spaces. Nor must the drives to remarkable places in the immediate vicinity, noted not only for great natural beauty, but for the interest imparted by legend and poetry, be forgotten. Space will allow of but a brief description of two of these.

Midway of the heights of the Ossipee, that wild and mountainous tract which skirts the northeastern borders of Winnepesaukee, and deep within its forest recesses, runs a crystal stream, which, taking its rise in a secluded ravine from a remarkable spring that boils up from unknown depths through a clear, sanded bottom, pursues its erratic course for a long distance. Now it glides demurely along in open spaces over its pebbly bed, now it bends abruptly and slides more swiftly, over a shelving, rocky ledge; again it hurries, an angry brook, foaming and fretting itself in numerous cascades, until at last, hampered and shut in by perpendicular adamantine walls, it makes one precipitous leap of eighty feet into the dark pool beneath, causing the delicate ferns and moisture-loving plants which grow upon the banks to glisten and wave before the spray and breeze of its maddened plunge. There is no more romantic spot among the Hills of New Hampshire. Legendary lore also adds interest to the locality.

The second drive is to a farm on Asquam Lake. Around the base of Red Hill, an outlying and dismembered branch of the great Sandwich range, run two roads, one on either side, presenting every diversity of scenery. On the eastern, the broad extent of undulating country is bounded by densely wooded mountain ridges, terminating in the proud, defiant peak of Chocorua, while, on the western, Winnepesaukee and smaller bodies of water occupy, together with extensive farms, the foreground. These roads detouch upon the Sandwich highway; and about midway between them, and occupying the mountain slopes, is a farm the position of which is one of surprising natural beauty. The small cottage stands just on the summit of a gentle eminence by the roadside, and commands an exceptional view to the southwest of "mountain-girdled" Asquam, whose praises have been so often sung in prose and poetry that further eulogy is here needless. In the rear of the cottage, and high above the mountainous pastures, clothed with a luxuriant vegetation, well-watered by springs and by a much prized trout-brook, rises a bold, precipitous, craggy peak, crowned with stately pines. At the base of this peak, which forms the northwestern buttress of Red Hill, are shown the most convincing evidences of glacial action, the sharp projections and neighboring ledges of the reddened syenite having been rounded, grooved, and polished by this mighty agency. This unique feature of the farm is a most striking and picturesque object, whether seen immediately from the public road below, or from a greater distance, and recalls vividly many similar scenes among the valleys of Switzerland. An additional interest is given to it from the fact that the peak is the undisturbed home of the bald-headed eagle, which in the season may be seen soaring majestically in perfect security above this almost inaccessible locality. Language cannot describe the charming and varied beauty of the prospect offered from the adjacent slopes. Mountains, lakes, forests, cultivated fields, villages, and scattered homesteads are spread out in every direction. By no means an "abandoned" farm, strangers are constantly attracted, as we have been, by the superlative beauties of this situation, which is destined in the near future to become the delightful home of many summer residents.

Such is the experience of the three years of our possession. All are more than satisfied with the investment.

DANIEL DENISON SLADE.

CHESTNUT HILL, MASS.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & Co. have arranged to bring out a series of volumes forming a "Library of Economics and Politics," with these three works at the front: 'The Independent Treasury System of the United States,' by David Kinley, of the University of Wisconsin; 'American Charities,' by Prof. Amos G. Warner, of Leland Stanford Junior University; and 'Repudiation of State Debts in the United States,' by Prof. William A. Scott, of the University of Wisconsin.

'In Arctic Seas,' a narrative of the voyage of the *Kite* with the Peary expedition to North Greenland, by Robert N. Keeley, jr., M.D., surgeon to the expedition, and G. G. Davis, is in the press of Rufus C. Hartranft, Philadelphia.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Uncle Remus and His Friends,' by Joel Chandler Harris, the last of the series; Mr. Lowell's lectures on 'The Old English Dramatists'; and 'Aladdin in London,' a story by Fergus Hume.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Three Centuries of English Love Songs,' edited by Ralph Caine; and 'In Gold and Silver,' by George H. Ellwanger, with notable illustrations.

'The Chemical Basis of the Animal Body' is the title of a work, by A. Sheridan Lea, which Macmillan & Co. will publish as a supplement to Foster's 'Text-book of Physiology.'

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, will issue in December 'Green Fields and Running Brooks,' a new book of verse by James Whitcomb Riley.

'Truth in Fiction,' twelve tales with a moral, by Paul Carus, is the holiday venture of the Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago.

Under the auspices of the Royal Society of Sciences at Göttingen, a collected edition of the works of the eminent physicist, the late Wilhelm Weber, will be published in six volumes, of which the first two have just been issued by Springer in Berlin. The first volume treats of acoustics, mechanics, optics, and the doctrine of heat, and the second of magnetism. The subjects to be discussed in the remaining four volumes, which are to appear early in 1893, are galvanism, electrodynamics, the undulatory theory, and the mechanics of human instruments of locomotion (*Gehwerkzeuge*). The earliest of these treatises dates from 1825, and as Weber died in June, 1891, they cover a period of sixty-six years, and give a remarkably full survey of the evolution of physical science from the time when Chladni and Oersted made their epochal experiments and discoveries in acoustics and electromagnetism, to the present day.

We resume our notice of holiday editions of standard works, beginning with William Ware's 'Zenobia,' which has been revived by Estes & Lauriat, Boston, printed in bold type by the University Press, and illustrated with numerous photo-engravings, chiefly from views of the temples of Palmyra and of Baalbec. The literary taste of two generations might be curiously gauged by comparing this once celebrated work with Gen. Wallace's 'Ben Hur.' More dainty is Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere,' with Ainger's introduction, and with designs reproduced, in part at least, from Boydell's 'Shakspere' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates). The binding also is to be commended. Some of Mr. W. L. Taylor's designs for Tennyson's 'Holy Grail' (D. Lothrop Co.) have a melodramatic force, and some in which landscape and architecture are involved, a trace of poetic feeling. But the single characters and the groups are feeble in expression and drawing. The print is excellent. Another centre-table folio comes from the same firm, 'A Lost Winter,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, illustrated by Mary Cecilia Spaulding. The drawings are suggestions of Florida, and have this justification, but their art is only amateurish.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Makers of Venice' (Macmillan) has taken strong hold on popular favor, having in five years passed through three editions besides reissues. The latest is called the "extra-illustrated," for besides the numerous woodcuts in the text or on separate leaves, thirty photographic plates of churches, monuments, and palaces in particular have been inserted, and very much enhance the

richness of the collection. Some of these views are necessarily hackneyed, but they cannot well be spared in illustrating an historical work. The publishers have left themselves little room for improvement hereafter, except to provide an index and to correct a few discrepancies between the titles in the list of plates and those affixed to the plates. The volume as we now have it is a solid octavo of about 400 numbered pages and perhaps 250 leaves, handsomely printed with broad margins, and bound in white canvas with wine-colored sides, simply and elegantly stamped in gilt.

One of the woodcuts in Mrs. Oliphant's work is a much reduced representation of Marco Polo's departure from Venice, from a MS. in the Bodleian Library. This scene, in which more than one existing landmark of the city is plainly recognizable, is beautifully copied in color, after the illuminated original, in the first volume of the new illustrated edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People,' just published by the Harpers. Twenty-six pages of this admirable specimen of book-making are devoted to an enumeration of the illustrations (there must be between three and four hundred of them) and to notes upon them and the sources from which they were derived. Several of the plates are colored; there are numerous maps, colored and plain; there is a facsimile of the Great Charter; and the plentiful cuts embrace views of scenery and buildings, portraits, coins and seals, personal ornaments, sailing craft, vehicles, customs, etc., etc. Here are actual specimens of old Norse ships, Norse chessmen, the fauna of Ireland from a thirteenth-century MS., pictures of the common life of the laboring class in the fields and in the mechanic arts, the baker drawn to the pillory with his short loaf hung about his neck, the makers of wattled enclosures at work, and the builders of abbeys. Not one illustration is worthless or superfluous, and nearly all are here published for the first time. The lamented author's fine face once more serves as frontispiece. It is not likely that the present season will witness the production of any book more handsome as well as serviceable, or more desirable to own or to make a gift of.

The Harpers also publish 'The Fraise of Paris,' by the late Theodore Child, a series of articles gathered from the pages of *Harper's Magazine*. Mr. Child spent most of his life in Paris and knew it well; a clever writer and gatherer of facts, he has succeeded in importing into his pages much of the charm of that city, besides giving a good deal of more or less interesting and valuable information. The text has the air, occasionally, of having been "written up to" the illustrations, some of which, especially those by Renouard and Lepère, are very good. M. Lepère is an engraver, and his views of Paris, drawn and engraved by himself, are extremely clever, and are in the line of original work which we believe wood-engraving must largely follow for the future.

Text and illustrations of 'The New England Country' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) are stated on the title-page to be by Clifton Johnson. Much the greater number of the illustrations, however, are process reproductions of photographs from nature. Many of the views are well chosen, and the photographs are excellent as such, and so far Mr. Johnson deserves credit, but they do not make very good book illustrations. Photographs from nature look thin, gray, and unaccented when printed on the page, and do not "spot" well, while the figure subjects look set and posed. The snow scenes here suffer the least, as they have more vigor of contrast than the others, but even they are not satisfactory. Illustration is a form of decoration, and, like other forms, needs the artist. Mr. Johnson gives us a few drawings, but he has not mastery enough to make them very interesting. The wide page, with its long, thin lines of print broken by little vignettes, across which the eye has to jump with much uncertainty of landing in the right place, makes the text very difficult to read, and, what is of more importance, very unpleasant to look at. For the book is primarily a picture-book, and the text is of no great importance in itself and only needs to look well. "January" and "March," among the full-page illustrations, and the meadow-scene in sunlight on p. 77, may be mentioned as among the most successful plates and as beautiful photographs, but the impression of the whole book is rather an unpleasant one.

'J. B. Greuze,' in the series of "Artistes Célèbres," reprinted from *L'Art* (Macmillan), is by Ch. Normand. It is as rich in illustration and as careful in detail as others of the set, and is, besides, an admirable piece of criticism. A clearer idea of the merits, faults, and limitations of the artist could hardly be conveyed by words.

The late Prof. Freeman left corrected the proofs of a smaller 'History of Sicily,' which has recently been issued in the "Story of the Nations" Series (Putnams). In this work of moderate size he brings the history of Sicily down to the ninth century after Christ—to the beginnings of the Saracen invasions. It was evidently his purpose to describe in another volume the Norman Conquest and the great reign of Frederick II., "the Wonder of the World," that most interesting period in the career of Sicily, which has never yet been adequately narrated. The present work is the best, to our knowledge, on the subject, because it gives succinctly the results of Freeman's indefatigable and almost endless exploration of Sicilian history—a field in which he has had no peer—and is free from the mass of conjectures and archæological dissertation which encumber his larger work. He was a writer who, when following his own inclination, knew not always where to stop; but when, as in the present case, or in the case of his sketch of William the Conqueror, the bounds were set for him, he could succeed in condensing his stores of knowledge into the required space. This volume is furnished with a map and with many process illustrations which, despite their lack of delicacy, add to its interest and value. Of the interest of the story of Sicily itself we need not speak, for the island may be said to have been, from the earliest historic times, the battle field of races, and the stage on which in miniature the chief processes of civilization were rehearsed.

Prof. Sumner has made an abridgment of his work 'The Financier and the Finances of the American Revolution,' under the title 'Robert Morris,' and it is presented to the public by Dodd, Mead & Co., in their "Makers of America" Series. There is hardly sufficient personality in this epitome to arouse interest in Morris as a man, but it brings out in clear relief the financial methods, both public and private, that prevailed during our Revolutionary period.

A translation of Bluntschli's 'Theory of the Modern State' has been undertaken by three very competent Oxford Fellows, Messrs. D. G. Ritchie, P. E. Matheson, and R. Lodge, and the first part, entitled 'The Theory of the State,' is now published by the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan). Two other parts remain to be translated, and if the work is completed in as scholarly a way as it is begun, it will be a useful manual for students of political science.

Prof. James Geikie of the University of Edinburgh, a leading representative of energetic investigation of the glacial period in Great Britain for the past twenty years, has lately issued a paper on the "Glacial Succession in Europe," in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, in which he contends for the multiple division of the glacial time into several epochs, separated by intervals of milder climate. His evidence of successive ice advances deserves the careful consideration of those of our geologists who can find the record of only one ice advance in the complicated series of drift deposits in our upper Mississippi Valley.

Prof. E. Reyer of Vienna has published two pamphlets (Leipzig: Engelmann) on 'Geological and Geographical Experiments'; the first concerning deformation and mountain building, in which Favre, Cadell, and Willis have already made much progress; the second concerning volcanic and massive eruptions, practically an untouched field of study in geological laboratories. A later pamphlet will give an account of Reyer's method of experimentation.

The November issue of the *Princeton College Bulletin* contains a paper of decided literary interest, being a transcription of Coleridge's marginalia in his pocket edition of Horace (1637). His notes are critical (in a poetic sense), emendatory and explanatory, with many an apt idiomatic rendering.

We have received the prospectus of the *American Athenæum* set down for immediate launching in this city at 830 Broadway—"a high-class monthly journal devoted to the interests of the book-buying and reading public of the United States and Canada."

—The October issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics* contains two important contributions to the currency discussion, which, now that the time for campaign debate is past, should receive the attention due to their judicial tone and solid character. The first is by Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California, on the Legal Tender Notes in California. The failure of the greenbacks to enter into circulation in California during our period of depreciation from 1862 to 1879, is a curious and important chapter in monetary history. It was a case in which Gresham's law did not work: the worse currency, even though a legal tender, did not drive out the better. California conducted her business on a gold basis throughout the period of inconvertible greenbacks. The episode has never received the attention it deserves, and Prof. Moses's paper fills a gap in economic literature. His account shows that the maintenance of a specie currency in California was due in part to State legislation, by which contracts in "a specified kind of money"—in practice, this meant gold—were made enforceable in that kind of money. But clearly the most important factor was the opposition of the entire community to the use of paper money in any form; an opposition which had already expressed itself, before the war, in a section of the State Constitution prohibiting the issue of any banknote or paper to circulate as money. When greenbacks began to appear, the recalcitrant debtor who offered them in payment of his debts, was posted in the newspapers. The legal-tender quality of the greenbacks availed nothing in face of a public sentiment of this sort. Prof. Moses's paper

may give aid and comfort to those who contend that the repeal of the tax on State banknotes would not be followed by that flood of depreciated paper which the Republicans have been predicting; for certainly he makes it clear that there are conditions under which a bad currency cannot succeed in making its way into circulation.

—On the other hand, Prof. Dunbar's paper on the Banknote Question points out the dangers which must be faced by those who propose the repeal of the tax on State issues without making sure that those issues are adequately protected against depreciation. The simple repeal of the ten per cent. tax would "indisputably open the door to the evils which were rife only a generation ago"; and considering the temper of some of our Western and Southern communities, it is idle to expect that any general public sentiment would prevent the issue of notes under conditions that might easily lead to depreciation. Prof. Dunbar admits that there is need of a change of some sort in our currency legislation, and especially of provision for the ready issue of sound banknotes, convertible at once and without question into specie or its equivalent. He points to the growth of banking, and especially of small local banks, in some of the Western States, as strong evidence of a need for more widely ramifying banking facilities. But that need should not be met without guarding against the dangers of overissue and depreciation; and no adequate security against these dangers can be found, in Prof. Dunbar's opinion, without uniform action and Federal control.

—In a recent number (October 15) of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, M. E. Dreyfus-Brisac discusses the authorship, so much disputed, of the 'Rapport sur l'Instruction publique,' ascribed to Talleyrand; the 'Travail sur l'Éducation,' published by Cabanis after Mirabeau's death; and the anonymous volume, 'De l'Éducation publique,' which appeared in 1793. He does not really solve any one of the three problems, nor does it appear likely that the authorship of any one of the three works can be conclusively settled. M. Dreyfus-Brisac is, however, of opinion that Talleyrand wrote the 'Rapport' and that Mirabeau is clearly the author of the 'Travail'; while, as regards the third volume, he claims it for Diderot, supporting his view by testimony drawn from the encyclopædist's other works. In the same number M. Louis Fargues has an interesting article on the steady increase in the numbers of students attending colleges and schools under clerical management in France. From the statistics he gives, drawn from M. Ch. Dupuy's report on the educational budget, it appears that from 1887 to 1892 the attendance of students in the national lycées and colleges slowly but steadily decreased, but that during the present year there has been a slight improvement. On the other hand, the clerical establishments have steadily gained and in a larger ratio. This means that the great private schools, controlled neither by the Government nor by the Church, are rapidly being driven to the wall. If they disappear completely, and the proportion between the Government and the Church schools is maintained, the former will have only four per cent. more of students than the latter. In other words, France would be in danger of falling under clerical rule.

—It seems unjust to cease speaking of the memorials which the death of Tennyson evoked without a word about the admirable appreciation of the poet which appeared on October 7 in the *Temps*. It was a brief article, hardly a column in length, charmingly written, and giving its judgment upon Tennyson's work kindly, as befitted the occasion, but also justly, both in what was said and what was left unsaid. It was not silent as to some of the poet's defects, but it handled them in quite another fashion than the hard and mechanical manner of M. Taine; and where the writer had praise to give he gave it heartily, as thus:

"Nowhere is the grace of his brush more magical, the harmony of his verse more enchanting, than in the 'Idylls of the King.' Nowhere has the chivalric Middle Age been restored more lovingly. Nowhere has the Tennysonian type of the woman-heroine—that type which Anglo-Saxon art has always cherished with so passionate a predilection, the type of the Imogens and the Cordelias, the Élaines and the Énids—been realized with a chaster and more delightful perfection. And yet, at the same time, these poems, so finished in form, wherein glide like light shadows those figures of virginal grace—these poems, in which there was risk of weakening the rude and healthy inspiration of the first makers of the great legend of the Round Table—are all animate with a breath heroic at once and modern, and seem to sound the charge of the great social conflicts and of the high enterprises of our nineteenth century."

The article is signed with the initials "F. de P.," which we suppose may be taken as those of M. Francis de Fressensé. It is in curious contrast with the scant half-column in the *Figaro* of the same date, from the editorial pen of Jacques St. Cère. This speaks of Tennyson's "chromolithographic poems," says that he met the taste for "home," for tea, and for ethereal poetry "which rests in the bosom of every Englishwoman past forty," and that "the official English world will shed tears over his grave, but poetry will perhaps not suffer too much by his departure." The notice in the *Écho de Paris* was written by M. Stéphane Mallarmé, and is to be read with the interest which all the scanty work of this very modern writer excites. Tennyson recalls to him Coppée and Leconte de Lisle, but he finds it more exact to liken the poet to Puvis de Chavannes. England, he says, will not be slow to feel that with Tennyson "quelque chose de grand et de glorieux s'en est allé."

—It is not very often that the French Academy receives such a blow as is given by the deaths of three of its members within three successive weeks. But Camille Rousset, the historian, has lately followed Marmier and Renan, and now three academical chairs are vacant. Rousset was born in Paris in 1821, and in his earlier life was Professor of History at Grenoble, and afterwards at Paris; first at the Collège Bourbon and later at the Lycée Bonaparte. In 1864 he was appointed historiographer and librarian at the Ministry of War, holding the place till the office was suppressed in 1876. His first historical work, the 'Histoire de Louvois,' which obtained for three years running the Gobert prize, opened the doors of the Academy to him, and in 1871 he succeeded (being the last of Guizot's candidates) to the chair of the unhappy and lamented Prévost-Paradol. In the Academy he was a member, as Renan and Marmier also were, of the Committee on the Dictionary. Rousset's special field of work lay in the military history of France. His chief books, besides the 'Histoire de Louvois,' are his later volumes, 'L'Histoire de la Guerre de Crimée,' and the 'Conquête de l'Algérie.' Of somewhat less importance, perhaps, are his 'Volontaires de 1791-1794,' which cost him his place of historiographer, his 'Grande Armée de 1813,' and several other books. Rousset was a careful and deliberate worker, who made thorough preparation before he wrote; he was to a large extent free from prejudices and "tendencies"; he pronounced few "historical judgments," and came, we suppose, as near to being a scientific historian of the modern sort as any man could who was seventy-odd years old and who began to write fifty years ago.

—Columbus, and no end! The prize of 30,000 pesetas offered by the Spanish Government for the best history of Columbus and his voyages, to be written in connection with the centenary celebrations, has not been awarded. A gratification of 1,000 pesetas has been given to a Belgian, and one of 800 pesetas to a Spaniard, who competed for the first prize, but both unsuccessfully. Numerous works on the same theme have recently been published in Spain. Of these the best is reputed to be that by Don José María Asensio of Toledo, President of the Academy of Seville, and a gentleman of independent fortune, living in that city. Señor Asensio did not compete for the prize above referred to, but merely wrote his book *con amore*. It is handsomely illustrated. Written, as it is, however, in the Spanish language, its contents must remain a sealed book to most English-speaking persons until an English or American publisher can be induced to circulate the work in the vulgar tongue. The Royal Theatre of Munich, Bavaria, celebrated the fourth centenary of the discovery of America on October 12 by a representation of Hermann von Schmid's "Columbus," a tragedy in five acts, which was first put on the stage nearly forty years ago and then very favorably received. To-day the play is hardly less antiquated as a drama than is the caravel, in which Columbus made his first voyage, as a specimen of naval architecture. It is an historical-psychological piece, romantic in character, rather rhetorical in color, and evidently based upon Irving's biography of the famous navigator. The German literary weekly *Blätter für literarische Unterhaltung* (Leipzig: Brockhaus), in its issue of October 13, takes note of the same anniversary by the publication of two articles entitled "Zur Jubelfeier der Entdeckung Amerikas," a critical survey of the most recent works on the subject by Sophus Ruge, and "Vom alten Amerika," a review of John Fiske's 'The Discovery of America' by E. P. Evans. Prof. Ruge, a well known authority, characterizes Winsor's 'Christopher Columbus' as "the best work that North America has contributed to the celebration of the jubilee." Finally, the trustees of the Lenox Library in this city have just issued a volume containing the four oldest Latin versions of Columbus's letter announcing the discovery of the New World, from the original editions owned by the Library. Of these, the rarest, the pictorial edition in ten leaves, is reproduced in facsimile and accompanied by a literal translation. A useful bibliographical introduction by Mr. Wilberforce Eames, assistant librarian, enumerates all the other known editions, and shows how many of these, in the original or in facsimile, are accessible in the Lenox Library. Besides a limited choice edition, there is an all-sufficient popular edition of this volume, from the De Vinne Press, which the Trustees offer bound for the nominal price of 50 cents. We hope they have but begun their good work of sharing their treasures in this way with the public.

ADAMS'S MASSACHUSETTS EPISODES.

Three Episodes of Massachusetts History: The Settlement of Boston Bay; The Antinomian Controversy; A Study of Church and Town Government. By Charles Francis Adams. 2 volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

THOUGH each of the "Episodes" comprised in these volumes is distinct enough to have a unity of its own, it may be said with equal truth that the three episodes, collectively considered, are sufficiently related in their subject-matter to resolve themselves into a sort of historical trilogy, because they have a close mutual relation to each other and form together the age and body of a common epoch. The centre of the historic movement is taken by Mr. Adams from the church and town of Quincy, or perhaps we should say it is taken from Mount Wollaston, the inhabitants of which were erected in 1639 and 1640 into the church and town of Braintree. Until 1708 the Church of Braintree was conterminous with the town of Braintree, but after that date the original settlement became the "North Precinct," and this North Precinct in 1792 was set off from the rest of the town and became the town of Quincy. As Quincy is a suburb of Boston, it was natural that the history of the former should be told in connection with the early settlement of the latter. And as the so-called Antinomian Controversy of 1637 found the two foci of its irregular orbit in Mistress Anne Hutchinson of Boston and in the Rev. John Wheelwright of Mount Wollaston, it is obvious that the whole strain of this episodical history does but come to its highest note in the harsh discords of that tragic chorus. Much of verbal repetition is necessarily incident to the detailed rehearsal of episodes which have a common basis in history, but much of vividness and of distinctness is also gained by lifting each stage of the story into its separate relief.

As Mr. Mellick has shown that a wide tract of our colonial and Revolutionary history can be surveyed from the narrow boundaries of an 'Old Farm' in New Jersey, so Mr. Adams has shown that, in the course of the first 190 years of their municipal life, the towns of Braintree and of Quincy were called to deal in a practical way with almost every one of those questions which, on a larger scale, are wont to perplex statesmen.

"Religious heresies, land-titles, internal improvements and means of communication, education, temperance, pauperism, and the care of the insane; public lands, currency, taxation, and municipal debt—all these presented themselves, and the people assembled in town-meeting had to, and did in some fashion, work out a solution of them. . . . They [the townsmen] were hammering out their destiny in their own way on the hard anvil of commonplace current events; and they paid for their experience as they went along. Their so doing marked an epoch in history."

It is in the towns and town records of Massachusetts, says Mr. Adams, that "the American historical unit is to be sought." He adds:

"The political philosopher can there study the slow development of a system as it grew from the germ up. The details are trivial, monotonous, and not easy to clothe with interest; yet the volumes which contain them are the most precious of archives. Upon their tattered and yellow pages the hardly legible letters of the ill-spelled words are written in ink grown pale with age, but they are all we have left to tell us of the first stages of a political growth which has since ripened into the dominant influence of the New World; nor is it too much to imagine that when the idea of full human self-government, first slowly welded into practical form in the New England towns, and as yet far from perfected, shall have permeated the civilized world and assumed final shape, then these town records will be accepted as second in historical importance to no other description of archives."

Questions of land-titles and of parochial division in Braintree, as here discussed, are seen to have formed, in miniature, the training-school in whose horn-book disciplines the Conscript Fathers of a later day were taught how to deal with local and with continental problems as they arose in the wider field of colonial and Federal politics. "The village theatre of 1700," says Mr. Adams, "was exactly like the national theatre of 1850, excepting only that it was not so large." There were times of battle and "overt acts of secession" which stirred the Quincy community to its lowest depths, long before South Carolina lifted the standard of rebellion and fired on the flag of Fort Sumter. Sometimes the imminent deadly breach was opened by a municipal battle over the apportionment of the minister's salary, and the souls of men were sure to be tried whenever, as the result of ecclesiastical feud, a colony of the saints moved out from one congregation to form another and to raise the frame of a new meeting-house. So true is it, as Bagehot has said in his 'Physics and Politics,' that a national character is but the successful parish character "writ large." And if the debates and customs of the New England town were "monotonous," we have but to remember again, with Bagehot, that "the ages of monotony had their use because they trained men for ages when they need not be monotonous." Mr. Doyle, as we all know, and as Mr. Adams reminds us, has made this latter saying the keynote of his treatise on the 'Puritan Colonies.'

The Massachusetts reader who is familiar with the topography of Boston and its surroundings, especially if he is born to the manner of that metropolis, will naturally find his most vivid interest in the opening Episode of these volumes. The student of politics, especially if he be one who concerns himself with the problems of municipal administration, will find instruction in almost every page of the careful study which Mr. Adams has bestowed on the church and town government of Quincy. But perhaps the general reader, as well inside as outside of Massachusetts, will turn with the most curious interest to the moving story, as here recorded, of that "old unhappy far-off thing," the so-called Antinomian Controversy, and of the "battle long ago" which was once fought over the head of Mistress Anne Hutchinson. The story of "that erroneous gentlewoman," as Cotton Mather called her, has been often told, but never so dramatically and so pathetically as it is recited by Mr. Adams. Cotton Mather, we know, refused even to write out her name in his 'Magnalia,' because of its evil omen, and because she had left behind her so many worthy and useful relations who must needs share in her disgrace if her name were pilloried in his annals. It is true that he hints her real name to us under the cloudy compellation of "the None-Sutch"—that being, he says, the way in which her wedded name was anagrammatized by either her admiring adherents or by her embittered persecutors, according as the former gave her a good, and the latter a bad, eminence. The anagram is useful to-day only for the light it sheds on the rude orthography of the times, as showing that the patronymic of her husband was sometimes spelled "Hutcenson" in the illiterate script of the common people.

The Antinomian Controversy is interesting to-day not only for its dramatic incidents, but also for the lurid light in which it sets the inanity of theological debate among the members of a narrow-minded community, who, from the nature of the case, could have none of that breadth of view which springs from the larger culture wherever men, as Matthew Arnold phrases it, can bring the forces of comprehensive thought and of history to "play around" a given question. The controversy has, besides, an historic significance, because, in some small sense, it marks a distinct step in the evolution of religious thought in New England, where the religious thought of the American mind has moved through a wider arc of oscillation than in any other part of the country. Though Anne Hutchinson was cut off, root and branch, from the fellowship of the Boston church, and though John Wheelwright was sent from Boston to find a "chapel of ease" at Mount Wollaston, until at length he was sent into the outer darkness of a remoter exile, Mr. Adams tells us that in subsequent years the "North Precinct" of Braintree—both as such and as the town of Quincy—"always showed a marked leaning towards a liberal theology, the more noticeable from the contrast in this respect offered to the rigid orthodoxy which ever characterized the South Precinct, still retaining the original name."

Mr. Adams sees very clearly and justly, in his common-sense view of the theological controversy of 1637, that it was nothing more, in its essence, than "a struggle for civil power and ecclesiastical supremacy in a small village community." As such, he adds, "it naturally resulted in a display of the worst qualities of those engaged in it, and illustrated with singular force the malign influence apt to be exercised by the priest and the woman as active elements in political life." At the close of his detailed narrative Mr. Adams sums up the whole controversy in terms so graphic and concise that we cannot do better than quote his own analysis of the whole drama in which Mrs. Hutchinson was called to play her melancholy rôle.

"Stirred by an access of ill-considered popular enthusiasm, the body of the freemen had, at the election of 1636, put a slight upon the time-honored magistrates of the colony, by placing the boyish Vane over their heads in the office of Governor. An ambitious woman, with her head full of Deborahs and the like, and with a genius for making trouble, had then sought to drive from his pulpit in the chief town its long-settled pastor, in order to install her own favorite preacher in his place, with her kinsman [John Wheelwright] as that preacher's associate and successor. In her day-dreams she herself probably occupied in the new order of things she proposed to bring about the position of a prophetess, the real guiding spirit of the whole, with her husband possibly in the Judge's seat. Altogether it was an exhilarating vision—such a vision as self-conscious and usually unappreciated natures have in every time and most places been wont to revel in. But it did so chance that Mrs. Hutchinson fell into just that combination of circumstances which enabled her to succeed up to a certain point. Her success was indeed marvellous, and it turned her head. Presently she became reckless. She put wanton affronts on the pastor, and, when his brethren rallied to his support, she did not hesitate to assail them also. She made enemies of the whole body of the clergy. Vane sympathized with her; Winthrop with them.

"The contest over the possession of civil offices came first, and resulted in an easy conservative triumph. Vane made the best fight he could, but the odds were too heavy, and he went helplessly down. Winthrop was reinstated in his old place, and practically the struggle was then over. . . . Unfortunately there was a woman in the case, and the implacable spirit of theological hate had been aroused. The priesthood demanded a victim, and the victim met the priesthood at least half way. . . . At the hands of an historian

whose intelligence is not mastered by his sympathies, she and her friends, including Gov. Vane, are entitled to no consideration. They went on a fool's errand, and they brought great principles into lasting odium. On the other hand, the way in which the adherents of Vane and Mrs. Hutchinson were suppressed cannot be defended without including in the defence the whole system of religious and political intolerance of that time. But why should it be defended? It is impossible to ignore the fact, and worse than useless to deny it, that the New England Puritans were essentially a persecuting race. They could not be otherwise. They believed that they were God's chosen people. As such they were right; all others were wrong."

It is perhaps hardly fair to ascribe to "theological hate" all the grim judgments that were pronounced on Anne Hutchinson after the Indians set upon her in her exile near the mouth of the Hudson, and slew her with all her family, save one daughter who was carried into captivity. It was common in that day, as well outside the pulpit as inside it, to regard such calamities as the "judgments of God." The still-born and misshapen growths to which she and Mary Dyer are said to have given birth after they had passed through their great fight of afflictions, instead of being ascribed to the natural causes which in their cases were surely quite sufficient to explain them, were, in like manner, supposed to show the visible seals of divine wrath set upon reprobate children of the devil. The Teacher of Galilee found this same invidious form of superstition rife among the Jews in his day, and marked it with his signal condemnation in the case of the "sinners" on whom the tower in Siloam had fallen. His followers in the seventeenth century had not yet learned the charitable lesson of their Master, and his followers in this nineteenth century did not fully learn the charitable lesson until the misjudgments in which they had been suckled were slowly outworn by the teachings and the method of natural science, to which the obligations of true religion are seen to be so great, however parsimonious may sometimes be the acknowledgments of an obscurantist theology.

Mr. Adams could have easily shown, if it had entered into the purposes of his narrative, that the religious and social phenomena of the whole Antinomian controversy of 1637, after due allowance made for changes in their form corresponding to changes of time and place, were but the outcroppings of a mental and religious unrest which is sure to generate similar convulsions wherever that unrest is confined within a narrow sphere and moves in minds of only a limited culture. The controversy moved in religion because religion was the chief concern of the New England Puritan. Through no other medium would it have been possible for Anne Hutchinson to make the "infant commonwealth throb through its whole being." A Church Father has reminded us that the vulgar tradespeople of Byzantium were once distraught by similar disputings over the ineffable mysteries of Christianity. Streams of blood flowed as the result. The schism was here caused, as Hegel explains it in his philosophy of history, by the fact that the Christian dogmatics of Byzantium were rendered powerless for good because they fell into the hands of a people whose culture was too rude to assimilate Christian doctrine into spiritual life and ethical habit.

To the modern mind the issue that was joined in Massachusetts in 1637 over the Covenant of Works and the Covenant of Grace seems sufficiently elusive. The very dialect in which the controversy was carried on has become a meaningless jargon to the men of the present generation. But we are not to infer that the theological speech of 1637 was as wholly unintelligible to the Puritans of Massachusetts as to us. "Rabble-charming words," says Dr. South, "may often have a sort of wildfire wrapped in them," and the "wildfire" wrapped in Anne Hutchinson's mystical terminology may have sometimes lighted the female heresiarch, as well as her partisans and opponents, to some dim sense of what they were all beating the air about. Yet Mr. Adams thinks that it is stating the case none too strongly to say that "all the disputants—ministers, magistrates, elders, and female transcendentalist—were hopelessly lost in a thick fog of indefinable ideas and meaningless phrases; but while all groped their way angrily, numbers and the clatter of tongues were wholly on one side."

It is justly remarked by Mr. Adams that we cannot measure by modern standards the horrors with which excommunication and banishment came to Anne Hutchinson and her family in 1638. Milo, in his exile at Massilia, could still set the table in a roar as he cracked jokes over the bearded mullets about which he wrote so pleasantly to Cicero; and Ovid, in his banishment at the mouth of the Danube, could at least find a solace for his solitude in writing the 'Tristia.' But banishment into the "howling wilderness" of New England in 1638 meant desolation, or famine, or death by the tomahawk, or captivity to Indian enemies, worse than all other woes combined.

The author refuses to accept any of the stock excuses which are commonly interposed for the defence of religious persecution as inflicted by the Puritan forefathers. In the treatment of doubtful historical points there are few things, he thinks, more to be guarded against than "patriotism or filial piety." He thinks it juster, as well as more in accord with the immutable principles of historical criticism, to say, after all due allowances made for the ignorances of the time, that "the Puritans persecuted because they believed to fanaticism, and therefore persecuted as a part of their faith." They could honestly believe that the right to persecute inhered in them alone, because they honestly believed that they alone among their contemporaries were "God's chosen people." Fanaticism has been defined by a German philosopher as "an enthusiasm for something abstract," for any abstract thought or rule which sustains a negative position and a destructive relation to the order of things adverse to it. The Puritans were serious because they took themselves seriously in the presence of any and all obstructions. By their dealings alike with Indians and with heretics they showed, says Mr. Adams, that they were not in advance of their time. "That they were not was again an element of their strength, for they were essentially practical men and not idealists. As such, being of the seventeenth century, they objected to persecution chiefly as applied to themselves."

We regret that we have left ourselves no space in which to discuss Mr. Adams's history and analysis of the New England "town," considered as the historical unit of American polity. Minute as is the dissection to which he subjects that institute, we believe he makes no reference to what Gershom Bulkeley, so early as 1692, instanced as among the fruits of the New England democracy, to wit: "a levelling principle and spirit," which had in his day, so Bulkeley says, "a tang of the Fifth Monarchy"; and this, he adds, is "a very churlish drug." Long after the "churlish drug" of the Fifth Monarchy had ceased to infect the politics of New England, we find constant references to this so-called "levelling spirit" in the writings of John Adams, the letters of Gen. Washington, and the speeches of Elbridge Gerry. This "levelling spirit" is supposed to have come to a head in Shays's Rebellion, and though Mr. Adams makes a detailed reference to that outbreak of popular sedition, he nowhere traces the deeper roots from which it was held at the time to have sprung. The Rebellion is discussed in its salient features and proximate causes, rather than in its remoter antecedents. We miss, too, any allusion to the glowing tribute which Thomas Jefferson paid to the New England towns as factors in practical politics during the Embargo period, doubtless because that tribute is a commonplace of history; but how the town government has broken down under the pressure of modern civilization, with the complexity of its interests and the scientific method required by its instrumentalities, is here expounded at length with great clearness and force. As Napoleon said of financiers adequate to meet the demands of the Empire in his day, the race of capable municipal administrators "remains to be created" in this country.

THE WORK OF BURNE-JONES.

Edward Burne-Jones: A Record and Review. By Malcolm Bell. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THIS is essentially a holiday book—one of which the illustrations are by far the most important part. It is a book of reproductions of Mr. Burne-Jones's works, to which a text has been added because a text of some sort is generally thought necessary to a book. This text consists of five chapters, entitled respectively, "Introductory," "His Birth and Education," "Year by Year," "His Decorative Work," and "His Art and His Critics," besides a "Chronological List of Finished Pictures," and a "List of Cartoons for Stained Glass Windows," as appendices, and an index. The first chapter is a little jubilation over the position Mr. Burne-Jones at present occupies, and the prices fetched by some of his pictures at recent sales; the second gives a few facts about his birth and his art training, or, rather, lack of training; the two following are a bare record of the dates of his works and their exhibition, with little else; the last concerns itself with a defence of the artist against some of the commoner criticisms upon his work, in which the writer, as we shall see, seems to have missed the point.

It is, then, the seventy or eighty photogravures and process cuts after Mr. Burne-Jones's works which make the interest of the book; and as they give a very adequate measure of the talent, in everything but color, of one of the most remarkable creative artists of the day, that interest is very great. That that talent should have been misunderstood and denied was natural enough, and by no means a proof of such denseness of stupidity on the part of public and critics as Mr. Bell imagines. When an original artist has at last mastered his public and compelled recognition, we are all likely to cry out against the ignorance or malice that has delayed the recognition; but we are usually wrong. The world is not so unready to recognize good work when it is once done, but it is natural and necessary that it should require some definite proof that the work is good. Certainly Mr. Burne-Jones has had little to complain of. If he was ridiculed for some of his mannerisms and

peculiarities, he found patrons from the first and was the object of as much enthusiastic admiration as ridicule. Much of the criticism on his earlier work was entirely deserved, and even in his best and most mature productions there are weaknesses and mannerisms which it is perfectly right and natural to point out. Nay, a critic is not necessarily either foolish or malicious because he finds these peculiarities so offensive to his taste as to overbalance his enjoyment of the merits which few would deny. He simply occupies one of the two positions one or other of which every one instinctively takes towards every novelty.

Burne-Jones's earliest pictures were painted under the influence of Rossetti and, by Rossetti's advice, without previous study of any sort; and they show all the imitative tendency and technical weakness that might be expected from such a beginning. The drawing is often childish in the extreme, the execution labored and painful, and the imitation of Rossetti's types and manner very marked. Gradually the imitation becomes less noticeable, and the artist's own style disengages itself; while, by dint of long and serious study, the drawing becomes elegant and refined and the workmanship, though remaining elaborate and detailed in the extreme, becomes broader and more assured. With the "Chant d'Amour," the "Wine of Circe," and other pictures painted in the sixties, he becomes definitely the artist as we know him. Since then he has become steadily more accomplished, and has also accented more and more that tendency to archaism which is so strongly marked in him and which has given offence to his critics.

He had not publicly exhibited for many years when the Grosvenor Gallery was opened in 1877 and the "Angels of Creation," the "Mirror of Venus," the "Beguiling of Merlin," and several minor or unfinished works were shown. Works of so much power and so different from the general run of painting naturally excited much discussion, and it is impossible to deny that there were faults enough to justify the scoffers. *Punch*'s description of the figure of Vivien as "at least twelve heads high" is somewhat of an exaggeration, but she certainly is preternaturally tall, and both her figure and that of Merlin are, or appear, impossibly posed and curiously drawn. Neither could a woman well get her gown into such folds as Vivien's, or walk in it if she did. From the naturalistic, which is the natural, point of view, the picture is absurd enough. But there were also merits of a high and rare kind. There was a great power in the arrangement of lines and great feeling for the beauty and quality of the line in itself, endless invention in intricate and charming detail, a strange mastery of expression, always the same but always interesting. The same type of head, constantly recurring, with the same wistful, wide-eyed, melancholy look, reminds one of the "waters wan" that appear at such brief intervals in the verse of Burne-Jones's great friend, William Morris.

The "Angels of Creation" shows our painter, perhaps, at his very best. The mastery of composition revealed in the constantly varying treatment of the same simple motive, the gradual crowding of the narrow panel as figure after figure is added without the harmony of line or mass ever being disturbed for a moment, the curious invention of plaited fold and woven wings that make his angels seem like strange feathered creatures to whom flying is more natural than walking—all this is wonderful and inimitable. True, the graceful hands and feet are unnaturally long and slender and somewhat boneless; true, that light and shade are absent and the figures are immersed in water rather than in air, so clear and unatmospheric is the effect; true, the sentiment is somewhat lackadaisical and sickly-sweet—true, in a word, that this is art of a highly artificial kind, unrobust and stifling, and that one feels in it as in a hot-house filled with flowers, and longs for a breath of "caller air"; but it *is* art, and art of singular power and perfection within its limits, and its qualities are precisely those ordinarily lacking in the naturalistic and wholly picturesque art of to-day. No wonder that the French, with their legion of good painters who seem not to know what to do with the marvellous realistic power acquired through generations of research, felt that here was something new and different, and worthy of study and of all respect. If Burne-Jones had stopped here, there would be little but praise to give him; but in later works his archaistic tendencies have carried him much farther, with, as we think, regrettable results.

And here is the place to recur to Mr. Bell's defence of the artist against his critics—a defence in which, as we have said, we conceive that he has missed the point of the criticism. It is mainly concerned with charges of "insincerity," affectation, and imitation, and also with the charge that Mr. Burne-Jones is a "literary painter." On this last count of the indictment we acquit at once. Mr. Burne-Jones is always pictorial. He is fond of elaborate allegory and a certain mysticism of thought and under-intention, but artistic expression is always his main aim. As Leigh Hunt, we think it was, said of 'The Faery Queen,' "the allegory will not bite you," and if the work of art is beautiful, we can perhaps forgive the artist for having a meaning. But for the other charges there seems to be more foundation. An unnamed critic has said of "The Annunciation," "The Angel Gabriel . . . is clad in insincere draperies, copied from we know not what quaint mediæval work," and repeats in various forms the charge of imitation. Mr. Bell's defence is that Mr. Burne-Jones's draperies are not copied directly from any original, and that if any one says so he should point out the original. Also, that numerous and careful studies exist for all his works, and that many of these have been exhibited, and that they show that his work is done from nature and not copied from any other artist. All of which is true, but does not in the least affect the point at issue. Mr. Burne-Jones is not accused, as we understand it, of plagiarism, but of *pastiche*, which is a very different thing. One may work from nature with the intention of imitating the style of another artist, and it is this which it seems to us Mr. Burne-Jones has done very often. Nor is it very difficult to name the sources of some of his mannerisms. At first the style of his draperies is only vaguely Italian and fifteenth-century. Then there is a very pronounced imitation of Mantegna. The draperies of the Vivien and others of that type show most distinctly the influence of the Mantuan master. Later, more particularly in his designs for stained glass (the initial on page 23 is a good example), and in the figure of the Angel Gabriel in the picture under discussion, the treatment is inspired by Gothic sculpture. Still later, as in the "Dies Domini," and in the mosaics which he did for the Church of the Holy Trinity at Rome, and, partly, in the "Sponsa di Libano," he has gone back to the Byzantines for his inspiration. Now all this may be justifiable enough, but it certainly gives some cause, if not reason, for criticism. In the case of the mosaics it is certainly largely justifiable, though we cannot help thinking that the imitation is pushed unnecessarily far, and the archaic little angels, with their pointed toes, hanging down from the centre of the dome, are decidedly ridiculous, while the Christ might be as severely decorative and impressive without his curiously ruffled-looking gown. In the "Dies Domini," again, the peculiar pose of the feet, with the ankles drawn together and the toes turned out, and the bad foreshortening, seems to us little less than deliberate affectation without any gain whatever. In this figure, as in the "Sponsa di Libano," the drapery, too, might have had all the composition of line without such rigidity of fold and lack of modelling. The imitation of Byzantine stiffness is pushed to an extreme in the figures of angels from the window in St. Peter's Church, Vere Street, London, where the whole figure is stretched out into impossible length and straightness, the draperies are subdivided into innumerable rigid lines, and the wings are not only unnatural in form but positively ugly and undecorative as well. The drawing of the legs of Mars in one of the designs representing the Seasons is equally meaninglessly archaic.

But when all is said—when one has fully admitted that Burne-Jones is imitative and mannered, that his figures are wonderfully long and thin, that his heads habitually lean forward at nearly a right angle with the spine, that his lack of early training makes his drawing of the nude feebly round and unaccented, that his repetitions of hungry eyes and hollow cheeks and prominent chins are somewhat wearisome, that his types, both of men and women, are epicene—Burne-Jones remains, what we have called him, one of the most remarkable creative artists of the day, and a man of great and undoubted power and originality of design.

We are accustomed to think that the art of stained glass is better understood in this country to-day than elsewhere. Mr. Burne-Jones has executed a large number of designs for glass, and to look at his cartoons gives us pause. In design his windows are as incontestably superior to most of those made in this country as, in color and quality of the material itself, Mr. La Farge's glass is superior to that of Mr. Morris. If design of a power comparable to that of Mr. Burne-Jones could be combined with a color-sense and feeling for the material equal to that of Mr. La Farge, the result would be truly admirable.

There is nothing but praise to give to the reproductions and to the printing and general get up of the book.

RECENT NOVELS.

An Earthly Paragon. By Eva Wilder McGlasson. Harper & Bros.

Prince Serebryani. By Count Alexis Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Jeremiah Curtin. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Nemrod & Cie. Par Georges Ohnet. B. Westermann & Co. (*Nimrod & Co.* Cassell.)

La Terre Promise. Par Paul Bourget. B. Westermann & Co.

'AN EARTHLY PARAGON' is the engaging title of a story clever beyond the average. The title seems, however, to belong to some other novel, since it certainly has nothing to do with this one, and thereby is fostered an agreeable hope that another book may be forthcoming

by the same author. The present story is one of Casey County, Kentucky, without being in the main local literature. The dismalness of the Knob country and the benighted manners and customs of Chamouni, Kentucky, are depicted with rare skill, in swift, masterly touches, yet made accessory to the story of Sylvia Byland's love affairs with a tact deeply satisfying to the sense of proportion. Miss Sylvia's adventures are interesting, and her character not commonplace, although her estimate of herself as "a thin and insufficient person" is justified with great adroitness. She begins by charging herself with forgetting, as she is leaving her old home, that her father lies there in the graveyard; she decides later on that she is "tired of having to form the literary taste of every man she meets"; she ends by saying to the old love, as she is vanishing with the new, "People are happy in marriage in proportion as they are too stupid to find each other out, or clever enough to keep up prenuptial illusions." Such a young woman, it is plainly to be seen, is, in Casey County parlance, "a good entertainer," whatever may be thought of her conclusions. Her uncle, the Captain, is a racy spirit; and her landlady, Mrs. Lichens, is a creation whose pronounced piety is never allowed to interfere with her thoughtful care of herself as a hotel-keeper. "Don't put nare 'nother scrap of lard in thet pan! I keep a hotel, Selesty. Ef folks wants home comferts, let 'em go whar home comferts is." The sauce which she uses to make palatable the fact that her lover is a dolt is the following bit of philosophy: "My Maker's will is mine. So long ez He makes male critters the way He does, all I say is, what suits Him suits me. I don't ast for a man with wings. It's hard enough to keep track of 'em when they walk on legs. God knows whar they'd be ef they could fly!" The main pity of the book is its indirection of style. It contributes at first sight to the subtlety of the thought, but the ideas are really too good to need such artificial aid, and it would be higher art to conceal the art better.

In all the range of Russian literature, there is no work of fiction which so perfectly depicts the life and spirit in the old Tzardom of Muscovy as 'Prince Serebryani.' The chief difficulty with Russian historical novels consists in the superabundance of historical material, more or less misunderstood or "arranged" according to the writer's ideas of patriotism, and in the discouraging lack of literary qualities. Although 'Prince Serebryani' was Count Alexis Tolstoi's first work, and remained his sole attempt at writing in the form of a novel, it satisfies the critic from every point of view. The author possessed himself thoroughly of the prejudices, superstitions, and atmosphere of the days of Ivan the Terrible, in his later and worst stage, the stage of the Oprítchina. In the warring opinions of historians as to the character of Ivan and of his immediate adherents and favorites, the Count has chosen the most popular, which is the worst, and has placed it before the reader with all the dash and movement demanded by sensational writing, without in the least marring the sentimental interest or the highest demands of style. His language is idiomatic and characteristic of his nation and the age of which he writes, in a high degree. For this reason, if for no other, Mr. Curtin's new translation deserves a welcome. The book is not unknown to the English-reading public, having been published in London, in 1874, in a translation from the pen of the Princess Galitzine. The Princess's rendering was extremely polished and refined; it gave the substance, but frequently skipped whole phrases if they did not fit in with the style which she thought adapted to the subject. She omitted the characteristic oaths altogether, partly, no doubt, from the difficulty she found in getting their equivalents, and partly, also, from that peculiar sense of propriety which is not unknown in America, and which induced the publisher of Gogol's 'Taras Bulba' to insist that that rugged hero should be made to say "Satan!" or "The Evil One!" instead of ripping out the original and impregnably Scriptural word "The Devil!" Mr. Curtin suffers from no such absurd qualms of conscience; but he does suffer from an inability to translate idioms, whether they be oaths or ordinary expressions. For example, the favorite ejaculation of Prince Serebryani's faithful squire, Mibeich, is, "Tetka ikh podkoratina." Mr. Curtin dodged the difficulty, at first, by omitting it altogether, *à la* Galitzine. Later on, finding it recur incessantly, it became evident to him that this procedure would not answer; he accordingly presents it to us as, "Their aunt is a chicken!" The true sense is contained in the old English objurgation, "A murrain on them!" He makes a similar mistake in another frequently repeated expression, "Old horseradish," which should read, "Old dotard." He always fails to translate "gubnoi starosta," evidently because he does not know the meaning.

It cannot be said, in sweeping generalities, that the book is badly translated, but it can be said that the work is very hasty and ill-digested, and that the reader will have great difficulty in grasping the author's meaning at times, because of too literal renderings as well as because of absolute errors in the Russian or the English. As instances of the manner in which the translator fails to get out of the text all there is in it of characteristic or delicate shading, we may cite the following: "Servants" given instead of "bondmen"; "dance," instead of "choral dance," the survival among the peasants of the ancient Greek dances; "eagle" as contrasted with falcons, instead of "gentle" or "gerfalcon"; "velvet," instead of "brocade," the old Russian brocades being a specialty, interwoven with gold and silver, which "velvet" fails to indicate; "building," instead of "log-building," which is all that existed at that date, with very few exceptions; "leggings," instead of "foot cloths." What can the reader make of the following too-literal idioms? "I beat to thee with the forehead," meaning, "I bow my head to the earth before thee in supplication"; "and the ransom equal between us," instead of "we'll go shares on the ransom;" "with a half voice," instead of "in a low tone"; "gave Morozoff with his head," etc., instead of "placed Morozoff's life at Godunoff's absolute disposal"; "we have cooked kasha," instead of "we have made a mess of it"; "hard work for thee to get out," instead of, "we've had a hard time to get you out," and so on, *ad libitum*. Admitting the difficulty which a translator is under, of keeping his own language in his head while contending with foreign idioms, "ye art" and other slips of the same sort must be regarded as grave defects.

In spite of all defects, however, it was worth while to make a new translation of this fascinating book, and it is worth while to read it, though the public will find it rather hard work in places like those of which we have given specimens. Mr. Curtin has furnished a very interesting introduction, setting forth the historical antecedents of Moscow and Ivan the Terrible, and stating the conditions, political and otherwise, at the time shown in the novel. He incorporates some rather remarkable statements on the principles which governed the accession to the throne of Kieff, and to the thrones of the lesser principalities, in the days of the appanage princes. The uninitiated seeker after knowledge would certainly conclude, from what is here said, that these appanage princes packed up their crowns and sceptres when the Grand Prince of Kieff died, and walked on to the next higher principality which legally fell to them, with the utmost courtesy and decorum. As a matter of fact, what happened on the demise of the Grand Prince resembled a game of "stage-coach," with swords thrown in. It was rare that a single prince could be found among them who was occupying the right throne, and his tenure was very insecure, even after he had consigned all competitors, including his nearest relatives, to damp mother earth. That this was the case is proved by one of Mr. Curtin's paragraphs, which is correct, to the effect that, in the course of 170 years, 293 princes struggled for the Kieff or for other principalities, and that there were eighty-three civil wars, in some of which the whole country took part.

Aristocrats, of course, are the heroes and heroines of Obnet's latest vapid novel. The subject is a commonplace love intrigue; the characters, the situations, and some of the descriptions are a rehash of Halévy's Abbé Constantin, Balzac's Baron Hulot, and Daudet's Numa Roumestan, done up into an imitation of Feuillet's Maxime Odiot, Marquis de Champcey d'Hauterive. The author is wholly wrong in his conception of an impoverished noble living in the province, and while he desires to have his readers look upon Clément as a consistent, high-toned gentleman, he merely succeeds in presenting to them a very inconsistent cad. Of character-drawing, of analysis, there is properly none; the French is mostly bastard, largely interlarded with English words, and the drift of the book is anti-Semitic. But it will have readers, and abundance of them, for platitudes are apt to command a large audience.

Far different is Bourget's book; not, perhaps, his masterpiece as novelist, it is unquestionably a marvellous piece of analysis—an analysis of feelings, of thoughts, of contradictions carried so far, indeed, that it ends by causing positive pain to the reader. After a few pages one feels as if he were present at the dissection of a dead body: then as if it were his own body—senseless, it is true; but before long it is vivisection, and the nerves are well-nigh agonized by the high tension at which Bourget keeps them. It is a triumph for the writer, though not an enviable one; it is downright misery for the reader to be compelled to follow, to suffer, this minute and pitiless work of the scalpel. To a certain extent the novel is after the pattern of the plays of Dumas *fils*: it discusses a problem arising from that immorality so readily condoned, nay, approved, by Bourget and most French novelists. The hero is a weak man, with a strong tendency to self-torture by self-inquisition. He loves, and is engaged to, a lovely, innocent girl, a figure such as one does not too often find in Bourget; but he has a complication, of course, in a former *liaison* with a married woman, a *liaison* broken off by him, in a fit of jealous rage, some eight or ten years earlier. They meet again in the same hotel where the hero and his *fiancée* are staying, and the former acts much like a fool on discovering that his former mistress is a widow with an only child. He persuades himself that the child is his—hence the problem: Is he to devote his life to his prospective bride or to the

child? Logically enough, he is shipwrecked between the two alternatives, and the only sympathy one can accord him is that springing from the community of suffering under Bourget's remorseless, tireless analysis of moods and thoughts and motives.

The curious thing is, that on a subject which would generally be called immoral, Bourget has written a novel which conveys a deeply moral lesson, more simply inculcated in the words, "Be sure your sin will find you out." But the hero, such as he is, suffers apparently not because of his real sin, but because he has assumed that a woman who betrays a husband for a lover may also desert the latter for a third man. This is evidently Francis Nayrac's crime, in Bourget's eyes, and it is for this that he is condemned to the loss of that *Terre Promise* of earthly happiness of which he had caught t o brief a glimpse. Of the literary art with which the story is told, of the skill with which the changes in the lives of the personages are shown, of the exquisite poetical beauty of the descriptions of natural scenery, it need only be said that they are in Bourget's best vein; but, excellent as they are, they do not lessen, rather they heighten, the repulsive features which have been hinted at, and confirm the fast-growing opinion that Bourget as a critic is vastly superior to Bourget as a novelist.

The New Life of Dante Alighieri. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

PROF. NORTON has done well to bring out, in uniform style with his translation of the 'Divine Comedy,' his well-known translation of 'The New Life.' It was in 1859 that the latter first appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and was subsequently reissued in a small edition. Since then Mr. Norton has thoroughly revised it, the revision extending not merely to word and phrase, but to the whole structure of the translation, for whereas this was originally accompanied by a running commentary, the translation is now printed separately, and the commentary is placed in short essays and notes at the end of the volume. That this is the preferable arrangement no one can question; for no reader cares to be interrupted at every paragraph by the explanations of even the most sympathetic of expounders. That the 'New Life' requires expounding, at least for the majority of readers, is equally certain. In it are crystallized the dominant qualities not only of Dante himself, but also of his age; the modern turns in wonder from the unrivalled beauty of its poetry to the hard, dogmatic syllogizing of its prose, and he can but doubt whether poems so fresh and spontaneous were really begotten in the mechanical way Dante describes. But this, we repeat, is one of the paradoxes of Dante and his time, both of which are made clearer in Mr. Norton's elucidating essays and notes.

Of the verbal changes which Mr. Norton has made in this latest revision it is not necessary to speak in detail; they indicate, of course, the maturing of his taste, and in most cases they are improvements on the early version. How excellent his translation of the poems—the incomparable poems—is, can best be appreciated by readers familiar with the difficulty of putting them into English with any adherence to the compactness of the originals. Even Rossetti does not, it seems to us, equal Mr. Norton as a translator of many of these poems. Compare, for instance, their respective versions of the sonnet "Tanto gentile e tanto onesta pare," which Rossetti renders thus:

"My lady looks so gentle and so pure
When yielding salutation by the way,
That the tongue trembles and has naught to say,
And the eyes, which fain would see, may not endure.
And still, amid the praise she hears, secure
She walks, with humbleness for her array;
Seeming a creature sent from Heaven to stay
On earth, and show a miracle made sure.
She is so pleasant in the eyes of men
That through the sight the inmost heart doth gain
A sweetness which needs proof to know it by:
And from between her lips there seems to move
A soothing essence that is full of love,
Saying forever to the spirit, 'Sigh!'"

Norton's version is:

"So gentle and so modest doth appear
My lady when she giveth her salute,
That every tongue tecometh, trembling, mute;
Nor do the eyes to look upon her dare.
Although she hears her praises, she doth go
Benignly vested with humility;
And like a thing come down, she seems to be,
From heaven to earth, a miracle to show.
So pleaseth she whoever cometh nigh,
She gives the heart a sweetness through the eyes,
Which none can understand who doth not prove.
And from her countenance there seems to move
A spirit sweet and in Love's very guise,
Who to the soul, in going, sayeth: Sigh!"

This is not only closer to the letter and spirit of the Italian, but also, it seems to us, more melodious than Rossetti's. The 'New Life' is to the 'Divine Comedy' what the Sonnets are to Shakspere's chief plays; and we can but rejoice that through a translation so excellent a new generation of readers are to become acquainted with Dante's own story of his youth and passion.

A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles the Second (le Comte de Cominges). From his unpublished correspondence. By J. J. Jusserand, Conseiller d'Ambassade. With portraits. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

THE title of this book seemed to promise entertainment for the lovers of historical gossip, perhaps for the lovers of scandal. But the promise is not fulfilled. Indeed, if we except some nice portraits—one, particularly, of the Countess of Grammont, from the picture by Lely—it is difficult to say what there is in it new or important. It throws no fresh light, so far as we can see, on diplomatic relations. The Comte de Cominges, the Ambassador on whose correspondence it is based, was an observer as well as a diplomatist, and he may have had a good deal to tell about England and its court; but it is not reproduced in this notice. The murderous and disgraceful battle for precedence fought in the streets of London between the trains of the French and Spanish Ambassadors took place in the time of D'Estrades, the predecessor of De Cominges. It was already known to us from Pepys, and all that we now learn is that this piece of barbarism had the perfect approval of that demigod of grand manners, Louis XIV.

Here and there we pick up something of interest. De Cominges knew not a word of English, whence it appears that French was already established as the language of diplomacy and of courts. Hobbes was recognized and pensioned, or set down for a pension, by the French King as *assertor regum*, which he was in a certain sense, but not by any means in Louis's sense; for the 'Leviathan,' instead of being the embodiment, was the very negation, of divine right. It is rather pleasant to know that Charles II., with all his Castlemaines and Nell Gwyns, was really afflicted by the dangerous illness of his queen. But the license, not of polygamy but of polygyny, was completely established in the case of kings, and the open installation of a mistress or of half-a-dozen mistresses was deemed perfectly compatible with conjugal duty to the official wife. So respectable a person as Arthur Young asks, "Who, in the name of common sense, would find fault with a king for amusing himself with a mistress?" Cominges studied English institutions and sent a report on them to his master, who, of course, found in it a warning. The Ambassador is much impressed by the British Navy. We get in this book some account of the Great Plague from a fresh point of view. But the portraits seem to us the best of it.

The Story of Uganda and the Victoria Nyanza Mission. By Sarah G. Stock. With fifteen illustrations. F. H. Revell Co.

THE strongest impression made by this book is as to the superiority of the people of Uganda over the other native African races. This is shown not only in their houses, their clothing, their army, their organized government, their skill in metal-working, but also in their eagerness to learn to read and the steadfastness with which they held to their faith when once they had accepted Christianity. Their country is the geographical centre of the continent, and, though lying directly upon the equator, is so elevated that it has a particularly healthy climate, "the temperature rising but little above 80 degrees Fahr., and seldom sinking below 60 degrees at night." Considering the importance of its position, the fertility of its soil, and the character of its inhabitants, there can be no question that, when once safe and easy communication with the coast is secured, it will become a rich and powerful State. Its history may be said to begin with the arrival, in 1877, of the first missionaries in response to King Mtesa's appeal made through Mr. Stanley, and for the next ten years the efforts to Christianize Uganda constitute nearly all of its history which is of general interest. The share of the English mission in this work is all that our author undertakes to relate, though in the number of their converts the French priests, who came in 1879, were by far the most successful. Her story in many respects is very similar to that of missions in other parts of the heathen world. The dangers, discouragements, superstitions to be overcome, the self-denying toil, the patient waiting—it was five years before a native was baptized—and the final success, are common to all alike. The main points of difference are the fact of the eagerness of the ruling caste to be instructed in Christian doctrine, and that, in the fierce persecution with which it was sought to stamp out the new faith, many who suffered were very young. The first victims were three boys, "one aged fifteen, the youngest only eleven or twelve," who were first mutilated and then burned. It is to be regretted that some of the numerous extracts from diaries and letters had not been omitted in order to make room for a fuller account of the events of the past three years—the revolutions, the civil war between the Catholics and Protestants, and the action of the officials of the British East African Company. In this way, and by a less frequent use of Biblical language and metaphor on the author's part, the value of her book would have been increased and a wider range of readers secured. It is also to be regretted that the

excellent map in the English edition has been omitted by the American publishers.

The Battles of Frederick the Great, abstracted from Thomas Carlyle's biography of Frederick the Great. Edited by Cyril Ransome, M. A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. 237, with maps and illustrations.

MILITARY men who have read Carlyle's 'Frederick' have been struck with the clear grasp of the military situations and the strong and accurate presentation of both strategy and grand tactics in the battle stories. It need not be said that Carlyle's word pictures are vivid in the highest degree; but it is one of the best proofs of the sincerity of his literary work that he mastered the topography of Frederick's campaigns and analyzed his movements, so that this portion of the biography is no whit inferior to the rest in exhaustive study of the best authorities, and a trustworthy statement of the facts. It was, therefore, a happy thought of his publishers to separate these war pictures from the many-volumed work, and to give in a single little book a series of battle descriptions which it would be hard to match. Frederick's wars are classic material for the military student of the present day, and such a one may here find the means to understand them clearly and to feel them as if he were present. In little things and in peaceful events, Carlyle is often extravagant to the verge of grotesqueness; but the din of battle seems to call for such a seer to describe it. His dramatic power is here at its best, his Titanic epithets fit the scene, and his masterful and rugged manner makes us willing listeners.

Prof. Ransome furnishes introductory statements, connecting the chapters by brief but sufficient outlines of the current history of the campaigns, so that the relation of events to each other may not be missed. The maps are reduced from the standard English edition of Carlyle's works, and, besides the general chart, comprise fourteen maps of battle-fields. The illustrations, as to uniforms and equipments, are taken from the Menzel drawings in the German Imperial edition of Frederick's works. In every way, therefore, the inexpensive volume is unusually attractive.

Barbara Fritchie: A Study. By Caroline H. Dall. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THOUGH Mrs. Dall yields to none in admiration for Whittier, she has undeniably provided opportunity for the caviller in this study, which she characterizes as a leaf dropped into an open grave. All the testimony contained in the volume goes to prove that of the persons of note who have come to be associated with the memory of the well-to-do glover's widow, the only one who does not fill the measure of poetic ideals is no other than the poet himself. Mrs. Dall has had printed, as a sort of corollary to the study, with the "assertions that are mistaken" italicized, the ballad which more than a score of years ago made the name of Barbara Fritchie a household word in Northern homes. Of the thirty rhymed couplets of which it consists, no less than six are wholly in italics, while in five others the accusatory lettering is conspicuous. As these mistakes falsify not only local history but also the tone and temper of a brave contemporary of Whittier's, who gave his life for his political convictions, the poet's truest admirers will be the first to join in the regret he is here recorded to have quite lately expressed—regret at having written this the only poem for the truth of which he could not vouch.

There is little besides this paradoxical feature to criticise in a timely and interesting contribution to the growing files of Americana. In spite of the various attempts to deny her patriotism and even her identity, there can be no doubt that in the year 1862 there did live in the border town of Frederick, in Maryland, this dauntless old patriot of German descent but American birth, in whom loyalty amounted to a passion, and who expressed her passion with a simple fervor that reached its climax and made her a heroine when she was ninety-five years old. Though the challenge to the Confederate soldiers that has heated the imagination of youth is apocryphal, though her flagstaff was struck by no bullet, but at most loosened from its support in the window, and though Stonewall Jackson's memory is as unscathed as was she herself by the ignoble firing, the picture of the brave old woman standing in the face of danger beside the flag she loved, in the early September dawn, is one that the annals of patriotism will not willingly let fade. It is pleasant to learn as a sequel that she shared with another country-loving nonagenarian, the Rev. Joseph Trapnell, the tribute of a ringing cheer from Gen. Reno and his men, as, flag in hand, she stood at her door when the Union troops entered Frederick a few days after the memorable 6th.

The question upon which the authenticity of the central episode of the study turns is chiefly one of topography. Mrs. Dall has given a drawing of the locality of Barbara's house—unhappily destroyed in 1868 by a corporation that had not learned the value to a town of its landmarks—as well as a print of the house and one of Barbara herself, both taken from photographs. The local sketch shows the route of the brief but eventful détour made by Gen. Jackson from the head of his troops on the morning of the firing. The pleasant description of Frederick and its surroundings, added to the painstaking collocation of evidence, leaves nothing to be desired save the testimony of possible living witnesses, into whose hands it is to be hoped the monograph may fall.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albee, John. Prose Idyls. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Allan, William. The Army of Northern Virginia in 1862. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.

Austen, Jane. Northanger Abbey. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.

Babyland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.

Bartlett, Rev. E. T., and Peters, Rev. J. P. Scriptures, Hebrew and Christian. Vol. III. Putnams. $2.

Beeching, Rev. H. C. Faith: Eleven Sermons. London: Percival & Co.

Blades, William. Books in Chains, and Other Bibliographical Papers. Armstrong. $1.25.

Blake, Rev. J. V. Natural Religion. Sermons. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.

Bolton, H. C. Scientific Correspondence of Joseph Priestly. Edward F. Brown.

Boyesen, H. H. The Golden Calf. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 50 cents.

Brann, Rev. H. A. John Hughes, First Archbishop of New York. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.

Brooke, Stopford A. The History of Early English Literature. Macmillan. $2.50.

Brookfield, A. M. The Speaker's A B C. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Broughton, Rhoda. Mrs. Bligh. Appletons. $1.

Brownell, W. C. French Art: Classic and Contemporary Painting and Sculpture. Scribners. $1.25.

Butterworth, H. In the Boyhood of Lincoln. Appletons.

Butterworth, H. Little Arthur's History of Rome. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.

Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys on the Mississippi. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.

Cardwill, Mary E. Cameos from Ruskin. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.

Champney, Elizabeth W. Three Vassar Girls in the Holy Land. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Chaplin, Stewart. Principles on the Law of Wills, with Selected Cases. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.50.

Chatterbox for 1892–93. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.

Chester, Eliza. The Unmarried Woman. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Churchill, William. A Princess of Fiji. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Coffin, C. C. Life of Abraham Lincoln. Harpers.

Dean, Mrs. Andrew. A Splendid Cousin. Cassell. 50 cents.

Dodge, Grace H. Thoughts of Busy Girls. Cassell. 50 cents.

Dulles, C. W. Accidents and Emergencies. 4th ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.

Dunn, Sinclair. The Art of Singing. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Ebner-Eschenbach, Marie von. Beyond Atonement. Worthington Co.

Espinasse, Francis. Life of Voltaire. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.

Flagg, J. B. The Life and Letters of Washington Allston. Scribners.

Fontaine, Francis. The Modern Pariah: A Story of the South. Atlanta: The Author. 50 cents.

Foote, Mrs. Mary H. The Chosen Valley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Franay, Gabriel. Mon Chevalier. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Francis, L. H. The Boys of Murthfield Academy. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.

Frederic, H. The New Exodus: A Study of Israel in Russia. Putnams. $2.50.

Frederick, Prof. F. F. Architectural Rendering in Sepia. W. T. Comstock. $3.

Gaye, Selina. The Great World's Farm. Macmillan. $1.50.

Gentleman Upcott's Daughter. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Gleanns and Echoes. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.

Golf in the Year 2000. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Good, Arthur. Magical Experiments; or, Science in Play. Worthington Co.

Gordon, Alexander. The Folks o' Carglin; or, Life in the North. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Green, J. R. A Short History of the English People. Illustrated ed. Vol. I. Harpers.

Greenwood, Alice D. Empire and Papacy in the Middle Ages. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.

Habberton, J. All He Knew. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 50 cents.

Hamilton, Rev. J. B. From the Pulpit to the Poor-House. Hunt & Eaton. $1.

Hankin, Mary L. Year by Year. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Hansen-Taylor, Mrs. Marie. Letters to a Young Housekeeper. Scribners. $1.25.

Harris, Prof. Charles. German Lessons. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.

Harrisse, Henry. Christophe Colomb devant L'Histoire. Paris: H. Welter.

Henderson, E. F. Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

Herndon, W. H., and Weik, J. W. Abraham Lincoln; The True Story of a Great Life. 2 vols. Appletons.

Hill, Prof. A. S. The Foundations of Rhetoric. Harpers.

Hocking, S. K. Where Duty Lies. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.

Holmes, Mrs. Mary J. Red-Bird's Christmas Story. G. , Dillingham.

Hueffer, H. F. The Shifting of the Fire. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Ibsen, H. Peer Gynt: A Dramatic Poem. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.

Irving, W. Conquest of Granada. 2 vols. Putnams. $6.

Jacobs, Joseph. Indian Fairy Tales. Putnams. $1.75.

Jones, L. E. The Best Reading. Fourth Series. Putnams. $1.

Kimball, Hannah P. The Cup of Life, and Other Verses. Boston; J. G. Cupples Co.

Kimball, R. D. Virginia Randall. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.

Kenn, Cleveden. Down in the Flats; or, Party before Fitness. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Lamb, Charles and Mary. Tales from Shakspere. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $2.50.

Lang, Andrew. The Library. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.50.

Laurie, André. Schoolboy Days in Russia. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.

Lewis, Eleanor. Famous Pets of Famous People. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $3.

Loftie, W. J. The Inns of Court and Chancery. Macmillan. $7.50.

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Mariette, Auguste. Outlines of Ancient Egyptian History. Scribners. $1.

Marion, Henri. L'Education dans l'Université. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

McCarthy, J., and Pennell, J. Charing Cross to St. Paul's. Macmillan. $2.

McClellan, Mrs. George. Broken Chords. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

Meyer, Kuno. The Vision of MacConglinne: A Middle-Irish Wonder Tale. London: David Nutt.

Moltke: His Life and Character Sketched in Journals, Letters, Memoirs, a Novel and Autobiographical Notes. Harpers.

Montgomery, Walter. Tales of Ancient Troy and the Adventures of Ulysses. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Musset, Alfred de. The Confession of a Child of the Century. Chicago: C. H. Sergel & Co. $1.25.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Makers of Venice. Extra Illustrated. Macmillan. $6.
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Reynolds, S. H. The Table Talk of John Selden. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Rhodes, J. F. History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850. 2 vols. Harpers.
Richards, Laura E. Captain January. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Rives, Amélie. Barbara Dering. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Roberts, Morley. King Billy of Ballarat, and Other Stories. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Robinson, W. Garden Design and Architects' Gardens. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Rowland, W. D. How to Become an Expert at Figures. W. D. Rowland.
Ruskin, J. Aratra Pentelici. Brantwood ed. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $2.75.
Russian Stories. 2 vols. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Rylance, Rev. J. H. A Tribute to Tennyson. Brentanos. 25 cents.
Saint Hilaire, Philippe. Colette. London: T. Fisher Unwin. $1.
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Salt, H. S. Animals' Rights, considered in relation to Social Progress. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Seiffert, Rudolph. Consumption and Kochine. Part II. Chicago: Ed. Ackermann & Co. $1.25.
Smith, George. Henry Martyn, Saint and Scholar. Fleming H. Revell Co. $3.
Smith, Lyman D. How to Teach Writing. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Snow, Isabel. The School of Art. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Spear, Mary A. Leaves and Flowers: Plant Studies for Young Readers. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Steele, Frances M., and Adams, Elizabeth L. S. Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Stephens, H. M. Albuquerque. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Stephenson, H. M. Livy, Book VI. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Steuding, H. Griechische und Römische Mythologie. Stuttgart: G. F. Göschen; New York: International News Co.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773–83. Vol. XV. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stewart, J. A. Notes on the Nicomachean Ethics of Aristotle. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $8.
Stock, Sarah G. The Story of Uganda. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Stockton, F. R. The Clocks of Rondaine, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Stoddard, R. H. Under the Evening Lamp. Scribners. $1.25.
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Symonds, J. A. Life of Michaelangelo Buonarotti. 2 vols. Scribners. $12.50.
Talmage, Rev. T. DeW. Ready! Ay, Ready! Philadelphia: Historical Publishing Co. $1.
Taussig, Prof. F. W. State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
Teal, Angelina. Muriel Howe. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Teall, F. H. English Compound Words and Phrases. New ed. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $2.50.
Tennyson, Lord. The Death of Œnone, and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Tennyson, Lord. The Holy Grail. Drawings by W. L. Taylor. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.
The Armies of To-Day. Illustrated. Harpers.
The Letter of Columbus on the Discovery of America: A Facsimile. The Lenox Library. 50 cents.
The Magazine of Art. 1892. Cassell. $5.
The Memories of Dean Hole. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan. $4.
The Merchant of Venice. [Riverside Literature Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
The Universal Atlas. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Van Daell, Prof. A. N. La Cigale chez les Fourmis. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Verity, A. W. Milton's Paradise Lost, Books V. and VI. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wagner, L. Names and their Meaning. New and revised ed. Putnams. $1.50.
Wallace, A. R. Land Nationalization: Its Necessity and Aims. Scribners. $1.
Wallace, W. The Logic of Hegel. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Walsh, W. S. Handy-Book of Literary Curiosities. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.
Ward, E. St. Dunstan's Clock; A Story of 1666. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ward, Julius H. The Life and Times of Bishop White. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Wells, J. The Teaching of History in the Schools. B. Westermann & Co. 15 cents.
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White, Eliza O. Winterborough. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 1, 1892.

The Week.

THE annual report of the Treasurer of the United States is as clear as a Chinese puzzle. It has been "submitted to Secretary Charles Foster," and it will remain for that lucid financier to reconcile its statements with his own official reports. For example, Treasurer Nebeker reports the revenue of the Government for the last fiscal year at $354,937,784, and the expenditures at $345,023,320; from Secretary Foster's office the figures had been given out as $356,933,302 and $361,348,669 respectively. The difference appears to be due to the fact that Mr. Nebeker has calmly left out the Treasury transactions on the score of the national-bank deposit and redemption funds — on which there was a net deficit of about $13,500,000 for the year—and thus transformed a general and actual deficit of $4,500,000 into an apparent but fictitious surplus of $9,000,000. But he is not consistent even in this misleading method, since, if he had followed it in his comparison of this year's expenditures with last, he would have found the decrease not, as he says, $10,349,354, but $20,750,575. It is waste of time to discuss seriously such juggling figures.

Towards the close of last summer's gold-export movement the outlook for the Federal Treasury's gold reserve became a question of grave concern. In the later weeks of August the Treasury's gold surplus, in excess of the $100,000,000 reserve, had sunk to little more than $10,000,000. There seemed to be some reason for fearing the total wiping out of this surplus, and the Micawber-like cheerfulness of Secretary Foster did little service in dispelling misgivings. The turn came, however, at the moment when the outlook was darkest. Up to that date the Treasury had been paying out gold to specie exporters in exchange for United States notes and Treasury notes. This had necessarily drawn down the surplus gold reserve with great rapidity. In September precisely the reverse movement took place. The New York banks needed currency and legal-tenders to supply the needs of the Western harvest season. This currency could be obtained only from the Treasury, and in exchange for it the banks were forced to pay out gold. Under this operation, $15,000,000 additional gold was added to the Treasury's "free surplus," which on November 9 reached its maximum of $25,500,000 over the hundred-million reserve. But, the harvest season ended, this source of mechanical supply was stopped. For the last three weeks the gold reserve at Washington has been slowly but steadily falling, and the resumption of gold exports, at so very unusual a period in the year, brings the question once more to public attention. This is the more necessary in that the month of January, even without an export of specie, is always marked by a diminishing specie reserve. The Treasurer's report is careful to point this out. There are many elements rising to present notice in our Government finance which point without exception to the checking of the source of all this monetary confusion. The plea for the immediate repeal of the Sherman Act of 1890 cannot at any rate lack unmistakable arguments.

The plan for dealing with the silver question proposed by Mr. Alfred de Rothschild in the Brussels Conference has a touch of opéra-bouffe beyond anything in the suggestions of modern finance, unless the subtreasury scheme of the Farmers' Alliance may be deemed the more amusing of the two. We are not at all surprised that the American delegates are "thoroughly satisfied with the turn of events." Anything which draws attention away from them and turns the laugh on somebody else would naturally be considered a good thing. He proposes that the United States shall continue to buy 54,000,000 ounces of silver per year, and that all the other nations together shall buy $25,000,000 worth per year for five years — this by way of palliating the crisis which he believes will come if the United States, in a fit of desperation, begins to sell her hoard of silver. If silver reaches 43d. per ounce at any time, the buying is to stop. Why so? At 43d. per ounce our precious silver dollar would be worth only 75 cents. Why should we consent to a stoppage short of par? Why should Mr. Jones, as President of the Nevada Mining and Milling Company, consent to such a shave? And nothing is said about the situation five years hence. Since there are mines in Colorado that can turn out silver in large quantities at 26 to 30 cents per ounce, *i. e.*, at one-third of Mr. Rothschild's maximum, it is a safe bet that they will continue to furnish it as long as any syndicate of nations stands ready to take it at 90 cents and upwards. They will be as well prepared in the year 1897 as they are now, and meanwhile, perhaps, new mines will be discovered in America or Australia that may add their quota to the present gayety and the coming gloom. For it may be expected that in 1897 the situation will be as much worse than it is now as the holdings of silver will be larger then than they are now.

Republican prophets of trouble between Mr. Cleveland and the office-seekers of his party are having hard luck with their prognostications. They had a grand time for a week or more after election with predictions about the terms of the bargain that he had made with Croker, Sheehan, and Murphy at that celebrated Victoria Hotel dinner. Croker was put in charge of the Custom-house, "Paddy" Divver was assigned to the New York Post-office, and "Barney" Martin was about to be "slated" for the English Mission, when the Brooklyn *Eagle* ruined the entire industry by publishing the fact that no bargain had been made and no pledges of any kind given. The prophets died very hard on this issue, but they finally abandoned it by turning upon their sad and dejected ally, the *Sun*, and demanding fiercely why it had thus lied to them about it. No response came from that cave of gloom save some incoherent mutterings about Mugwumps. On Saturday a new source of trouble for Mr. Cleveland was discovered in a rumor that Senator Gorman had called a conference of Democrats, which was to decide upon a plan for "steering Cleveland" in his party policy, including the distribution of offices. This was worked with great success on Sunday and again on Monday, but it has been destroyed for further use by the announcement from Senator Gorman that he has no knowledge of such a conference, and never heard of it till he saw the news of it in the papers. Other Democratic statesmen who were assigned to leading parts in the conference, hasten to say that they have no knowledge of it. There seems to be, in fact, a disposition among Democratic statesmen to avoid the appearance of offering themselves as "steerers" for Mr. Cleveland, the not unnatural impression being that he is quite able to steer himself.

The complete calm which has followed Mr. Cleveland's farewell address to the office-seekers, issued on the eve of his departure for the South, is a fresh demonstration of the great value of courage in politics. No previous President-elect ventured to issue such an address, no matter how unbearable may have been the torture to which he was subjected. Now that it has been done, everybody is able to see the wisdom of it. The politicians and newspapers together would soon have had the new President involved in such a furious scramble for office that he would not have had a moment's time for anything else. Furthermore, the fury of the onslaught would have increased with every day's progress, so that by the time the 4th of March arrived, the Democratic party would have been in much the same condition that the Republican party was in when Garfield was inaugurated. By stopping the business when he did, and in the unmistakable manner that he did, Mr. Cleveland has saved his party from the danger of a rup-

ture before it succeeded to power, and has done a great deal towards quieting permanently the craze for office throughout the country. The descent of office-seekers upon Washington after the inauguration will be much smaller than it would have been had the address not been issued, and will be much smaller than it was four years ago, after President Harrison had announced in his inaugural that efforts would be made to give all applicants something. Mr. Cleveland is evidently in a much less approachable temper than Mr. Harrison was, and we trust he will continue in it after March 4. In the meantime, he has done the country a great service in not merely "scaring off" the office-seekers, but in silencing also the newspapers which were doing their utmost to excite the hungry to greater fury.

Senator Vest of Missouri opposes the idea of an extra session, on the ground that "the first few months of Mr. Cleveland's Administration will be taken up by the work of organization and filling the offices with new appointees." Of course a new President of the United States encounters at the outset "the work of organization," just as a new Prime Minister in England does. But it is not a work which need consume much time after the inauguration, for the President-elect is expected to have the members of his Cabinet picked out before he goes to Washington, and such other nominations for important offices as require to be made immediately ready for submission to the Senate within two or three weeks after the 4th of March. When this has been done, the new Administration will be organized and ready to carry out the policy which it was elected to introduce. As Mr. Vest himself repeatedly pointed out during the canvass, the election was to decide between two policies of government, and the business of the successful candidate would be to carry out the policy which the people approved—just as the election in Great Britain a few months ago was to decide whether the home-rule policy should be adopted, and the business of Gladstone, if successful, would be to carry out that policy. Only a few changes in office are required in either country to effect the change of policy decreed by the voters. In Great Britain the new appointments made by Gladstone did not exceed thirty, and yet that small number of changes sufficed to reverse the whole policy of the Government.

As for "filling the offices with new appointees"—meaning thereby the tens of thousands of post-offices and other such places—the idea of a prime minister's wasting his time and the nation's time in such mean employment is so absurd that no intelligent Englishman could endure it. Nor would any intelligent American have any patience with the suggestion that Gladstone should fritter away his strength in this way. But it is not a whit more absurd that Gladstone should bother himself over the claims of a host of applicants for every post-office than that Cleveland should do the same thing. Everybody recognizes that there ought to be a number of changes in the chief executive offices in order to carry out the policy of the new Administration; but it will not take long to make these necessary changes, and the notion that Mr. Cleveland's time for "the first few months" after March 4 next will be, or ought to be, taken up with the filling of the run of offices throughout the country with new appointees, is preposterous.

The correspondence between Secretary Charles Foster and Congressman Fitch on the subject of John I. Davenport's accounts puts the former in the extremely mortifying position of not knowing the practice of his own department. Mr. Foster had undertaken to read a lecture to Mr. Fitch, in a rather high key, on that particular subject. Consequently he has put himself in a very glaring light. The gist of the Secretary's letter is that the law makes the certificate of the Judge of the Circuit Court conclusive upon the officers of the Treasury in settling and adjusting the accounts of the Chief Supervisor of Elections, and hence that the Treasury Department cannot suspend payment or exercise any discretion thereon. Mr. Fitch shows by repeated decisions of both courts and the Treasury that this idea is altogether erroneous, and that the Department has cut down Mr. Davenport's certified accounts in two instances since Mr. Foster himself has been the Secretary. In fact, the fundamental idea upon which the Treasury Department was organized was the idea of subjecting every claim upon the public funds to an examination and adjustment before payment. The Comptroller is the last officer who examines them, and he is just as much bound to pass judgment upon the accounts that bear the certificate of a judge as those that bear the certificate of a postmaster or a light-house keeper. The judges who pass upon the Supervisor's accounts know this, and hence they consider their own duties merely perfunctory. Mr. Foster, a short time since, gave us a running account of the duties of the several bureaus of his department. If he should have occasion to repeat that exercise, he would know more after reading Mr. Fitch's letter about the duties of the Comptrollers than he did when he last addressed our Chamber of Commerce.

The official figures on the Presidential ticket in this State, as published by the *World* on November 23, show the remarkable fact that the total vote of New York this year is more than 25,000 short of the total four years ago. The population is gaining at the rate of nearly 2 per cent. a year, so that, in the natural course of things, the Presidential poll in 1892 should have been about 7 per cent. larger than in 1888—or fully 1,400,000, instead of not quite 1,300,000, as was actually the case. There was a larger labor vote this year than four years ago, but as the Prohibitionists lost several thousands, the total vote for other candidates than Cleveland and Harrison was about the same in the two years. For the two leading candidates the votes in the two contests were as follows:

	1888.	1892.
Cleveland	635,965	653,900
Harrison	650,338	608,230

It will be observed that Cleveland gained nearly 18,000, while Harrison lost more than 42,000. This is the first time since the Republican party was formed that its vote in New York at any Presidential election has been smaller than it was at the previous election. The following table of the votes shows how terrible was the shock which the party suffered this year:

1856—Frémont	276,007
1860—Lincoln	362,646
1864—Lincoln	368,735
1868—Grant	419,888
1872—Grant	440,736
1876—Hayes	489,207
1880—Garfield	555,544
1884—Blaine	562,005
1888—Harrison	650,338
1892—Harrison	608,230

The rebuke to the Harrison Administration was most humiliating in Indiana. In his own State, as in New York, Harrison's second candidacy reduced the Republican vote below what it had been in the previous Presidential contest for the first time since the party was formed, as the following table shows:

1856—Frémont	94,375
1860—Lincoln	139,033
1864—Lincoln	150,422
1868—Grant	176,548
1872—Grant	186,147
1876—Hayes	208,011
1880—Garfield	232,164
1884—Blaine	238,463
1888—Harrison	263,361
1892—Harrison	256,681

The People's party vote was much larger in Indiana this year than the Labor vote in 1888, and the greater part of it came from the Democrats; nevertheless, Cleveland received 1,705 more votes in 1892 than in 1888, and has a plurality of 6,037 now, against a plurality of 2,348 for Harrison then.

Mayor Grant's announcement that he shall not make any further appointments for office during the remaining weeks of his term is most welcome intelligence. His reasons for not making any give a curious and instructive view of the workings of his mind. He says he believes that "when the outgoing Mayor is in sympathy with the political views of the incoming Mayor, he should not, in the closing weeks of his term, appoint officials who will necessarily take part in the administration of the new incumbent. Were the Mayor elect of a different political faith than myself, then I think there might be some doubt about my taking such a course." The practice of the outgoing Mayor's appointing officials to hold office usually during the entire term of

his successor has been one of the most vicious in our municipal system, for it has very often led to the putting into office of some of the very worst persons with whom the city has ever been afflicted. The new Mayor has often found himself so hopelessly handicapped in this way that he has been nearly powerless throughout his term to accomplish reforms which he had in mind. This was the case when Mayor Edson, on the last day of his term, appointed Squire Commissioner of Public Works. Of course, if the new Mayor be of opposite political faith to his predecessor, this handicap is all the more deadly. Yet Mayor Grant says he should probably place it on him were that the case in this instance; his idea of the Mayoralty being that its first duty is to secure the offices for the organization. But, however Tammanyite the Mayor's reasoning may be, everybody will be glad that the city is to have no more appointments from him.

The Census Office has just issued its complete report on the mineral industries of the country, which contains a section on tin that is amusing or disgraceful, according as one looks at it. It begins with the frank statement: "Tin-mining in the United States presents the exceptional condition of an industry giving employment to many persons, but which at the end of the census year had not reached the stage of producing commercial tin." That being the case, a census conducted on ordinary principles would conclude that it had better stop right there. "Commercial tin" is all it has any business to concern itself with, and political tin, tin which is good enough until after election, speculative tin, prospectus tin, and all the moonshine varieties of the article, should be freely and entirely turned over to McKinley and his fellow-campaigners. But Census Commissioner Porter knows that he is a politician or nothing, and so has put in the chapter on the statistics of political tin. There is an American section of eight pages, four of which are taken up with a "List of Tin Claims in the Black Hills," and then follow nine pages on "Foreign Production of Tin." What right the latter subject has in a census of the United States, it might be hard to decide; but we are not disposed to blame the compiler, since, after fooling around with mythical and political tin, as he was forced to do, it must have become a positive mental necessity for him to get hold of real tin somewhere. The report naturally booms the famous Harney Peak tin mines, and its appearance is thus very happily timed to coincide with the complete and crushing exposure of that "gigantic fiasco," as a London trade journal of November 4 calls it, which has just been made. The same paper asserts that "the prospects for the future" of that paper tin-mine "are hopeless," and as this is quoted without comment by the *Bulletin* of the American Iron and Steel Association, we suppose it must be taken as final.

A little experience promises to accomplish more than a vast deal of argument in the matter of the bill to prohibit trading in futures. This bill went through the House at the last session in deference to a supposed demand for its passage from the agricultural interests, and it now looks as though it would be rejected by the Senate in response to an evident demand from the same interests for its defeat. The rise in the price of cotton has wrought the change. Three months ago it was selling in Charleston, S. C., at 7½ cents a pound; on Friday it touched 9¾ and 10 cents. Of course, one chief reason for the advance is the discovery that the crop is a short one, but the price would not have gone anywhere near so high as it now is if dealers had been unable to trade in options. In other words, the South Carolina planter could not get the price now offered him in cash for his cotton if Congress had been able to prevent the buyer from purchasing for future delivery. The Southern planters begin to see the point, and they are numerously signing petitions to the Senate to reject the pending bill.

What has become of that "thorough investigation" into the official conduct of Minister Egan and Consul McCreery which was promised by the State Department last May? A Congressional investigation was then threatened, but was suspended out of "courtesy" to the Department, which, it was said, ought to have the first chance to pass upon the acts of its subordinates. But delay has followed delay, and nothing has been done, so far as the public has been permitted to know. McCreery came home, went to Washington, and thence to Michigan, intimating that Chili had no further charms for him. Was he dismissed or allowed to resign? Egan retired to Nebraska, immediately after the election had demonstrated his wonderful hold on the Irish vote, and shows no intention of rejoining his dear Chilians. Has he resigned "under fire"? Has anything at all been done by the Department of State about his case? We hope to see these questions answered in the forthcoming reports of the Executive to Congress, or, if they are not, some suitable action taken by the House in the premises.

The Presbyterian Church prides itself, and justly, on the elaborate safeguards thrown around its ministry to prevent them from suffering by hasty ecclesiastical condemnation, but it begins to look as if some of the prosecutors of Prof. Briggs would soon be in favor of substituting the short, sharp, and decisive methods of the Inquisition for their own slow-going legal process. Prof. Briggs is wholly within his right, and is doubtless acting also from a sense of duty, in making the technical fight he does on the preliminaries of his trial. His argument of Monday seems to have made further serious holes in the charges brought by his prosecutors —so much so that they asked time to haul off for repairs. They appear, in common with the rest of the Presbytery, to have been especially appalled at one of his points, which was as follows:

> "Have you considered what will be required of you if you consent to this proposal of the prosecution? It will be necessary for you to employ a reader to read to you all the contents of the Standards of the Church, all of Holy Scripture, the entire Inaugural Address, and all of my writings referred to therein. You are required by law to have all the proposed evidence before you."

If this point is well taken, as it seems to be, we think it safe to say that that "proposal" will be dropped. Meanwhile, the Presbytery are getting some inkling of the comprehensive nature of Prof. Briggs's defence on the main question, as they see him thus acute and pertinacious in arguing on mere preliminaries.

The resignation of the French Ministry brings to a close an unusually (for France) long period of parliamentary quiet and regularity. M. Loubet has gone down under the weight of the Panama scandal. It is doubtful whether any one who succeeds him will do any better. The trouble is that if the inquiry is pushed home, the revelations of corruption on the part both of legislators and journalists will be very great, and, after these are made, the Ministry will be expected to take some action about them, but what action it ought to be no one is prepared to say. No Ministry will wish to enter on a job of wholesale punishment, perhaps of friends, almost certainly of acquaintances. The Paris press is about the most corrupt in the world, and levies toll on everybody who desires publicity or editorial support, but it is also the most powerful press in the world, and the Minister who undertook to collar it and bring it to justice would have to take his courage in both his hands. What will happen now nobody knows. At every such crisis the Monarchists and Clericals announce the failure of the Republic, and the necessity of trying some other form of government, but the excitement will probably decline as the difficulty of getting any proof becomes more manifest. M. Brisson, who is a good deal of a political purist, is talked of as M. Loubet's successor, but the work of forming a Ministry as good as himself will be formidable. What with the Socialist difficulty, the Anarchist difficulty, the Clerical difficulty, and the German terror, the place is one from which any man might well shrink, because in no country could they be met successfully without unflinching party support in the Chamber, and this Frenchmen are not trained to give. The Germans will, however, find some comfort in the situation.

PLATFORMS AND PRINCIPLES.

BEFORE the echoes of the campaign die away, the public ear ought to be filled once more with the note sounded by ex-Speaker Reed on the very eve of the election. "I am not," he said here in New York, "in favor of the Republican party on account of its principles, but on account of itself. I believe that principles do not make parties, but that parties make principles." This profession was generally esteemed worthy of the statesman who looks upon legislatures not as deliberative, but merely as voting, bodies, and it was indeed a fair measure of his own scrupulousness as well as of the decay of that "best crowd" which, having once found, he has ever since belonged to and means indefinitely to keep belonging to. Still, it had in it an element of truth; for if it is certain that parties do not originate without principles—that is, without common ideas and aims—it is equally certain that the mere habit of working together tends to prolong the existence of a party beyond the time when its original principles have been carried, defeated, or simply outlived. Moreover, it is natural for men who seriously regard themselves as saviours of society in one particular to end by assuming that rôle in all particulars. They alone can be depended upon to promote the cause of temperance, establish a sound currency, purify the civil service, extend the suffrage to women, fulfil the aspirations of workingmen, protect the farmer against the railroad monopoly, and the manufacturer against the pauper labor of Europe, and the silver miner against the world's market, and the freedman against his white enemies—and so on to the end of the chapter. Even if they did not suffer from this illusion, they would be led on to constant enlargement of their programme by the desire to gain votes through timely concession to the novel demands of public opinion, real or imaginary.

Parties thus in their superannuation come to resemble feeble parties in their small beginnings, which think themselves unable to obtain a footing unless they tack on to their prime motive for existing a goodly number of attractive but more or less irrelevant issues. The Liberty party, for instance, professed to be merely giving practical effect to the objects of the American Anti-Slavery Society, of which it was the outgrowth, and whose sole concern was with the institution of slavery. In its very first platform, however, in 1840, the new party dropped an anchor to windward by averring that, in addition to the paramount question just named, "we by no means lose sight of numerous other questions in which all who are to be affected, directly or indirectly, by our Government are deeply interested"—questions which the Massachusetts wing specified under the heads Corn Laws, Emigration from Foreign Countries, Home Manufactures and Tariff, The Banking System, Cotton Manufactures, Reciprocity in Trade, Economy in Expenditures, etc. In 1844 it explicitly declared that "the Liberty party has not been organized merely for the overthrow of slavery"; "it will also carry out the principle of equal rights into all its practical consequences and applications, and support every just measure conducive to individual and social freedom." The party died before it could name or help give effect to these measures.

Its successor in 1848 inscribed on its banner "Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Labor, and Free Men," but held it "due not only to this occasion, but to the whole people of the United States, that we should declare ourselves on certain other questions of national policy," to wit: cheap postage, economy in expenditures and patronage, election (in place of executive appointment) of civil officers, river and harbor improvements, homestead grants, and payment of the national debt by a tariff for revenue only. In 1852 the Free-Soil party added to the foregoing a cordial welcome to "emigrants and exiles from the Old World," a proclamation of the duty of the American Government to intervene in behalf of Hungary, a recommendation of arbitration in international disputes. Though more spread out than in its inception, this party also died without achieving anything—without even maintaining its strength at the polls. Its successor, the Republican party, conscious of the revolution wrought by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, introduced but two extraneous topics into its platform, viz., river and harbor improvements and a Pacific railroad to be built by Government aid. In this very restraint the Slave Power might have read the formidableness of its new antagonist.

It is not our object to follow the Republican party through its shifting phases from its commencement to the present moment, when it has, for the second time, been emphatically repudiated as the saviour of society from the horrors of competition with pauper labor. Nor shall we attempt to forecast the items of its next national platform, if there is to be one. We wish to remark, returning to Mr. Reed, that the making of principles by parties, alias the new piecing of platforms from ad-captandum motives, has brought these manifestoes into general contempt as grounds of party association. Not only do men vote for a good candidate in spite of a bad platform, but good candidates themselves feel free to make a mental reservation in accepting the platform along with the nomination. The reason is, partly, that these "principles" are recognized as manufactured articles, and as bearing the impress either of the fears of demagogues or of the interests of private parties. In time clamor, and sophistry, and misrepresentation may produce an appearance of genuine popular sentiment behind the "principles"—as we have seen, to our cost, in the case of greenbacks, the dollar of the fathers, anti-Chinese legislation, pensions, and, we will venture to add, the tariff. But nobody is greatly disturbed, and intelligent observers are not surprised, when these idols are overthrown, for it is then discovered what a handful of priests maintained the shrine.

This overthrow would come sooner if the artificers of the "principles"—what we may call the platform lobby—were known to the public; just as the fate of the protective tariff would have been settled years ago if the pulling and hauling and grabbing and bribing by which each new measure was given its final shape upon the statute-book could have stood revealed. The platform would also regain its reputableness if it were possible to provide it with a sponsor for the execution of it. There is at present no more guarantee of this than there is that protected manufacturers will raise wages as their profits rise. In fact, no sooner does the party convention dissolve than the platform is already discarded. We saw in the late canvass Mr. Blaine offering a select little platform, of his own making, as a substitute for the Minneapolis creation; the silver issue practically abandoned; the tariff issue urged apologetically and defensively; and ridiculous stress laid upon the unpartisan State-bank plank in the Democratic platform. On the other hand, Mr. Cleveland's weight of character and personal sacrifice four years ago determined the real issue of the canvass. He did not invent a principle for his party, but he constrained that party to live up to its highest profession, and no more encouraging spectacle has been witnessed in our politics in this generation. Grant that Mr. Cleveland, like Mr. Reed, has chosen his "crowd," he is resolved not to lapse with it into hypocrisy or corruption, but will do what in him lies to make it "the best crowd," judged not by its membership alone, but by its actual conduct of the Government. Twice he has given his party the choice between standing by him and deserting him—on the question of the tariff and on the question of honest money; and twice have his countrymen

> "seen the obedient sphere
> By bravery's simple gravitation drawn."

REPEAL THE SILVER-PURCHASE ACT.

THE public have been led to believe by several communications and interviews in the newspapers that Senator Sherman will introduce and press a bill this winter to repeal the act of July 14, 1890, or so much of it as calls for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion per month, and the issue of Treasury notes therefor. The idea has gone abroad that the effect of such repeal would be to revive the Bland-Allison Act of 1878, which provided for the purchase and coinage of $2,000,000 worth of silver bullion per month, and Mr. Sherman has accordingly taken pains to say to the correspondent of the New York *Commercial Bulletin* that he desires to stop the purchase of silver al-

together. It may be worth while to mention that section 11 of the Revised Statutes provides that "whenever an act is repealed which repealed a former act, such former act shall not thereby be revived, unless it shall be expressly so provided." Therefore the repeal of the so-called Sherman Act of 1890 would *ipso facto* accomplish just what the Senator now desires.

Mr. Sherman was asked by the same correspondent whether he had formulated any plan for supplying the country with currency in preference to the present system of silver purchases and Treasury-note issues. He replied that he did not care to say anything about that at present, since legislation on the subject must depend somewhat on the outcome of the Brussels Monetary Conference.

The question what shall take the place of the Silver-Purchase Act is the one most commonly asked by those who discuss the subject at all. Very few persons reflect that if *nothing* takes the place of the Silver-Purchase Act, gold will fill the vacuum naturally and inevitably. It is perhaps too much to expect that a people who have witnessed the monthly purchase of silver and the issue of paper currency thereon for fourteen years should now remember that there is any other way to provide the community with money. It is very natural that they should think that, with a cessation of this process, there would soon be no money, or insufficient money, to transact their daily business with. It is thus that the people have been wrongly educated by Congress until they have got into a frame of mind in which even the wisest Congressmen hesitate to adopt right measures lest they lose their seats at the hands of voters whom they have themselves misled.

Despite the prevailing misinformation, and whatever may be the consequences politically, the time has come to stop fooling with silver. Almost any other fooling would be better than that, because the buying of silver does cause the exportation of gold. Although a great many people fail to see how silver merely displaces gold under the present law (making the amount of money no larger, but only changing its character and changing it for the worse), yet all feel instinctively that an exportation of gold, setting in at this time of the year, when the balance of trade is usually in our favor and the movement of that metal is commonly westward, is something ominous. Certainly we should all like to see an importation rather than an exportation of it at this time.

Our Government is now buying 54,000,000 ounces per year of one of the products of the country—an article of merchandise which would otherwise be exported and would enter into our balance of trade with the world. At eighty-five cents per ounce, this represents $46,000,000 per annum. Our balance of foreign trade is $46,000,000 less than it would otherwise be, and this vacuum must be filled with gold or with something equally good. If the country were making any use of this purchased silver, the case would not be so bad. But it is making no use of it at all: it does not even use it to redeem its notes with. On the contrary, it is incurring expense all the time in taking care of it. Worse still, we are getting a bad name and getting into bad credit abroad by having it on hand. Foreigners who do not see or appreciate the bad education that has been going on among us these fourteen years, and who suppose that our finances are conducted, as theirs are, by the wisest men in the country, naturally think that we are fools and that their money is unsafe here. So they gradually call it in. This withdrawal of foreign capital checks the spirit of enterprise, and if it does not actually produce hard times, it prevents us from obtaining the degree of prosperity that we might otherwise reach. It should be borne in mind too—the fact should never be lost sight of—that in the present nervous condition of the money market any accident, like a partial crop failure or another Baring crisis, would almost certainly result in panic and disaster. The United States ought to be the strongest country in the world financially, not excepting England, and would be so but for this dread of silver, which weighs upon the holders of capital, both here and abroad, like a nightmare.

The Brussels Monetary Conference has now fairly entered upon its labors. It would be entirely proper, and it might even be helpful, for the United States to stop the purchase of silver while the Conference is deliberating. If it be true, as some people believe, that Europe (and especially England) is suffering from the decline in the price of silver, it might be useful to let it drop a few more points. At all events, there is no reason why the whole weight of the burden should rest on our shoulders. The news from the Conference is not particularly encouraging. It is true the English delegates have declared their adhesion to the American resolution which recites that "it is desirable that some measures should be found for increasing the use of silver in the currency system of the nations." This is an expression of sentiment, a sort of "pious opinion," consistent with the maintenance of the single gold standard by Great Britain. On the other hand, the German and Austrian delegates have announced that their Governments cannot change their monetary systems, while those of Russia, Italy, Rumania, Switzerland, and Greece have notified the Conference that under their instructions they are not permitted to vote on the resolution at all. The despatches say that the American delegates are gratified at the prospect of an earnest and sympathetic discussion of the question. If they find a sympathetic feeling for silver at Brussels, we hope they will cultivate it sedulously, and get it extended to tin and pig-iron and all other depressed metals. Meanwhile we hope that Senator Sherman, who is under no illusions respecting the Brussels Conference, and under no political stress of weather, will promptly introduce and press his bill to repeal the act of 1890.

POLITICS AND CURRENCY.

THERE is one defect, in our position before the International Monetary Conference, which of itself would be fatal to any agreement between the United States and European countries, although no mention has as yet been made of it. We mean the fact that our standard of value is "in politics," and is one of the issues submitted to the popular vote at every Federal election. This condition of things is unknown in any of the countries from which we are seeking joint action in establishing a common bimetallic standard. In all of them the regulation of currency is left wholly in the hands of scientific experts and financiers. The opinion of the voters is not asked on it, and the voters do not seek to express any opinion on it. It is assumed in the politics of all these countries that all, high and low, rich and poor, are interested in having a stable medium of exchange, and the decision of the question what this medium shall be is given up to men who have made this subject a special study. The only approach to popular interference with the currency in Great Britain, within the present century, has been in the discussions over the powers which should be given to banks in the matter of issuing notes, and the security which should be exacted for the redemption of the notes in coin. But the question in what sort of coin the notes should be redeemed has never come anywhere near the polls on election day.

As a general rule, the history of currency in the countries now represented at the Conference, since the French Revolution, has been that of a series of changes from silver to gold and from gold to silver, caused by changes in the comparative value of the metals; but the time and mode of these changes and the necessity of them have been left to scientific men, charged by public opinion with the single duty of seeing that the money in which the community made its contracts and sales, continued from year to year to have, as nearly as circumstances would permit, the same purchasing power. No signs of popular affection for one metal as a child of misfortune, or of distrust of another metal as the companion of the rich, has ever appeared in any of them. If, for instance, it had been proposed by the Gladstonians at the last election to take a vote on the question of bimetallism, it would probably have created a financial panic of the worst kind in London, as a sign that the party had gone crazy, and would, if it got into power, ruin the country.

This was our happy condition also down to 1873. Silver was demonetized in that year, under the influences which had

regulated our coinage ever since the foundation of the Government—that is, the opinion of experts. The people at large concerned themselves very little more about the matter than about the Coast Survey or the Nautical Almanac, and would undoubtedly have continued to do so but for the poison infused into our politics by the issue of the legal-tender paper during the war. This prepared the popular mind to look on currency as a proper subject of party politics, and a few politicians had no difficulty in bringing the question of silver into the political arena, and there it has remained ever since, the football of the two parties, and probably the cause of more raging folly than all the other bodies known to chemistry.

Now, it would be childish to suppose that foreign financiers have not followed with close attention the course of our currency mania. They are probably more minutely acquainted with it, as seeing it with clearer eyes, than any of the American delegates, every one of whom has had so much politics mixed with his currency during the past ten years that he hardly knows the taste of one from the taste of the other. The foreigners know very well that we are in a bad fix and desire their help to get out of it, but they know also that the opinions and desires of a rich nation of 65,000,000 about currency questions must always be listened to with respect and attention. There is hardly a doubt that they would all eagerly accept our aid, not in relieving a distressed metal, but in making the standard of value of the civilized world more stable, did we give them a chance. But they have not overlooked the fact that our currency is still in politics—that is, is voted on or liable to be voted on every two years at the election of members of Congress—and that the enormous store of silver we have now in the Treasury vaults has been accumulated not under the influence of financial, but of political considerations, not because our experts recommended it, but because a large body of voters who know little or nothing about the matter demanded it, and in spite of the warnings and protests of nearly every instructed person in the country. We have only to state these facts to show that an international agreement with regard to the coinage which depended for its maintenance and success on the fidelity of every one of the parties to it, would practically put the currency of every country which adhered to it into the American political arena, and compel it to watch our elections with the utmost anxiety, lest the result of the vote should break up the compact. To suppose that France, Germany, and England are going to expose their standard of value to a risk of this sort is to suppose that their business men have lost all their sagacity. It is, in fact, a ridiculous supposition.

The lesson of the situation is, that we shall never be able to come to any agreement about currency with foreign nations until we shall have put currency questions back again into the hands of our experts, with but one mandate—to give us as stable a standard of value as the nature of metals and the nature of the human mind will permit, and to spare no expense for that purpose. When that is done, and their scientific men have nobody to convince or persuade but our scientific men, international currency agreements may be possible. They will not be possible as long as the length of our yardstick and the size of our quart pots may be changed at any election

THE GLORIFICATION OF ATHLETICS.

THERE is no doubt that the college athletic year just closed brought certain features of intercollegiate sports to a prominence never before witnessed. The professional spirit in these contests has been displayed in an unprecedented degree, both in the unwonted length and severity of preliminary training, and more particularly in the charges of foul play and one-sided umpiring openly and freely made, with what justice we cannot say. So, too, has the gambling mania attached itself to college athletics with an excess and extravagance not seen earlier. Of course, the crowds and enthusiasm, the glory of the victors and the shame of the vanquished, the vulgarity and lawlessness of a lot of boys let loose in a great city, have all been greater than ever before. Greater, too, we would add, has been the swamping throughout the entire year of all other undergraduate ideals by the one predominant and overmastering athletic ideal.

To our mind this is the greatest evil which the modern development of college athletics has brought in its train. The other incidental evils, often enough remarked upon, may perhaps be fairly said to find a set-off in the undoubted improvement in health and in morale which has come in with the new attention to physical training. But we know of no compensating advantage to put over against the distorted conception of life, and particularly of college life, the false standard of individual and college distinction, and the evident retarding of young men in arriving at serious and worthy ideals, all of which have been involved in the increasing glorification of college athletics. For it must be understood that the absorption of our educated young men in contests of physical strength and skill is no longer confined to their four undergraduate years; it reaches back to the fitting-schools and further, until it is literally a fact that sturdy boys just out of their kilts are taught to look forward to getting "on the team" as the noblest thing to strive for. Who will deny that when thousands of boys from that age up to graduation are giving the athletic ideal the highest place, the most grave consequences to character are involved?

It is a frequent remark of observant foreigners that the American young man of eighteen to twenty-five years is a singularly uninteresting being. It is not that they are particularly struck in him with the immaturity which is perhaps unavoidable in that cartilaginous period. Such immaturity they have been familiar with in the young men of their own countries, but with it they have been accustomed to associate a fine abandon in the avowal and pursuit of artistic or literary or scientific or political ideals. These they find to be conspicuous by their absence in the generality of American youth, and some of them have thought they saw an explanation of the fact in the too exclusive devotion to physical prowess. We believe it to be true that young men are later than they were one or two generations ago in arriving at that conception of life which is finally to enlist their enthusiasm and their powers. This may be in part due to those changed economic conditions which have brought about the retardation of marriage, for example; but we think that at least a plausible case could be made out for the theory that the modern supremacy of the athletic ideal is to be held partly accountable for it.

Color is at any rate given to that theory by observing how the thing works in the case of some of the most famous of college athletes. Meaning to be entirely impersonal, we believe it to be the fact that, as a rule, the men who have run glorious athletic careers at college, are considerably slower than their fellows in settling down to the serious work of life. The old fascination is still upon them. They gravitate, as by second nature, back to the football field, as amateurs, as paid coachers, as passed-masters in the game. In the same reluctance to be gone they linger at the baseball games and hang about the rowing-tank. This is but natural. After developing a pair of shoulders and a biceps which have brought him four years of purest glory, it is hard for a man to realize that he has come to a point where he no longer compels the huzzas of the crowd. So, in too many cases, the result is that most melancholy one of a graduate returning to the scenes of his sweetest triumphs; going for a year or two, with the laurels yet green upon his brows, and getting the old heart-filling "hep! hep!" from the undergraduates; then figuring as a sage adviser, and finally sinking to the humiliation of being pointed out as an "old-timer," a "back number," one whom the development of the game and the flight of years have left high and dry.

We think it fair to infer that the harmful effects of the glorification of athletics thus distinctly traceable in individual cases pass over to many others in as baneful, if not in as conspicuous, a manner. The Greeks knew something about gymnastics and the consequences of a high degree of physical culture, and Plato saw the necessity of putting some limitations upon their pursuit in his ideal republic. He considered the "mere athlete" as little

better than a "savage," and distinctly declared the effect of gymnastic training carried to great lengths to be to make the mind "dull and feeble." We do not know how much weight Plato carries with the undergraduate mind of to-day, but we can reinforce his authority with one which no young man will lightly set at defiance—none other than that of some of the brightest and, what is more, prettiest among the girls. Many of them we have heard to admit in private, and some to declare with vigor in public, that college boys are getting to be a stupid set, having nothing to talk about but "in-shoots" and "recovers" and "touch-downs." Such young ladies, of course, have their own particular enthusiasms and ideals, but they are foolish enough to maintain that a passion for music, for example, or for art or literature, is far more interesting and worthy, even for purposes of conversation alone, than the one subject which now seems to drive everything else out of the young male mind. We certainly hope they will come in increasing numbers to the help of Plato against the stupefying influence of unlimited athletics.

At any rate, we must hope that, either through surfeit and reaction from excess, or through the rousing of college authorities to their duty in the premises, a change may come. In some way the present maladjustment of college ideas ought to be corrected, so that a good scholar need not apologize for attention to his studies, or a lover of letters or art or science be obliged to point to some physical infirmity as his sufficient excuse for not having done his part in upholding the true glory of the college in the scrimmages of the football field.

NEW FEATURES IN RAILWAY FINANCE.

THE plan of reorganization of the Chicago, St. Paul and Kansas City Railway has a number of features novel in American railway finance which deserve study and discussion. This company has had a chequered career. It has often been charged against Mr. Stickney that his ambition led him to build an unnecessary railroad, one which must continue to prove a thorn in the side of the trans-Mississippi companies until the traffic grows up to the combined carrying capacity. At least it is true that the railway has not been able to earn interest on its cost, though its promoters feel confident about the future. Three years ago the bondholders agreed to fund their coupons, these coupons forming a "priority loan" on which interest has been paid. The funding plan expires by limitation next January, making necessary a reorganization. Under these circumstances an English committee has formulated a plan modelled after the English method of dealing with railway debentures and preference stocks.

Under the Illinois statute of 1885, a new corporation, the Chicago Great Western, was formed, to which the old road should be leased and into whose shares the old Kansas City Railway bonds and stocks should be exchanged. Each old first-mortgage bondholder is offered $500 in 4 per cent. debenture stock, and $600 in 5 per cent. preferred stock A. The new company secures payment of "interest" on the debenture stock, and a fair accounting for the preferred, by executing a deed of trust to some trust company. This trust deed provides (a) that in case of liquidation the net assets shall be applicable to the new stocks or securities in their order; (b) that holders shall from their own number select a Finance Committee which shall have general supervision and control of the company's finances; (c) that further issues of debenture or A stocks shall be made only by a majority vote, or, in the case of an issue of bonds, by a two-thirds vote, subject also to approval of the Finance Committee; (d) that in case of a default in debenture interest, the trustee under the deed of trust shall, when required by the Finance Committee, appoint a receiver to apply the income and manage the property subject to the control of the debenture and A holders, the stockholders having no voice; (e) that in case the company makes good its default, possession shall revert to the company. Any surplus above debenture interest shall go absolutely to holders of A stock; any failure to distribute all such earnings shall also be an infraction of the trust deed and bring the same penalties. Present income and stockholders are assessed, the money so raised to be used to buy a branch road, to pay floating-debt, and for meeting rolling-stock warrants; the priority loan of $2,820,000 to remain as a mortgage as at present.

It will at once be seen that this plan is a departure from our customary methods about railway mortgages. Though the idea has been abandoned in Great Britain, we in the United States continue to regard railroad bonds as foreclosable. In theory they are; in practice they are not. A mortgage upon a house and one upon a railway are different in their real nature, no matter how closely the legal language of the one resembles that of the other. Practically, the railway cannot stop running, so its mortgage is really upon its earning power as a carrier, and not upon its plant; for the plant, unlike a house or factory, is useless for any other business. The English law recognizes this distinction; so English debentures cannot be foreclosed. The Stickney reorganization attempts to modify American theory to conform to these facts. So far as it puts the real state of things clearly before the bondholders and the people of the United States it is to be heartily commended, for it sets a precedent which, under the criticism of time and experience, may be followed in other cases, with the result of securing in our railway law and finance that progress which we see in other departments of business and law.

The plan evidently intends if possible to make the debenture shares partly a bond and partly a stock. How far this is legal is a question, though it may prove workable in actual practice. There have been attempts before to give to preferred stock the nature of a bond. The St. Louis and San Francisco first-preferred stockholders have only just given up their claim to 7 per cent. guaranteed dividends, under a series of defeats. A stockholder cannot be a creditor and a partner at the same time. Nevertheless all future creditors have notice of the deed of trust, whatever that may amount to. Yet something of the kind has proved a workable theory in England, where stockholders lose control of their property if they do not pay the debenture interest—as is also provided for in the Chicago and Great Western plan. The success of such a form of railway organization depends, even more than is usual in the United States, upon the assent of all concerned, for the plan is really a change in the articles of copartnership, if that expression may be used of a corporation. There are many instances where the equities of former bondholders have, in a reorganization, been recognized by giving preferred stock in exchange—indeed, the most of our existing preferred stock represents bond losses; but holders have been content to become stockholders simply. The Chicago Great Western plan is an endeavor to confer greater rights upon such former bond-owners by providing that their debentures shall have a sure payment of interest (not called debenture "dividend," be it noted) under definite penalties, and that the A stockholders shall receive all the contingent earnings, whatever they may be, without the possibility of diversion by the directors. No doubt the English committee thought they were checking an American abuse in this last provision, requiring distribution of all earnings; and no doubt they felt secure in inserting such a section, since they also permit a further issue of debentures or other securities to raise capital; yet, after all, they may wish they had left such payment somewhat discretionary when the road comes to need more money.

Public interest will probably centre around that feature of the plan which provides harmoniously for a transfer of control without litigation from the common to the guaranteed stockholders, should misfortune bring about a suspension of debenture payments. Its practical working would prove an experiment which railroad and financial men would gladly see tried. The feature has in its favor the fact that it attempts to bring our railway and legal procedure into line with modern transportation and commercial principles, though its complete adoption would work a revolution in our established law.

THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION IN FRANCE.

PARIS, November 15, 1892.

IN attempting to analyze broadly the political situation in France, I have had more than once to allude to the religious question. The fact is, that this question is mixed up with every other, and that, by its wide ramifications, it is undoubtedly one of the principal factors of what may be called the psychology of our country. It is of the first importance to try to indicate in what it consists. To do so exhaustively would need a volume; but I will endeavor to set it forth, in so far as it is distinctly political, by a rapid sketch of the position of the Roman Catholic Church in reference to the Republic—that is to say, the French Church and the Republican party in France.

The origin of the present state of things is known to all. Before 1789 the clergy were a separate order in the State, enjoying numerous privileges and possessing considerable property. The Revolution, in abolishing the order, suppressed its privileges and confiscated its property. In addition to these measures others were taken, so that at the end of the revolutionary period the Church in France found itself in every way in the most complete state of chaos. Bonaparte, when First Consul, wished to put an end to this state of things. Negotiations were entered into for this purpose with the Court of Rome, and the Concordat of 1801 was the result. The Concordat itself was afterwards supplemented by a law which is known in our history under the name of the "Organic Articles." We have not at present to examine in detail these articles and laws; we need only refer to those which assume importance by their relation to present circumstances. It should first be noticed that the Concordat is an arrangement between two parties, a diplomatic treaty, in fact, signed between two Powers which accordingly cannot modify it except by common accord. On the other hand, the members of the clergy have become, in a sense, the paid functionaries of the State. The appointment of bishops is made after consultation and agreement between the Government and the Court of Rome, and the curés appointed by the bishops have to be accepted by the Government, while both bishops and curés receive a State stipend in exchange for the revenues formerly confiscated, which the Church pledges itself never to claim. This very fact of the bishops and the curés being appointed with salaries fixed by law places them in a position similar to that occupied by other functionaries of the State, and gives the State the means of enforcing obedience on their part in any case in which their attitude may have given offence.

If the Concordat has, since its conclusion, been always the basis of action in matters affecting the Catholic Church in France, there have been and are many other factors at work in any questions that have occurred and do occur from time to time for settlement, so that it is impossible to consider the Concordat as altogether apart from these. There is, first of all, what may be called the moral situation. The French population is almost entirely Catholic, and this consideration alone would suffice to give the Church great importance. Then, again, the Governments that have succeeded each other since the beginning of the century have been, in general, well disposed towards the Church. It is true, the July Monarchy was not religious in its sympathies; but the Restoration, both the First and the Second Empires, even the Republic of 1848, then that of 1870 at the beginning, not only showed respect to the Church, but were often enough very religious in their sympathies. From this attitude there resulted a state of things favorable to the members of the Church. For instance, the ministers of religion were dispensed from all military service; the law of 1870 in reference to primary education allowed them to be teachers in the schools, and dispensed them from compliance with certain regulations compulsory in the case of laics; and, to quote again from the history of the educational question, a time came when all the primary schools fell into the power of the Church, and one order in particular, that of the Jesuits, opened a number of educational establishments which soon became very powerful.

Things began to change some years after the proclamation of the Third Republic, at a moment when the latter, ceasing to be a Provisional Government awaiting the restoration of the monarchy, passed into the hands of a definite Republican party. Before long there was open warfare between the Government and the Church, and the struggle went on increasing in intensity in proportion as the power veered more to the Radical side. The causes of this change are manifold, some being related to the Republican principle itself, others to the Church. The Republican party as a whole is not well disposed towards religion, and least of all towards the Catholic Church. First of all pushing it in the direction of extreme measures, there is the kind of contradiction that exists between the Republican principles and those of the Church. The absolute sovereignty of the people harmonizes badly with the ideas of obedience taught by the Church. Then, the development of the formula, "liberty and equality," in the manner in which the Republicans conceive it—the notion of the absolute respect due to liberty of thought—leads to the desire not to offend the Protestants by favors bestowed on the Catholics, as also not to impose religious forms on free-thinkers; and so by degrees comes the desire for the absolute secularization of the State. The recollections of the Revolution have also to be taken into account. The Revolution struck at the Church. Consequently, those who call themselves its children are likely to imitate its action. And lastly, Republicans dread the influence the clergy may acquire over the consciences and therefore over the votes of the people; and this it is which has chiefly contributed to exasperate them, the Church having often assumed an attitude openly hostile to the Government.

Independently even of the hostility that exists perhaps necessarily between the principles of the Church and those of the republican democracy, the Church has private griefs against the latter. It cannot forget that the Revolution has lowered it in every way, both by attacking its influence and by subjecting it to the civil power and confiscating its property. Hence it is naturally disposed to fight against those who declare themselves the children of the Revolution and proclaim their desire to continue and complete its work; and it is accordingly constrained to ally itself with parties purely political, that seek, in the name of conservative principles, to hinder the development and application of the ideas born of the Revolution. In this manner may be explained the alliance concluded between the Church and the royalist parties—an alliance all the closer because the latter, realizing what advantage they might get from having such an auxiliary, for a long time spared no trouble, and let no opportunity escape, to identify their own cause with that of the Church.

This sketch, though summary enough, will suffice to indicate the multiplicity of causes affecting the conflict that we are now witnessing between the civil authority and the religious element. In order to exemplify the character of the conflict, we need only draw attention to certain incidents that have occurred. Thus, at the time of the amendment of the laws on army recruitment, the seminarists saw themselves placed under the common obligation of military service from which they had hitherto been exempt. By a change in the laws on education, ecclesiastics were placed on the same footing with laics by the annulling of the diplomas hitherto accorded them through the Church authorities, and by the exacting from them of the same diplomas as those compulsory on laics. After having thus taken away a privilege, unjustifiable enough, by a rigorous application of the principle of State neutrality in religious matters, the Government forbade religious teaching in the State schools, and prohibited members of religious orders from keeping elementary schools, which latter were all to be secularized within a given period. No exception was to be made (and this is worth noting) even in cases where a municipality might demand a continuation of the *status in quo*. Sometimes the attack on the Church was more direct still. For instance, the Government obliged all religious orders to provide themselves with an official authorization; and certain bodies whose influence was more particularly feared, the Jesuits in particular, were forced to break up their organization.

Side by side with these principal measures figures a long series of minor incidents and petty annoyances, wherein plainly appears with equal clearness the partiality of the Government and of the majority. Not only was the public-worship budget systematically reduced, but no occasion was lost of suspending, by way of discipline, the stipends of ecclesiastics whose anti-Republican proceedings had been denounced by some offended Deputy. More or less direct encouragement was given to the mania for secularization shown by the city of Paris, the municipal council of which, composed of ultra-radical members, thought fit to replace the sisters who served in the hospitals by lay nurses, perhaps less devoted, and at any rate costing the budget much dearer. The Church of St. Geneviève was taken away from the Catholic body, as had been done in the time of the first Revolution and during the reign of Louis Philippe, in order to convert it into a Pantheon consecrated to the worship of great men. The sort of need the Government seemed to have to show itself disagreeable to Catholicism gave rise at times to the most preposterous proposals. For instance, the National Assembly in 1873, at a time when the Republic was not yet Republican, had voted of public utility the works being carried on for the erection of the Church of the Sacred Heart, which is still building in Paris. In 1884 a Deputy demanded that this measure should be repealed, and M. Goblet, then Minister, mounted the tribune in order to declare that the National Assembly had evidently been in the wrong since the vote had reference to a church.

One thing comes to put an obstacle in the way of the Government's aims, and to prevent it from proceeding to too radical measures in reference to the Church and the ecclesiastics. It is the fact of the existence of the Concordat, which it cannot touch of its own authority. To pass by this barrier it

would be necessary for France to break completely with the Court of Rome, and to sever all the ties which attach the clergy to the Government—in a word, to effect a complete separation between the Church and the State. Will such an extreme measure as this be resorted to? It is probable. Many of the Republican party are demanding it—and it will perhaps be necessary in the near future if things continue to go on as they have done for the last few years.

It is true that the attitude of the clergy in reference to the Government is tending at the present time to transform itself. We have already pointed out the instructions of the Pope as to the indifference of the Church in so far as forms of government are concerned, and as to the necessity incumbent upon all French Catholics to accept loyally the established order of things. But in vain will French Catholicism, in obedience to its supreme head, ally itself with the Republic—the latter will not cease to feel a certain hostility against the Church; and unless the old conservative parties, converted to the republican form of government, become preponderant in Parliament, it is more than probable that the campaign against the Church will continue and will end sooner or later in disestablishment.

Such a measure as this, however, cannot be taken without preparation, for it will probably entail numerous difficulties both for the Church and for the State. We do not number among these difficulties the question one hears raised by Catholics in reference to Church property. The stipends now paid to ecclesiastics are, it is said, by the very terms of the Concordat, a compensation in lieu of the revenues of which the Church was despoiled at the time of the Revolution. From the moment the disestablishment of the Church causes the stipends to be suppressed, some other equivalent compensation will have to be found. In strict equity this would certainly be the case, but in political practice equity is very little considered: and examples of spoliation of this kind are numerous in history. It is certain that the Church in France, once deprived of its present resources, will find itself in a very awkward position. Will it succeed in obtaining the millions of which it now disposes annually? This is not at all certain, and even if it succeed, it will not do so without difficulty. The first consequence would naturally be the suppression of the millions which the Catholics send each year to Rome as Peter's pence; and this suppression would not fail to embarrass the Papacy considerably. Next, even should the Church in France be able to provide for its own wants, this would not happen without its first passing through a terrible crisis, which would produce its counter effect upon the social condition of the country, and so might even embarrass the Government. In consequence of the separation, the latter might possibly have other troubles to deal with, since, as soon as the members of the clergy cease to be State officers, it will no longer have any control over them, and there will be nothing to prevent them, if they think proper, from taking an active part in politics and using their great influence to create embarrassment for the Government. Other difficulties might be mentioned which it is possible to foresee, but what I have just said will no doubt suffice to show that the religious question, though at the present time in France of capital importance by reason of the hostilities often engaged in between the Church and the State, is not yet ripe for solution, inasmuch as the separation itself would not, so far as can be seen, bring peace. S.

Correspondence.

THE COLLEGES AND THE PRESIDENT-ELECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The students of this University have adopted the enclosed resolutions, which I hope you will bring to the attention of college men.

Very respectfully, George T. Winston.

University of North Carolina,
Chapel Hill, N. C., November 21, 1892.

"The students of the University of North Carolina, as a slight token of their appreciation of the character and services of a man who deliberately surrendered the Presidency in order to instruct the people in correct principles of government and especially of taxation—who in short preferred to teach the people rather than rule them—do hereby resolve to send ten delegates to the second inauguration of Grover Cleveland, and do earnestly request all the colleges and universities of the United States to unite in a grand student demonstration in honor of our great political teacher."

THE ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The late election may be regarded from two points of view, which may be called the subjective and the objective, or, in more popular language, as to what it indicates and as to what it promises to accomplish. As an index of the character and intentions of the people it is beyond all praise. As a revolt from hypocrisy and falsehood, against the emptiness of a party machinery from which the main reason of existence has departed, and which is kept alive by the thirst for power, trading for the support of private interests—as a verdict in favor of honesty and manliness of purpose—it makes one proud to belong to the same country and people. But if we turn to the objective side, the result is by no means so satisfactory. The Democratic party is in an almost ludicrous position of not knowing what to do with its victory. What hope is there of any wise or well-considered or combined action from such a disorganized mob as the next House of Representatives will be? It would have been as reasonable to send our 300,000 volunteers to the front during the civil war without any officers, and expect them to organize the fighting when they got there. Whatever was the courage and intelligence and patriotism of those troops, we know that it was West Point which saved the country. If there is one thing more hopeless than the House itself, it is to expect that it will receive any effective guidance from the will of the people as expressed in the election.

Meantime the papers are discussing the formation of Mr. Cleveland's Cabinet. Of what consequence is it to anybody? The members will be nothing more than head clerks. There is a languid interest felt as to what State or what individual will get a Cabinet office, but nobody supposes for a moment that it will make any real difference in the policy or government of the country. The French Chambers are going to pieces, notwithstanding the presence of the Ministry, but that is because the Ministers are the creatures of the Chamber, set up and pulled down by the freaks of the constantly dissolving groups. The strength of our position is that the Cabinet, being the appointees of the President, himself the elect of the whole nation, would be wholly independent of Congress and would wield an authority which, so long as it was approved by the country, would be sufficient to bring Congress into working order.

Whether it will come in my time may be doubtful, but that the members of the Cabinet will sooner or later, from sheer necessity and on the demand of the country, be admitted to Congress, is, I consider, as certain as any piece of political evolution can be.

Gamaliel Bradford.

Boston, November 26, 1892.

WHO ELECT CONGRESSMEN?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am aware that the columns of the *Nation* are not open to "funny things," but in view of the great Democratic "landslide" of the 8th inst., the following actual occurrence is worth recording. Yesterday, in the Third District Court, before Chief-Justice Zane, an alien made application for citizenship. He had answered all questions satisfactorily when his Honor, as a last and final test of the applicant's fitness for citizenship, asked him this question: "Who elect the Congressmen in the United States?" "The Democrats," was the prompt reply. The Court and the bar could not repress their laughter, while the applicant stood amazed, and failed to see why all were so merry. But he was admitted to citizenship.

Alfales Young.

Salt Lake City, November 18, 1892.

THE TARIFF AND THE WORKINGMAN'S MIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some one has said, and it sounds like Walter Bagehot, that the greatest pain the human mind is capable of is the reception of a new idea. Ten years ago, while in the employ of what is now called the Illinois Steel Company, I lifted up a well-nigh solitary voice against the iniquities of the tariff. Everybody about me believed so religiously in the blessings of said tariff that I was saved, I was told afterwards, from being pitched into the lake only on the ground that I was a bookman, and further acquaintance with hot metal, ingots, and blooms would carry with it a better appreciation of the duty on rails. In 1882, to speak disrespectfully of a high tariff implied that one was in urgent need of a commission *de lunatico inquirendo*. But the thoughts of men have widened with the process of the suns, and the workingmen of the Illinois Steel Company this month voted against the very doctrine they upheld ten years ago so valiantly: the State, the county, the city, the ward, the very precincts in which they chiefly live went Democratic.

Everybody knows that the American workingman is, as a rule, ingenious, thrifty, honorable, good-natured, and kind-hearted, but the last election shows that it requires a long time to get one economic idea out of his head and another in. Makers of party platforms would do well to bear in mind this psychological fact: that the American workingman can be depended on to recognize the great truths of political economy, but an allowance of about ten years should be given him in most cases to make up his mind. E. L. M.

Windsor Park, Chicago, November 19, 1892.

THE OHIO BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent editorial on secret voting you speak of Ohio as having an absolutely

secret ballot. No doubt the framers of the law intended to make it as perfect as possible, but that they did not succeed is plain from what follows. At the top of the ticket in our ballots, under the emblem of each party, are circles in which the voter of a straight ticket may place his X. Now the Board of Elections of this county (the law requiring sample ballots to be furnished them by the Secretary of State) placed their facsimile signatures on the reverse side *over the circles referred to*. The consequence was that the election officer who tore off the stubs and put the tickets in the box could tell with certainty how the voter of a straight ticket marked his ballot. In conversation with the man who took the tickets in the precinct in which I voted, he admitted this, and told how, as he received the ticket from the elector, he could inspect one side and then the other as he folded it to put it in the box. The position of the facsimiles made it impossible to fold the tickets in any other manner. Had they been placed at the middle of the ticket, or near the lower margin instead, the difficulty would have been almost entirely obviated.

There is nothing in the law to prevent Boards of Election placing the signatures anywhere they choose on the back of the ticket. To be sure, the officers of the election are sworn not to reveal any information they may gather in the performance of their duties. But is a partisan's oath any more reliable than his word? For one man to be able to know how an election is going is one too many.

Yours truly, JOSEPH V. COLLINS.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, OXFORD, O.,
November 19, 1892.

THE ETHICS OF PUBLISHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see that the Messrs. Appleton advertise in the last *Nation* a new edition of 'An Englishman in Paris.' I am one of many who have bought that work during the past few months under the supposition that, as it was issued by a reputable house, it was a genuine book of recollections. But you have recently announced that it is by an obscure journalist named Vandam, who not only is too young to have known many of the earlier celebrities of whom he gossips so familiarly, but is not, presumably, on intimate terms with contemporary celebrities. I think, sir, that if this is true, the Appletons, far from spreading further copies of this fraud, ought to take back the copies which have already been bought by a confiding public. It is needless to say that cooked-up volumes of reminiscences, however cleverly done, have no value: who would buy, for instance, Pepys's Diary were it known to be the product of the inventive brain of a later journalist? Doubtless, the publishers who accepted the manuscript of 'An Englishman in Paris' believed it to be genuine, and their American representatives, the Appletons, merely trusted in them; but now that the fraud has been exposed, it does not become any reputable firm to continue to issue this work as if it were genuine. T.

NOVEMBER 22, 1892.

BALLAD HISTORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to say that while I am glad to find Dame Barbara "warming the cockles" of your critic's heart, I object to the implication, in the *Nation* of November 24, as regards Whittier? Ballads are not written after an historical investigation. I do not suppose that a single one of the most famous of the Scotch ballads would be found historically accurate: I know that was the late Sir Daniel Wilson's opinion. An heroic flash stirs the heart of the poet. Is he expected to analyze it and discover whether the light was born of heaven or a penny match? It is his function to recognize and perpetuate the illumination, and Whittier did it.

All literature, of prose and verse, is open to such mischances. We have all suffered them, and must bear with them, as with other imperfect mortal conditions.

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 26, 1892.

THE LA COSA MAP, AND OTHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By way of comment on your remarks on a former letter of mine on the Paris Exhibition of Early American Maps, permit me to say that M. Marcel's reasons for doubting the authenticity of Juan de la Cosa's map—reasons bearing on the representation of the West Indies on that chart—could have been set forth only in considerable detail and with the aid of graphic representation. On the other hand, M. Marcel says that his familiarity with the said map was, until lately, limited to a reproduction of it in Jomard's Atlas, the sole facsimile of it known in France, and that it is only by means of the photographed reproduction of it now being made in Madrid that he will be able to decide whether La Cosa's map is an original or a copy made by a foreigner.

As to the question of misspelt Spanish words which figure on that map, I will quote what Mr. Harrisse says in his 'Discovery of America,' p. 415:

"When one sees so many names to which no meaning can be ascribed, although the letters in a number of instances are legible, and when this imperfect nomenclature is also seen in regions which we know to have been visited by the cartographer whose name figures on the map, it becomes a question whether the manuscript chart preserved in the National Museum at Madrid is really an autograph of Juan de La Cosa or a mere copy of the time made by some one else."

Mr. Harrisse thinks that the fact that La Cosa's being a Basque by birth has nothing to do with the misspelling, as the words exclusively Spanish are properly rendered. The words referred to by Mr. Harrisse are doubtless such as do not seem to belong to any known language; particularly in the island of Cuba, where they have the appearance of such meaningless strokes as would be penned by one trying to imitate writing which he did not understand. Juan de La Cosa was born at Santoña in Biscay, and, Biscay having been since 1379 an integral part of the kingdom of Castile, it is highly probable that the Spanish language was as familiar to him as the Biscayan.

It is a mistake to think that the early Spanish cartographers made but a few maps, or that they made them all themselves. Mentions in historical documents, as well as the ordinances in the collection of laws regarding map-making (although eight or ten years later), clearly indicate that the Spanish and Portuguese pilots made their chief living by making maps. They constructed an original one which they frequently intrusted to copyists who were good designers and miniaturists, but no scientific cartographers. These were chiefly Majorcans or Italians, as is shown by the early Portuguese charts. It is natural that copies so made should contain names absolutely misspelt, and the La Cosa map, although evidently authentic, may well not be autographic.

The Portuguese portolano of 1502 (or the King Chart, as it is called) was reproduced almost entirely, and particularly the portion of importance to Americans, by photolithography, in the Bulletin de Géographie Historique et Descriptive, more than five years ago (Paris, 1887). Besides, a reduced outline of the entire map appeared in the Paris *Illustration* of July 2, 1892.

Whether the "green globe" can or cannot dispute the claim of the so-called Da Vinci Gores "to be the earliest known in which the word America is written by human hand," Mr. Harrisse places the Da Vinci under the year 1519, and the green globe four years before, *sub anno* 1515.

The "globe doré" does not contain the "Sea of Verrazzano." "Terra Francesca nuper lustrata" (an inscription appearing on globes only after Verrazzano's expedition) aids us in surmising that Verrazzano's indications inspired it.

It seems that the globe of Franciscus Monachus is not the earliest instance in the revival of the notion that North America and Asia were one. Was it a revival in cartography or spherography? No map or globe or gores can be found in the first twenty-five years of the discovery of America on which the newly found regions are not entirely separated from Asia. Again, Mr. Harrisse has shown conclusively, from Schöner's own words, that this blending of America with Asia is a notion which originated altogether in globe-making with the Nuremberg mathematician so late as 1523, and that his globe of the latter date must have exhibited such a configuration.

The information that the charts of Gutierrez and Le Testu (Nos. 19 and 26 of Catalogue) have been reproduced causes surprise in France. Further information on this point would be appreciated. As to a reproduction of the portolano by Viegas (No. 1 of Catalogue), only the small reduced fragment inserted by Kohl in his 'Discovery of Maine' is known here.

The map loaned by the Navy Department, and entered as No. 131 of the Catalogue in the Exhibition of Early American Maps, is described by Harrisse in his 'Notes sur la Nouvelle France,' No. 219.

No. 161 has been wrongly stated to be first among the maps figuring at the Exhibition to make mention of the town of Chicago. A closer inspection has shown (No. 137), "Amérique Septentrionale," by J. B. L. Franquelin, dated 1686, on which figure both Checagou and Checagon River. This map is described under No. 231 in 'Notes sur la Nouvelle France.'

In answer to the remark that the Paris Committee would have done well had it solicited a copy of the Harvard map, 1684 (in which Chicago figures), it must be said that the Paris exposition was intended only to exhibit the cartographical treasures of the Paris collections, private and public, in so far as America is concerned. If it had proposed to set forth the cartographical history of the New World, doubtless the loan of it would have been requested, along with other pieces, among which may be cited the two Desceliers planispheres, known as the *Harleian* and the *Bubics*.

M. Marcel will shortly publish a series of facsimiles of documents which figured at the Paris Exhibition of Early American Maps.

Among these, not less than forty in number, will be facsimiles of the "green globe," of the King Chart, of the Viegas portolano, etc., etc.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

PARIS, November 10, 1892.

[We are glad to have an outline of M. Marcel's argument about the non-autographic character of the La Cosa map, and shall await with interest the result of his study from the new reproduction which has just been published at Madrid. A copy of this last has this moment reached us, and it does not impress us as having been made with anything like photographic accuracy, as is claimed. A cursory comparison which we have made of it with earlier reproductions indicates numerous variations. It is nearly forty years since the present writer saw the original ox-hide when it was exposed for sale in Paris, and his recollection may be at fault, but he finds in this professed facsimile much brighter colors than he has ever since associated with the map. He looks in vain for that dash of green paint which Henry Stevens assigns to the western end of Cuba, as indicating an uncertain extent to that island. He finds that the inscription about the English discoveries is shorn of an essential part. That the map has lost something since Humboldt and Jomard used it, may be true; but it is also certain that, if their eyes divined obscure lines aright, the modern photography and chromo-printing of Madrid are not up to the standard which will satisfy scholars.

Until we see the reproduction of the "green globe" which M. Marcel promises us, it is hardly possible to say whether the respective dates which Harrisse assigns to that and to the so-called Da Vinci map will stand in everybody's opinion. We are inclined sooner to agree with Major than with Harrisse on the date of the latter map, believing it earlier than 1519.

Harrisse's putting of the lost Schöner globe of 1523 earlier than the Franciscus Monachus hemispheres, showing North America and Asia as one, is an argument rather than a demonstration. At all events, the globe of Franciscus Monachus has come down to us, while the globe of 1523 has not.

We had confounded dates in what we said of the Gutierrez and Le Testu charts, and trust M. Marcel will include them in his promised atlas.

We had thought there was a peculiar appropriateness in what we said of the Franquelin Map of 1684, inasmuch as Paris would then have regained in a copy what it some years ago lost in an original. We understood that the Exhibition did not attempt a complete collection of early maps, but the catalogue—which we have received since our previous notes were written—shows that some facsimiles of maps not preserved in Paris were admitted.—ED. NATION.]

FRAUDULENCE AND FALSE PROFESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The circulation of the *Academy* not being so wide in the United States as in England, I solicit a little space for the purpose of repeating, in part, the substance of a noteworthy letter by the Rev. Anthony L. Mayhew, a philologist of high and deserved repute, which recently appeared in its columns.

Palmed off as by Smollett, a translation, or rather a "traduction," of Le Sage's *Gil Blas*, executed sixty years after the date of his own translation, and wholly independent of it, has, within a short time, been put forth, under his name, by three firms of London publishers, Nimmo & Bain (1881), George Bell & Sons (1885), and George Routledge & Sons. Nimmo & Bain's publication has prefixed to it "a biographical and critical notice of Le Sage, by George Saintsbury." Whatever Mr. Saintsbury knew about Le Sage, it is a pity that he neglected to inquire about Smollett.

With the aid of one of the British Museum librarians, Mr. Mayhew has discovered that the translation which has been so often imputed to Smollett was the work of Benjamin Heath Malkin, first brought out in 1809. It was, I find, published by Longman and other booksellers, and its price was six guineas.

That work contains the following anonymous "Advertisement," the writer of which was, assuredly, a passed-master in mendacity and impudence:

"On occasion of producing a splendid English edition of *Gil Blas*, the publishers would gladly have adopted the translation published under the name of Smollett. The defects of that translation are acknowledged; and Le Sage is now understood to be indebted to this popular writer only for his name. Under these circumstances, it has been the aim of the present translator to produce a more easy and spirited transcript of the original; with what ability and success, must be left to the reader to determine."

It is the translation referred to, as reproduced by George Routledge & Sons, that Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant, in his pretentious and costly book entitled *The New English* (1886), has accepted as Smollett's, the diction of which he explicitly professes to criticise. As the consequence of what he has done, alleges Mr. Mayhew, he "has dated hundreds of 1809 words sixty years too early." "Remarkable" Mr. Oliphant may well style "the number of new English phrases" which, with culpable heedlessness, he fathers, directly, or by implication, on an eminent author, and not seldom to the detriment of his fair fame.

Mr. Mayhew writes, concluding his letter:

"One question I should like to ask; and I hope I shall get an answer. Who was the first person who foisted the work of Malkin on a confiding public as the work of the popular author of *Roderick Random?*"

It seems that the question can be easily answered, and, in fact, has already been answered by the unscrupulous tradesman who perpetrated the swindle to which Mr. Mayhew has drawn attention. The English *Gil Blas* now published by George Bell & Sons is, with no change except in the title-page, that which was published by their predecessor, H. G. Bohn, in 1859. And Bohn, though in the wrong place, has confessed, in a way, what it is that he then published. In his edition of Lowndes's *Bibliographer's Manual*, p. 1343 (1860), under the heading of "Le Sage," he represents it as being "Smollett's translation revised" by Malkin. But why, if an honest man, did not he call it so, or something else than simply Smollett's, in his reprint? As plainly appears, he thus stands convicted, by his own acknowledgment, of a scandalous imposition on public credulity. For the rest, on comparing, almost anywhere, Smollett's translation with Malkin's, one will see that the two are about as dissimilar as possible. Their difference, and also their comparative faithfulness, may be fairly inferred from the startling parallel quotations, accompanied by the original French, given by Mr. Mayhew.

Intermediate to the first issue of the translation by Malkin, which bears his name, and Bohn's reissue of that translation, offered as by Smollett, there is an edition, now lying before me, dated 1822, of the same translation, bearing neither Smollett's name nor that of Malkin. This suppression of name is a circumstance nowhere noted by Bohn. Was he deceived by it? Be this as it may, alike whether he reprinted that edition in ignorance that he was giving the world another translation than Smollett's, or whether he reprinted the original edition of Malkin's translation, withholding its "Advertisement," can now be only conjectured. In 1859 he may have been misled; but not in 1860.

Bohn's fraud, undetected up to the time of Mr. Mayhew's letter, was successful, not only commercially, but otherwise. The version, at best a wretched travesty, which he put off as Smollett's, accepted as being really so, furnishes the text of an article in the *Saturday Review* of November 26, 1859, opening with these words:

"Smollett's translation of *Gil Blas* is certainly an exception to the common rule, that translations of all kinds, and especially translations of novels, are altogether unreadable. It is very far indeed from being equivalent to the original; but it is a vigorous, lively version of it. No two styles, indeed, can be more unlike than those of Lesage and Smollett; but, though the translation differs widely from the original, it has the great merit of having a character of its own, instead of being a mere imitation."

With reference to Mr. Oliphant, I now give some quotations, yet not a fourth part of kindred ones that might be given, from the Routledge edition of Malkin's burlesque translation, confining myself to the three first Books of the twelve:

"While I was dressing, Corcuelo *put in his appearance.*" P. 6.

"I *joined issue with* [*i. e.*, joined] some desperate blades." P. 13.

"We were beginning to *wear our homeward way.*" P. 17.

"*Presuming on the lady for* [*i. e.*, presuming that the lady might be] an accomplice." P. 25.

"From my first *outset* from Oviedo." P. 26.

"Her *finale* [*i. e.*, ultimate conduct] gave me a much higher opinion of her." P. 33.

"He . . . had been careful to fetch them *by* over-night." P. 36.

"I closed *in* with the doctor's proposal." P. 46.

"In vain did he crack *off* [*i. e.*, up] his water." P. 47.

"This was followed by an *adjournment* to a tavern." P. 49.

"There might we have *foddered* for an age." P. 55.

"*I gave her carte blanche of* all my private thoughts." P. 69.

"I used to *sol-fa* with a shepherd of Olmédo." P. 70.

"These very *hymeneals* . . . have we been celebrating." P. 74.

"These plays *to tear a cat in* are the only things for popularity." P. 74.

"You are a very great *bore.*" P. 84.

"We may introduce a *buffo caricato* into our serious opera." P. 85.

"This bevy of *fashionables* set sail together for the tavern." P. 87.

"We *sat* before them a great choice of the best wines in Spain." P. 87.

"We all of us bore *a bob* [*i. e.*, a part in conversation]." P. 94.

"I . . . began to *appreciate* [*i. e.*, appraise] their merit more truly than they had estimated that of the authors." P. 110.

Not at all after the manner of Smollett is the false or questionable English observable in these extracts; and no more so is the shred of phrase from Shakspere, or the ambitious *buffo caricato*.

But, more particularly, Smollett was quite the reverse of a linguistic innovator, or of a patron of neoterisms; and, almost to a certainty, even if it had been otherwise, he could have known nothing, in 1749, of the expression *put in his appearance*, or of any of the vocables *outset, finale, adjournment, sol-fa, hymeneals, bore, fashionables*, and *appreciate*, as we have seen them used in 1809.

To go on with these strictures through several columns would be perfectly easy; but I shall conclude them with a single additional item. In his remarks on the translation of *Gil Blas* whose authorship he mistakes, Mr. Oliphant says: "The word *lord'ing* is revived, after a sleep of four hundred years." Apart from the insanely ludicrous claim to reach and closeness of research here implied, what are we to think of a person who makes such a statement in face of quotations for *lordling*, from Swift (1730) and Bp. Hall, in Johnson's *Dictionary* and in Richardson's respectively? And Edmund Gayton has *lordling* in his *Pleasant Notes upon Don Quixot* (1654), pp. 114, 171. With the multitude, the pretensions and the positiveness of Mr. Oliphant, exorbitant as they are, but at the same time, *φωνᾶντα συνετοῖσι*, would, as he shrewdly foresaw, insure the confidence in him to which, like every writer, he must have aspired. In the upshot, his salient features have earned him, besides the confidence of the uninquiring, a certain distinction. In one or two respects, he has achieved, among minutiose philologists, an eminence which, in spite of whatever competition, is likely to be recognized as all his own. For presumptuousness of profession and general untrustworthiness he may, without a tremor, challenge rivalry. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 10, 1892.

Notes.

GINN & Co., Boston, have devised a "Department of Special Publication," for the getting into print of "valuable works of a special character and a high grade." In brief, they propose to manufacture and lend their imprint to any work of this description on the simple insurance not of profit but against loss. This insurance will be ascertained by sending out prospectuses to the class interested in the proposed publication, partly at the author's expense. Professors, it is intimated, may thus secure desirable text-books by a guarantee to use them for a certain number of years. Societies and colleges also may use this department for the publication of monographs.

The first book undertaken by the Authors' Club of this city is now in the press. It consists of contributions, presumably by members, in prose and in verse, each of which will be signed by its author with pen and ink. The decorative headbands and tailpieces will be specially designed for their places. Only 251 copies will be printed, and bound in a "style completely new and characteristically American." Subscriptions, at one hundred dollars per copy, will be received by the Secretary, Mr. Rossiter Johnson, No. 1 Bond Street.

The Boston "Club of Odd Volumes" has in press "The Women of the Court of Louis XV.," from the French of Imbert St.-Amand, a quarto volume, limited to 150 copies. Besides a portrait of the King, it will contain a photogravure in color of Mme. de Pompadour, from a pastel by Maurice Quentin de la Tour. She is represented in the garb of a shepherdess, much decorated with powder, ribbons, and wild flowers.

The rubricated new Standard Book of Common Prayer of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which will be known in ecclesiastical history as the "Standard of 1892," is nearing completion at the De Vinne Press. The edition consists of 1,162 copies. Of this number 650 copies are printed in royal octavo size on good book paper, and bound in cloth, with polished red edges; one of these is to be presented within a few days to each delegate to the General Convention which recently assembled at Baltimore. The type will then be reimposed to a leaf 10x14 inches, and 500 copies printed on hand-made paper and twelve copies on vellum. Those on hand-made paper are to be bound in parchment and offered for sale at $20 each. One of the vellum copies will receive unique treatment, both in printing and binding, as it will be the property of the General Convention; it is designated "The Standard Book," and all other copies must be certified as accurate transcripts of it. The eleven remaining copies on vellum will be printed and handsomely bound at the personal expense of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, who will present them to those who have been most actively engaged in preparing this sumptuous edition.

'A Short History of the Prayer Book,' by the Rev. Dr. W. R. Huntington, rector of Grace Church, New York, is announced for publication by Thomas Whittaker. It will contain also an account of the rise, progress, and completion of liturgical revision.

Perhaps it is only the mania for collecting all sorts of things, perhaps it is the growing interest in all the arts of the book-lover, but there is no doubt that of late much more attention is being paid to those paper-labels which indicate the ownership of books, and which are called ex-libris in French and book-plates in English. In France, Poulet-Malassis's pioneer book on the subject has recently been followed by M. Henri Bouchot's little treatise. In England there is the portly volume by the Hon. Leicester Warren, and the Journal of the newly organized Ex-Libris Society. In America there was first a page or two in the "Home Library," then Mr. Laurence Hutton's articles (now included in his 'From the Books of'), and finally Mr. Lichtenstein's elaborate papers. Two volumes are now announced likely to interest all collectors. One, by Mr. Egerton Castle, is called 'English Book-Plates,' and is to contain some 120 illustrations; the other, 'French Book-Plates,' is by Mr. Walter Hamilton, and is to contain 100 illustrations. We could wish that Mr. Hutton or Mr. Lichtenstein had in preparation a third book, on 'American Book-Plates.'

Mr. Austin Dobson is engaged on an introduction to a reproduction of Holbein's 'Dance of Death,' printed from the facsimile woodcuts of Bonner and Byfield. It will be published in London by George Bell & Sons, and in New York by Macmillan & Co. The latter publishers have nearly ready 'A Review of the Systems of Ethics Founded on the Theories of Evolution,' by C. M. Williams; 'The Paintings of Florence,' a guide by Karl Károly (Frank T. Charles); and 'The Visible Universe,' by J. Ellard Gore.

The next volume in the Great Commander Series of the Messrs. Appleton will be a biography of Gen. Taylor, by Gen. O. O. Howard.

'First Days with the Contrabands,' by Elizabeth Hyde Botume, and 'The Life of Christian Daniel Rauch,' the Berlin sculptor, are in the press of Lee & Shepard, Boston.

Tait, Sons & Co., New York, have nearly ready 'The Diary of a Nobody,' by George Grossmith, with illustrations by Weedon Grossmith; 'A Battle and a Boy,' by Blanche Willis Howard; and 'The Secret of Narcisse,' by Edmund Gosse.

Brentano's announcements include 'Chicago,' thirty photogravures with descriptive text; 'The Buildings of the World's Columbian Exposition,' also in photogravure; 'The Great Composers,' 'The Great Singers,' 'The Great Virtuosi,' by the Comtesse de Brémont; and Motteux's translation of 'Don Quixote,' with Lalauze's etchings, limited to 300 copies.

David Douglas, Edinburgh, promises next spring the first of two volumes of Scott's 'Familiar Letters' (1797-1825), annotated by the literary hand of the publisher himself.

In the week's reprints, the two green-and-gold volumes, 'Persuasion' and 'Northanger Abbey,' in Mr. Brimley Johnson's edition of Jane Austen's novels (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), fall behind none in intrinsic and extrinsic attractiveness. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. put forth, with their customary good taste, a second American edition of Dean Stanley's 'Historical Memorials of Canterbury.' It is bound in a white, vellum-like cloth with half-purple sides, and is freely supplied with illustrations both in and out of the letterpress. The latter set are all photographic, if we are not mistaken in supposing the etchings to be copies in this manner. Hence, and owing to the different tones of the photographs direct from the pile itself, there is a certain incongruity which we think might have been avoided by at least abandoning the etchings, seeing that they are but ordinary as art. Still, they add something to the graphic series, regarded as memoranda. The Messrs. Putnam continue their pocket series of "Literary Gems," bound in black leatherette, with half-a-dozen volumes from Milton ("L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," and the sonnets and odes), Gray (the "Elegy"), Bryant ("Thanatopsis"), Irving ("Rip Van Winkle" and "Wolfert's Roost"), Sheridan ("The Rivals"), and Thackeray ("Charity and Humor" and "Nil Nisi Bonum"). There is a portrait frontispiece to the Thackeray; the rest have etched designs appropriate to the respective pieces, and of good quality. Estes & Lauriat make four little volumes of Thomson's 'Seasons,' with unpretentious and sometimes charming illustrations. The covers are not to our taste, and the binding is too inflexible. T. Y. Crowell & Co. reprint their edition of Tennyson's Poems of 1885, with additions and with some fresh illustrations, including a good portrait. The outside is too florid for the rather plain typography. The same publishers reissue Miss Bates's 'Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song,' which has been for ten years before the public and is a useful anthology if not critically among the best. The volume has been diminished in size to advantage, and has a better designed cover than formerly; but the exchange of Longfellow portraits has not been fortunate. On the whole, one may prefer this to its predecessor. We may notice here that a third edition of the Rev. Henry Van Dyke's 'The Poetry of Tennyson' has just been issued by the Scribners.

Eleanor Lewis's 'Famous Pets of Famous People' (D. Lothrop Co.) is a well-written, humorous narrative derived from a great va-

riety of sources and exceptionally well illustrated. From the design on the cover one might think it a child's book, and it would in fact be a very proper gift for children, though there is no condescension to that age in the author's cultivated style. Adults will first enjoy and then retail these anecdotes to the little ones.

The title of Rose Porter's 'A Gift of Love and Loving Greetings for 365 Days' (Fleming H. Revell Co.) explains itself. This calendar for every year is prettily bound in white, and stamped with pansies, and adds to the daily text on love from the Scriptures harmonious extracts containing the same magic word from a large number of secular writers.

There is very little novelty in the second series of F. Anstey's dramatic social satires, 'Voces Populi' (Longmans), some of which can be read with entire soberness of face. The talk of the people in the galleries, in 'buses, at garden parties, at the theatre, at the horse show, the talk of street orators and Socialists, bears a strong family resemblance to that of the mirth-provoking first series. The vein would seem to be nearly worked out. "In a Fog" and "Bricks without Straw" are exceptionally ingenious and delightful. Mr. Partridge's illustrations maintain their high level of character drawing.

The current bound volume of the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell) wears its customary look, at once British and popular. Its modes of illustration vary from chromolithography to etching, wood-engraving, and process. Due notice is taken of native deceased artists, exhibitions, private collections, with glances at art abroad. The department known as "Our Illustrated Note-book" is always interesting for its pictorial memoranda of passing men or events, new monuments, new acquisitions of the art galleries, etc. The chronicles of art have a liberal American section. The articles are kept very short, in the endeavor to please many tastes. The late Theodore Child has a brief paper on the Comédie-Française. Mr. Linley Sambourne writes two on Political Cartoons, speaking of himself and his own work with great modesty. He confesses to have formed his style as much upon the study of Albert Dürer as of any master.

Another volume, the fifth, of the *Bookworm* is before us (London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son). Its scrappy character is quite unchanged, and it appeals mostly to the desultory reader. Its special articles are, however, frequently meritorious, and sometimes authoritative, whereas much of the miscellaneous information is at second-hand. American topics are fairly abundant, and there is the usual supply of quaint reproductions of old prints, book-plates, etc.

The *Mother's Nursery Guide* (*Babyhood*) reaches its eighth volume without having exhausted its topics or its usefulness. The tenth volume will warrant a consolidated index for the series, from which alone can appear how much of scientific counsel and exchange of domestic experience is garnered by this magazine for the needs of the nursery and the family. It is issued by the Babyhood Publishing Co., in this city.

The Transactions of the Royal Historical Society of London for 1892 contain a long Introduction by Mr. I. S. Leadam to his forthcoming edition of the 'Returns to the Inquisition of 1517,' concerning Inclosures. Mr. Leadam maintains that the Inclosures of the Tudor period scarcely affected the copyholders, and, indeed, that copyholders were themselves among the inclosers. He allows, however, that some copyholders were evicted; and his own statistical synopsis shows that the inclosers of considerable areas were almost invariably manorial lords. Mr. Leadam argues further that not only the "copyholders" in the technical sense, but also all the villein tenants, enjoyed legal security of tenure. To support this position he draws a distinction between *villanus* and *nativus* which certainly does not appear on the face of the evidence and is opposed to the best authorities. The treatise is full of information, but is somewhat marred by its polemical form. It was hardly necessary to treat Prof. Ashley's tentative suggestions, contained in a brief paper on "Villein Tenure" a couple of years ago, with the rather ponderous vehemence which marks the present production.

The November Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of the central province of Madagascar by the Rev. James Sibree. In describing the journey from the coast, he referred to the fact that there are still no roads practicable for wheeled vehicles, stating afterwards that this was not due to the conservatism of the natives, but had a political cause, the difficulty of the road making an invasion almost impossible. The Prime Minister is quoted as saying that "he had two generals in his army, Gen. Forest and Gen. Fever, and these he pitted against any foreign forces coming up to take his town." During the past thirty years the progress of the capital, Antanànarivo, has been striking. In 1863 it was a town built entirely of wood or rush and bamboo. Now it has become a city containing hundreds of good two and three-storied brick houses, with many public buildings of stone. This is mainly owing to the influence of the English missionaries and especially to the erection of the stone Martyr Memorial Churches. Mr. W. M. Conway contributes a graphic account of some of his last summer's exploits among the Himalayas. One of his camps, in which with two European companions he spent two nights, was about 20,000 feet in height. There is also an interesting description of recent explorations in British New Guinea and the progress made in civilizing the country. In some places "villages formerly built for safety upon piles over the water, are now being rebuilt on dry land, and the new houses are far more substantial." More land is being cultivated. Warlike habits are being given up, the people who formerly invariably carried arms now appearing without them; and a commercial spirit is fast developing.

In the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November is an encouraging account, by Mr. D. J. Rankin, of his recent explorations in the Zambesi basin. He found the country lying between this river and the Shiré rich in mineral and agricultural resources. Traces of gold were observed in numerous places, and one large stream drains an "extremely rich auriferous region, while coal, iron, and copper are found from its source to its confluence." Another section "offers valuable sites for extensive coffee plantations, besides which it is prolific in most tropical products, of which cotton, indigo, cocoa, rubber, rice, and sugar may be mentioned as the most important." In addition, this whole region possesses the great advantage of having an abundant water-supply and navigable communication with the seaboard from almost every part. Inhabitants are very scarce and large game very numerous.

A correspondent writes, apropos of Mr. W. C. Ford's recent letter on the Washington genealogy: "That Mr. Ford's supposition as to the relation of the names Howard and Hayward is correct—to wit, that they are 'aliases'—is apparent from the pedigree of Howard (Dukes of Norfolk) given on page 286 Burke's 'Dormant and Extinct Peerages,' ed. 1883."

—We have received from Mr. Victor Bernstrom, member of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, a proof print of a large and notable engraving on wood from his own design. The picture represents a scene, "Pirates' Haven," on Shark River, along the New Jersey coast. It is a really charming landscape, vigorous in composition as well as in the management of light and shade. It is carefully executed, and gives promise of further development on the part of the artist. There is a certain dryness in the handling of the tints, as well as in the light of the sky, but, taken as a whole, this print is fresh evidence that wood-engraving has not witnessed its culmination in the pages of the magazines, but has merely been encouraged in its onward march as an art by itself. Mr. Bernstrom's print is to be had of our leading dealers—Keppel, Knoedler, Reichard, Klackner, and Wunderlich.

—The publishers of the entertaining illustrated fortnightly magazine *Natura ed Arte* (Milan: Francesco Villardi) have issued as a supplement a thick Album, in honor of the current Columbus anniversary. Cecilio Villardi and Prof. Angelo De Gubernatis together procured a vast number of autographs from the leading men of letters the world over, and these, photolithographed and arranged in due order, make the 'Albo di Onoranze Internazionali a Cristoforo Colombo.' It is a very curious and entertaining collection, in which, amid the sentiments and mottoes, one comes upon architectural or landscape drawings, portraits, music, as by Verdi, Gounod, and the Brazilian Gomes, and even upon ancient Vedic music—a fruitful field of exploration for western musical Columbuses, we are assured. The more difficult tongues are provided with translations. Of common occurrence are the inscription, "A Castil'a y á León," and Seneca's prophecy, "Venient annis Sæcula seris." In one case at least (p. 72) notice is taken of Columbus's recent detractors, moved by an "antipelasgic spirit." Prof. Gustav Storm of Christiania will not let Leif Eriksson be forgotten. The Bopp-Stiftung holds up its founder as the Columbus of Indo-Germanic learning; Poland sees in Copernicus the Columbus of the firmament; a Hungarian professor ascribes to Columbus, Galileo, and Newton our new view of heaven and earth (*die Erneuerung unserer Weltanschauung*); a Hungarian Deputy holds that, next after Christ, Columbus has been the most useful to mankind. In this linguistic Babel a noticeable number of foreigners choose English mottoes—from Shakspere, Berkeley, Byron—or use English as their vehicle, whereas Huxley, on the other hand, copies an Italian passage from the Life of the navigator.

—The reaction of the New World upon the Old is remembered in many ways. Dr. F. Markovitch, of the Agram Academy, prettily recalls Columbus's having been taken back in chains from the theatre of his discovery, to which millions of his fellow-beings would one day flock, leaving their Old World chains behind them. So Vámbéry, writing in English, says: "Through the strides of the Great Republic, on the field of political and social sciences, the old saying, 'Ex oriente lux,' will soon be reversed in the sentence, 'Ex occidente lux.'" On the other hand, Julius Schwarz of Budapest says that Columbus was a "most successful pioneer of the political evolution of

modern political societies," because he opened to feudal Europe America, which produced Franklin, who crystallized on a great scale the principles of 1789; but then, "the brutal mercantilism in science and literature that we are accustomed to ascribe to American genius is deeply rooting in our own social habits as a fruit of the reaction of half-breed spirits against the remnants of mediæval prerogative." Prof. Barzelotti of Naples admonishes American protectionists who still flatter their countrymen with the musty theory of "America all by itself and for itself, divorced from the Old World," that they cannot suppress the spiritual affinity of American for Old World culture. Altogether delicate and fitting is Prof. D. Korsakoff's remarking upon the coincidence that in 1492, through Columbus, Italy revealed to Europe the New World of the West, and in 1493, through the Venetian Senator and traveller Ambrogio Contarini, the New World of Muscovy—the two giant empires of to-day. "The mutual sympathy of these two great States is evident, and has shown itself in a signal manner by the fraternal succor of the former to the starving population of the latter in 1892." Franklin, we will close by observing, is the notorious favorite among Americans in foreign eyes. On p. 48 we have a new version of "Eripuit cœlo fulmen"—

> "Che ai ciel rapita ha i fulmini
> E un ferreo scettro infranto."

On p. 86 Franklin is linked with Washington in the lines (to Liberty)—

> "Te di Boston il saggio e te l'eroe
> Di Virginia comprese;"

On p. 80 the conjunction is of Lincoln and Washington—

> "Da te solenni di virtute esempi,
> Lincoln ereditammo e Vascintono";

while our translator of the 'Divine Comedy' is remembered thus:

> "Del sommo
> Fiorentino schiudea gli inferi regni
> Longfellow a' suoi concittadini."

—The latest publication of the American Statistical Association contains some extracts from a paper by Mr. Giffen which recall the old jest that the only good book of the Spaniards is the one which exposes the folly of all the others. Mr. Giffen's remarks are a most impressive warning against the work of amateur statisticians, especially when they attempt international comparisons. He points out that it is very difficult to compare countries according to the degree of education prevailing among their inhabitants; that equal difficulties affect every comparison of the extent of crime; that the same is true of sexual morality, of insolvency, of the diffusion of property, of production, industry, trade, and wages. As to drunkenness Mr. Giffen declares: "I see no way myself of establishing statistically that one population is more or less drunken than another." In all these matters he asserts that the results of the comparisons ordinarily furnished to the public are "the merest chance" —an assertion which it is of great value to have made by the highest authority upon statistics.

—The same publication contains a statistical investigation of the net profits of certain manufacturing industries in the State of Massachusetts by Mr. W. F. Draper, which incidentally discredits the results attained by the Bureau of Statistics of Labor in that State. Mr. Draper takes from Martin's annual statements of the prices of stocks and dividends of corporations known to the Boston market a list of all Massachusetts corporations for which figures are given for ten years from 1882. The list contains 65 names, and of these 41 have maintained the same capital during the period covered. These have paid dividends averaging 6.58 per cent. per annum on the par value of their stock, but averaging only 4.88 per cent. on the average market value. Moreover, during these ten years, that market value has declined from $55,000,000 to $44,000,000, so that if the amount of this decline is taken from the dividends, the stockholders have really received but 2.68 per cent. per year as net income. Taking the other twenty-four companies whose capital was changed, or which suspended operations during the period, Mr. Draper finds that, after deducting capital paid in from dividends paid out, there remains an average annual dividend of less than one-half of one per cent.; while if market values are compared, it appears that these companies have lost not only the interest on their capital for ten years, but also quite a sum of money besides. Taking all the companies together, they have made an average net dividend of 4.86 per cent.; their dividend upon the average selling price would be 3.87 per cent., while their dividend upon the average value of the capital invested falls to 2.06 per cent. These figures are extremely startling, and should receive the most careful consideration from those interested in Massachusetts manufactures. They are indeed of interest to the whole country, as suggesting that a high tariff has failed to increase the prosperity of manufacturers, and that they could not be worse off with lower duties.

COTTON MATHER.

Cotton Mather, the Puritan Priest. By Barrett Wendell. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Life and Times of Cotton Mather, D.D., F.R.S.; or, A Boston Minister of Two Centuries Ago. By Rev. Abijah P. Marvin. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society.

THE recent appearance of two biographical studies of Cotton Mather is incidental to the two hundredth anniversary of the Salem witchcraft episode, with which delusion the name of Mather is yet, and seems doomed to remain, fast associated. Approaching their subject in a wholly dissimilar spirit, both Mr. Wendell, whose book was issued some months ago, and the Rev. Mr. Marvin, whose work is posthumous, have shown no small zeal in clearing away many of the aspersions which have gathered since the beginning of the present century about the reputation of the younger of the two great New England preachers. To the later biographer Cotton Mather stands at last disclosed as a faithful, patient, God-serving pastor, erring only in over-devotion to the cause of religion and of doing good, and by no means a self-seeking winner of personal glory. It is the tribute of a member of the sect still intellectually dominant in New England to one of its greatest memories. On the other hand, Prof. Wendell, with a somewhat lavish gesture, has thrown the mantle of charity over Mather, and yet has so disposed it as to reveal his nakedness and weakness. It is plain to see, throughout a highly ingenious and carefully elaborated method, a courteously conveyed but not expressed conviction that Mather was so far the victim of his hallucinations and personal vanities as to have passed the limit of mental responsibility. Much stress is laid in a novel manner on his relations to "occultism," as may be seen by reference to that word in the author's admirable index.

Whoever thinks there is no new thing under the sun, will do well to examine for himself what Prof. Wendell has to say on the supernatural as it was manifested in Salem in 1692. This author has, in a former book, given hint of a theory, wholly his own, which he now expands in a manner worthy of attention, though perhaps not of belief. The introduction of private conclusions on matters in general may or may not be acceptable in a book with so definite an object; at all events, it is safe to say that some readers will by no means relish Mr. Wendell's opinions on the "histrionic insincerity" of the pulpit, the theatrical accessories of which, it may be fairly submitted, are not necessarily more insincere than the judicial wig, the academic gown, or the "bedside manner" of the physician.

To valuable sources, many of them private and difficult of access, it is evident that Mr. Wendell has gone in a thorough and painstaking spirit. Like Mr. Marvin, he has chosen to make diaries and journals tell the story of Mather's life. The best evidence that their subject was a genuine and not an untrue man is found in the substantial sameness of the issue of their labors. These pieced-together autobiographical records, chosen by one editor as a confessed apologist, and by the other in a way to uncover, on the whole, faults even more than excellences, reveal the essential unity of Mather's strangely composite character: two Cotton Mathers, and not one, would otherwise have been the resultant of such diversely motived attempts.

It is pertinent to express surprise that the editors of the series to which Mr. Wendell's work is a contribution should not have chosen Increase Mather, rather than his eminent son, as a representative "Maker of America." The elder Mather's work for the new Charter, his presidency of Harvard College, and his wide concern in the affairs of his day, while happily remote for the most part from personal contentions, would seem to qualify him for consideration as one of those characters who mould and inform a coming civilization. Aside from the fact that Cotton Mather was a busy and faithful pastor, an active citizen of the town of Boston, and an unceasing toiler for the good of his race in practical as well as in spiritual matters, his fame commonly rests on his prodigious erudition and its prolific fruitage. Of the hundreds of printed volumes of the two Mathers, the man of letters of to-day finds nothing more significant to say, when he has excepted the 'Magnalia' and several contributions to witchcraft literature, than that they are the curious objects of search for the harmless book-collector. Prof. Wendell lost an admirable opportunity to speak of the place to which Cotton Mather is entitled in American literature, for it is as a writer of many books of many sorts that he stands in memory as one of the "makers" of this country. As it is, the author's statement that he found in the 'Magnalia' not a line that is not perfectly lucid nor a paragraph that he could honestly call tiresome, bears weight nd is of interest. A further critical estimate would have been most welcome.

Prof. Wendell candidly admits that he was not so fortunate as to examine the manuscript of the now published book by the late Mr. Marvin, in which, however, there seems to be nothing which would have changed materially his conclusions. To essay a man's Life in his own words, written in solitude or for no eye but his own, has its dangers, and in the case of Cotton Mather this is especially true, for his diaries were so often the effusive and un-

healthy outpourings of one who thought much about his "condition," though he certainly never wilfully neglected the spiritual concerns of others, that an uncomfortable conviction grows that his story as it has been told thus far is frequently not worth the telling. Mr. Marvin's excerpts, upon which he comments in a style better suited to the larger opportunities of the pulpit than to the closer exactions of biography, exhibit in a generous way the best qualities of Cotton Mather, and do not disclose more than is necessary of mere eccentricities or failures. His earnestness so far outweighs his sense of humor that he seldom has availed himself, with Mr. Wendell, of the melancholy pleasure of exposing his subject's weaknesses in order to extenuate them. With some skill in selection, aided by an honest desire to promote the cause of the religion of his fathers, Mr. Marvin gives passages which for the most part show Mather as a man of noble moods. Both editors properly quote the beautiful words of Mather on the death of his first wife, and both are alike generous in their estimate of the manhood and patience shown during his trials with the mental alienation of the third wife.

Brief observations upon most of the publications of Mather have been introduced by Mr. Marvin, and the depositories of many of the rarer imprints are frequently mentioned. Some important corrections are given of earlier bibliographical assertions in the curious tangle of the Mather literature. Mr. Marvin touches with precision on the Brattle Street Church affair, and would, we think, have avoided stating, with Mr. Wendell's certainty, that Benjamin Colman was responsible for the famous 'Gospel Order Revived,' a work which Mr. Hildeburn, usually good authority in these matters, now ascribes with a query to Solomon Southwick; though why not rather to Stoddard of Northampton, it is not easy to see. Mather's memorably progressive part in the early medical history of New England wins from Mr. Marvin something like adequate treatment. Far more edifying than his numerous fastings and strivings, his piqued disappointments at the lack of recognition from Harvard College, or the fateful honesty of his zeal against the possessed of Salem town, are the memories of Cotton Mather's unquenchable wish to do good to mankind, his bustling activity as pastor, preacher, and student, and his zeal in pushing the claims of inoculation. Both Prof. Wendell and Mr. Marvin have been too fearful of widening the scope of their efforts, faithful as each is in his own way, and have limited themselves too closely to the interior view of Mather's two-sided though by no means double character.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS—II.

WHAT dimmest glimpses of the possible joys of reading, any more than of the beauties of language, can visit the mind of a child doomed to get its first and perhaps, alas! its last, ideas of books from the drowsy preachment of a volume of 'Stories for Children: A Supplementary Reader for Schools or for Use at Home,' by Lucretia P. Hale (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn), it is hard to see. It was to brighten life by some such youthful glimpses and to offer some such joys that Matthew Arnold adapted the noblest of the Hebrew prophecies to the use of young learners, and that Lewis Carroll conceived an 'Alice in Wonderland' and irresistible nonsense in verse beside. But let what they and Hawthorne and Kingsley and others like them have contributed to childhood's proper world of letters be ever so studiously neglected, it is safe to say that no child, unless it be a hopeless prig, will ever of its own accord pore over sing-song moralities, however well meant, and that the teacher who attempts to use them in a class will find a speedy retribution in the shape of the wandering eyes and fidgeting limbs on the benches before him.

It is doubtful, too, if instruction, edification, or pure delight will ensue from an acquaintance with 'The Little Doctor,' by Darley Dale (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). The juvenile mind will be quick to spy the cloven foot of pedagogy under the disguise of the gypsy Zingar. In the make-up of the little doctor himself, with his unhealthily premature medical information and his equally unhealthy longing to dabble in magic—which supplies the moral and the second title of the book, "The Magic of Nature"—there is nothing that ought to rouse the juvenile admiration, while there is quite as little that should appeal to the juvenile taste in the sort of talk that is bandied between the disreputable gypsy mother and her still more disreputable son. The "angel-child" Stella is composed after the fashion of Christmas-tree decorations, in cardboard and tinsel-paper, with an indigestible sweetening of sentimentality. Altogether, in spite of some ingenuity in the conception and in the weaving in of Swedish scenery and habits, the recurring problem which this book, too, suggests to the adult mind is, whether, after all, anything save the "best that has been thought and said in the world" is good enough to put into childish hands.

Mrs. Molesworth's English story of 'The Girls and I' (Macmillan & Co.), even though it is told from the standpoint of a premature snob of eleven, who hates to drive on the back seat of a victoria because "it gives such a messy look to the turn-out," who has opinions upon first and second-class travelling, and who speculates whether the landlady has charged for the cake and jam, is not such bad reading in itself. The chief objection to it is that it leaves such a small residuum in the mind after it has been read. There have been children who have thumbed their 'Pilgrim's Progress' in pinafores, and devoured Shakspere or Sir Walter while still in the nursery; and such children, we believe, have generally in after life escaped the most dreary of all curses—that of having nothing to think about. But a boy or a girl might go through a whole library of stories such as this one, about the loss of the diamond ornament, and the family attack of whooping-cough, and their consequences, and still have a mind as unfurnished with lasting conceptions as that of a child altogether bookless, and an imagination not comparable in development with that of the child of one book, provided, only, the one has been drawn from a supreme few.

To unfold the whole network of improbabilities which makes up the plot of 'Kent Hampden,' by Rebecca Harding Davis (Scribners), would take too long, but one or two points may be shown. If it ever happened that an "impulsive Virginian" ran away from home and concealed himself for many years under a changed name, all for the sake of leaving the fortune really his own in the undisputed possession of a crippled cousin, the fact should be frankly admitted to be too strange for fiction. Unlikely, too, is the successful detective work of a boy of fifteen by which he clears his father's name from grave suspicion. The author makes the most of time and place by references to "hot-blooded Southerners" and "that early time," but seventy years ago is too recent, and Wheeling, West Virginia, is too near home, to yield the necessary glamour. Still, as young readers stick at no unlikelihood, and are ready to enjoy the final triumph of virtue, however brought about, this book may suit them well enough, being full of incident and written in a lively style.

Improbability is not to be charged as a defect against 'Elfie's Visit to Cloudland and the Moon,' by Frances Vescelius Austen (Estes & Lauriat). We do not exact reality for a scene in Cloudland, whither a child is transported on a wreath of smoke under the guidance of E-ma-ji-na-shun, who, by the way, turns out to be an uncommonly dull little elf. Dulness, indeed, is to the adult taste the distinguishing characteristic of the whole story, in which Santa Claus, Mother Goose, The Man in the Moon, etc., are treated as real people, perhaps to the delectation of youngsters.

Four very thin books of the "Christmas in Many Lands Series" (Estes & Lauriat) are 'Dulce's Promise,' 'Jean Noël,' 'Lischen and the Fairy,' and 'The Little Musician,' by Florence and Edith Scannell. The scenes are in England in the last century, in France, Germany, and Italy. Monochrome illustrations are freely scattered through the text, and the stories themselves, though slender enough, are quite as substantial as any one would expect after a glance at the millinery covers, one of which actually simulates white lace laid over purple watered silk.

The stories which make up Nora Perry's 'A Rosebud Garden of Girls' (Little, Brown & Co.) are rather moral than useful. Few children would need to be specially taught that every virtue is not confined to the rich, or even that some belong peculiarly to the poor, yet this is the only moral pointed with convincing clearness. The idea of character as the basis of a new and truer class distinction was, no doubt, in the author's mind, but there is often confusion between character as a whole and single traits; rudeness is overlooked on account of independence or generosity until there is some risk that a child would not feel the bad traits to be condemned. The confusion is increased, too, by indications that some of those very refinements which the author is trying to show to be unessential, hold an unduly important place in her own esteem. A plain Western girl is relieved from the unpopularity which continues in spite of her irreproachable behavior, by the discovery that her father is a man of wealth and consequence, and that her dresses came from Paris; and this case does not stand alone, though it probably marks the extreme. In at least one of the stories, "The Cottage Neighbors," the moral is plainly drawn, though the artistic effect is somewhat marred by an occasional grammatical slip (not to say tumble) on the part of a lady supposed to be the very pattern of elegance.

Young and old should be glad to get in one volume the late Mrs. Ewing's 'Jackanapes,' 'Daddy Darwin's Dovecot,' and 'Lob-Lie by the Fire' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). Caldecott's illustrations bind these classic stories together.

'More Good Times at Hackmatack,' by Mary P. W. Smith (Boston: Roberts Bros.), is rather a series of sketches than a continued story of life in an inland Massachusetts village sixty years ago. The principal characters are the children of the minister, and their occupations and amusements are the theme of the book. They make sugar, go on a picnic, help raise the frame of the church, see a circus, enter heartily into the Tippecanoe political cam-

paign—idolizing Webster, of course, whom they hear speak, as well as Everett—attend the academy, and finally one goes to Harvard. There are few adventures, and those not of the thrilling kind, though the children are constantly falling into scrapes; but the interest of the book is wholly in its faithful pictures of a past generation. In these the author has shown much skill and no little humor, especially in the description of the summer Sunday and of some of the more peculiar village characters.

'Monica,' by Mrs. Evelyn Raymond (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), tells of an attractive Spanish girl, whose adventures while searching for a runaway brother furnish the main incidents of a very interesting story. Her unselfish devotion to those belonging to her is not without its influence upon others, especially upon young Christine, the adopted daughter of rich Americans, and only less charming than the heroine herself. Of the other characters, Benito, the little hunchback, is the most taking. The scene of the story is laid in Southern California, and there is a sufficient number of exciting incidents—as, for instance, a cyclone and a mortal combat with a grizzly—to commend it to its chosen audience.

Prof. H. H. Boyesen's 'Boyhood in Norway' (Scribners) is a collection of short stories illustrative of Norwegian sports and customs. Some are tales of adventure, as of hunting the elk and the bear, and rafting and logging in times of flood. Others are founded upon certain superstitions of the peasantry, chiefly in connection with children; but in one, "The Nixy's Strain," a belief in fairies is made in a charming way to call forth and develop all that is best in a boy's nature. Nearly all, in fact, teach lessons of manliness, self-control, and unselfishness, while one gives a noble example of self-sacrifice. Six of the nine stories, it should be said, as the title-page does not indicate the fact, have already been published in the *Youth's Companion* and in *Harper's Young People*.

The title of 'Zigzag Journeys on the Mississippi,' by H. Butterworth (Estes & Lauriat), naturally implies an account of the river, its scenery, the cities on its banks, its commerce, agriculture, and history. There is nothing of the kind. Of 319 pages, a little less than two are devoted to a general description of the river, seven are given to St. Louis, eight to New Orleans, while six lines each suffice for Memphis and Vicksburg. The Chicago Exposition has a few pages, and brief mention is made of the "islands of the Discovery." The rest of the volume consists of miscellaneous essays, poems, and stories, some of which relate to the early history of the river and America. There are in the text which strings them together passages like the following: "The legend of Ponce de Leon [the date of his birth is given a century too late] represents the struggle of the soul for larger knowledge and higher attainments, of the dreams of the *ideal* finding the *real*. *That* is America. It is the most beautiful allegory of America's life and mission. Already the legend is beginning to take form. It has been put into solid art in the palace hotel at St. Augustine." "America has only one city that is a poem." "At the entrance of the park is the grand bronze statue of Lincoln which stands in a serious but hospitable attitude on a semicircular platform of state."

Mr. Warren Lee Goss, whose 'Recollections of a Private' has a recognized place in the literature of the civil war, offers to boys an attractive book in his 'Tom Clifton' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). His hero migrates in youth from New England to Minnesota, and goes through the adventures, perennially fascinating to the young, of establishing a new home, hunting, fishing, farming, and exposure to "blizzards." The civil war breaks out, and the youth, with a group of companions, enlists. Mr. Goss did not serve in the West, but his experiences in the ranks need but little change to insure verisimilitude when his boys fight at Shiloh, Corinth, Vicksburg, and Missionary Ridge. The horrors of capture follow, and thrilling efforts at escape, with final release in time to share the hurrahs at the return of peace. There is, perhaps, too much history for successful fiction; but boys are good at skipping, and for the more faithful readers the history is fairly close to the accepted version of the campaigns the author describes.

'The Story of John G. Paton' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is the record of a well-spent life. It tells in a simple way of the struggles of a poor Scotch lad to get an education, of his self-denying work among the poor of Glasgow, and of nearly thirty years' toil among the cannibals of the New Hebrides. Few books of adventure have such thrilling incidents as are narrated by this missionary, whose perils from storm, sickness, and the hostility of the natives were equalled only by the courage and patience with which he endured them. Nor are there any more attractive pictures of savage life than those which Mr. Paton draws of these poor islanders after they had become Christians. The "story" should find a place, at least, in every Sunday-school library.

A Hanoverian-English Officer a Hundred Years Ago: Memoirs of Baron Ompteda, Colonel in the King's German Legion, etc. Translated by John Hill, M.A., with portrait. London: Grevel & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 8vo, pp. 320.

INTERESTING side-lights are thrown by these memoirs upon the great conflict between England and the first Napoleon, from unexpected sources. As George the Third was King of Hanover as well as of Great Britain, the little Continental kingdom, though independent by its Constitution, was not allowed to be neutral in the wars following the French Revolution. It was a convenient point of attack where England could be reached without crossing the Channel. It was therefore occupied by French troops when war was waged between the principal countries. From 1803 to Napoleon's downfall it was continuously held by England's great enemy, and many of its most patriotic citizens were in exile. It was never the field of decisive battles, but it was harried and stripped by marching columns and remorseless garrisons, hopelessly enduring the most galling burdens and insults, without any of the glory of real war.

Christian Ompteda was a young lieutenant in the Hanoverian army when Louis XVI. was guillotined and war broke out. He served in the Netherlands campaigns of 1793-5, being severely wounded at Mont Cassel, and in his slow recovery suffered such mental depression as for a time unbalanced his mind. His sympathy with his countrymen in their misfortunes gave a sombre tone to his life and a tendency to melancholia which once more in his career caused a temporary insanity. These periods of alienation were brief, but they add a curious interest to his story by the resemblance, on a smaller scale, to the mental disorder of King George his sovereign, which so gravely affected the Government of Great Britain.

When in 1803 Hanover was forced to disband its army, Capt. Ompteda, with many more of the Hanoverian officers, made their way to England by devious routes and through many adventures and hardships. The German Legion was organized as part of the British Army, several thousand Hanoverian recruits, largely from the disbanded army, finding their way to the standards which their officers set up at Portsmouth. Ompteda was made major in one of the battalions, and he was thenceforward an exile, but a devoted soldier of his Hanoverian king. He served in English camps, was for a year in the garrison of Gibraltar, took part in the expedition against Copenhagen in 1807, was wrecked on the coast of Holland and made a prisoner of war. After his exchange he served under Wellington in the latter part of the Peninsular campaign, and, upon Napoleon's return from Elba, was transferred with the English Army to Belgium, and took active part in the campaign of Waterloo. He was now colonel of his regiment and commandant of a brigade. At Waterloo his troops defended the famous farm of La Haye Sainte, and he was killed in one of the last charges of the French cuirassiers. The monument on the field, opposite the place of the old farm-gate, bears his name with that of his comrades who fell with him.

Though his military career was an honorable and an instructive one, the chief interest in his story, compiled as it mainly is from his letters, is found in the mental and social history, which may be taken as a type of that of his oppressed and patriotic countrymen. We are made to learn what life was in Hanover in the doleful era of the subjugation. From this point of view we have a new and valuable chapter in the inner history of the time. Christian's brother, Louis, was in the diplomatic service, being ambassador of Hanover at the Court of Berlin, and an unofficial representative also of the English Government. Scharnhorst and Gneisenau were their intimate friends, and all were heart and soul in the reaction of 1813, when Germans were proud to "give gold for iron," and to have a hand in the downfall of the Napoleonic despotism.

The Bible and English Prose Style. Selections and Comments. Edited, with an Introduction, by Albert S. Cook, Professor of the English Language and Literature in Yale University. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THIS little book of Prof. Cook's, in essence a plea for the study of the Bible for literary ends, will be a melancholy confirmation, to some, of the recent saying of an English writer: "Now that the Bible has ceased to be a fetish, it has ceased to be read." What possible need could there be of an exhortation to acquire familiarity with the Bible for the sake of understanding the allusions to it with which all English literature is filled, and for the sake of benefiting by its diction and style, if it were still the practice of mothers, as it was Ruskin's, to "force" their children, "by steady daily toil, to learn long chapters of the Bible by heart"?

At best Prof. Cook's volume must appeal to a narrow circle; it will have no chance of being used as a text-book in Sunday-schools, where he would be thought to be laying stress upon the beggarly elements; as little will it commend itself in those pietistic families where talismanic ideas of the Bible still linger; the most it can do is, perhaps, to remind a

student here and there of those resources of literary gratification and moral uplifting which are to be found in the nobler portions of the Scriptures, and which can be enjoyed, as George Eliot and Matthew Arnold proved, even after the old glamour of theological interpretation has been dissipated.

Prof. Cook's introduction is in the main excellently conceived. A lack of discrimination might be charged against it, in its failure to distinguish the unequal values of the many different styles comprised under the name "the Bible." "Noble naturalness" may be safely claimed for the racy narratives of the Jehovist, but would it be just to assert it of the Elohist, with his schoolmaster's stiffness and jealous reiteration? So of some of Prof. Cook's other distinctions. It would be difficult to make good his sweeping assertion that there is no "artificiality" in the Bible; one remembers the acrostic Psalms, Ezekiel's unrealities, and the elaborate machinery of the Song of Songs. We think, too, that in commending the style of the Bible so unreservedly as Prof. Cook does, he should have been at more pains to point out the special vice, for us moderns, of one of its qualities—its prevailing oversight of the reasoning faculties. He states, it is true, that "there is no attempt to convert men from their errors by ratiocinative or philosophical processes"; but this scarcely marks, it seems to us, the whole world of difference between the style of St. John and that of Plato, for example. The Greek made all his appeal to the reason of men; did it as a cover for arbitrary dogmatizing, often; did it with surprising use of merely verbal arguments many times; but still did it, and so followed a method which is valid and indispensable today. The Hebrew spoke throughout in the name of Divine Infallibility, and thus made the tremendous impression he did as long as his dicta had to undergo no scrutiny. But one proved error was enough to throw doubt on his whole method, whereas, in Plato's give-and-take of argument, a mistake discovered serves but to confirm his method. Which of the two is best adapted to the needs of the modern world and the uses of modern writers, it is not necessary to say.

Goethe's Faust. Edited by Calvin Thomas, Professor of Germanic Languages and Literatures in the University of Michigan. Vol. I.: The First Part. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1892.

It is not too much to say that of all "Faust" editions which thus far have appeared in this country or in England, the one of which Prof. Thomas has just given us the first instalment is by all odds the most scholarly and comprehensive. Indeed, it is the only one which can be proclaimed worthy of the poet whose name it bears, the only one which can be mentioned, if not side by side with the works of such men as Loeper or Schröer or Düntzér, at least in the very next place after them.

Prof. Thomas is not a novice in this field of work. For years he has given his best thought to the study of Goethe. The admirable Goethe collection which the University of Michigan owes to his indefatigable zeal and organizing power stands among the very first of its kind in America. His edition of "Torquato Tasso," which appeared a few years ago, is a model of critical tact and discretion. But it is as the editor of "Faust" that he will be most widely and favorably known. What gives to this edition its distinguishing feature is the spirit of directness and common sense which pervades it from beginning to end. Prof. Thomas approaches his task without any preconceived theories; he does not tamper with facts in order to import a philosophy of his own into Goethe's poem; he does not try to dazzle through brilliant æsthetic *aperçus;* he does not waste time in long-winded antiquarian or linguistic digressions. He gives us a careful historical account of the genesis of the legend and of Goethe's drama, and a thorough philological interpretation of the text. And it is mainly by reason of this wise self-restriction that his edition of "Faust" will mark an important step in the history of genuine Goethe study in America. Dilettantism will henceforth be out of the race.

According to his own statement (Pref., p. 5), Prof. Thomas has "as a rule avoided controversy and the rehearsal and discussion of conflicting views." For a book which is in the main intended to present a correct view of the accepted results of modern Goethe scholarship, this was unquestionably a sound decision. We cannot, however, suppress a doubt whether in some cases it would not have been better to adhere somewhat less strictly to this rule. In speaking of the popular Faust-drama of the seventeenth century, the editor remarks (Introd., p. 18) that this production "now appears to have been derived from Marlowe's 'Faustus' as brought to Germany by English players." It cannot be unknown to Prof. Thomas that this theory of Creizenach's has of late been most effectually attacked by a number of scholars, who seem to make it probable that there existed a native German Faust-drama as early as the sixteenth century. Even if there was no room for discussing Herman Grimm's ingenious hypothesis that the very Faust-book of 1587 was based in part upon a popular dramatic tradition, it seems as though it would have been within the scope of such an edition as this to mention at least the fact that, as Bielschowsky's incisive investigations have clearly demonstrated, there are a number of most important traits in the puppet-plays of Faust not to be found in Marlowe, which it is almost impossible to explain except by assuming that they were remnants of a sixteenth-century German Faust-play.

Lessing's "Faust" does not seem to receive its due share of attention at Prof. Thomas's hands. All that is given (Introd., p. 20) is a scanty reference to the famous seventeenth *Literaturbrief*. There is no analysis of the fragment of the drama itself, no allusion to the reports of Engel and Eschenburg about it, not even a mention of the important fact, so clearly brought out by Kuno Fischer, that Lessing was the first to conceive of a final salvation of Faust.

In speaking of the scene *Wald und Höhle* (Introd., pp. 53, 62; notes, p. 315), Prof. Thomas does not even hint at the possibility that the "erhabne Geist" whom Faust addresses on this occasion might be other than the Earth-Spirit of the opening scene. It is hard to believe that Prof. Thomas himself considers this as a certainty beyond question, in view of the powerful arguments by which W. von Biedermann has tried to refute this very interpretation. How, we may ask, would he reconcile the lines of the *Wald und Höhle* monologue:

"Dann führst du mich zur sichern Höhle, zeigst
Mich dann mir selbst, und meiner eignen Brust
Geheime tiefe Wunder öffnen sich,"

with the words of the *Monodrama:*

"Du Erdengeist, kennst du die Macht,
Was eine Menschenbrust vermag?"

Is it possible to assume that both these utterances were addressed to the same being?

We have mentioned these cases, to which a number of others might be added, in order to show that Prof. Thomas has not always avoided a danger to which his desire for succinctness and his aversion to controversy made him peculiarly liable: the danger, namely, of dismissing without notice opinions and conjectures which it would have been well worth his while to admit at least to a hearing. But it would be unjust not to add that in the vast majority of cases Prof. Thomas's own judgment is so carefully considered, so well balanced, so eminently the result of a conscientious examination and comparison of all the available material, that it can truly stand for the best opinion of modern "Faust" criticism. One example at least among many may illustrate and fortify this praise: the way in which Prof. Thomas discusses *Mephistopheles*'s character. Not even *Mephistopheles* has escaped that mania prevalent among modern commentators of reducing all poetical creations to mere copies of actual conditions or individuals. Some see in him Goethe's Leipzig friend Behrisch, others consider him modelled after J. H. Merck, still others think Herder his living prototype. Of course, there may be a grain of truth in every one of these identifications, and we think Prof. Thomas did entirely right to discuss every one of them at some length. But still more do we agree with him when, after having duly considered the claims of all these men to have shaped the conception of *Mephistopheles,* he winds up with the following remark (Introd., p. 78):

"The truth is that Goethe's famous creation owes very little, and nothing that is clearly definable, to any actual personage. *Mephistopheles* is simply the natural, and, in view of Goethe's poetical methods, necessary, pendant to *Faust.* The pair are in their way but another instance of that dualism of poetic conception which meets us elsewhere as *Götz* and *Weislingen, Clavigo* and *Carlos, Orestes* and *Pylades, Tasso* and *Antonio.* . . . Our poet needed no models, and no suggestion beyond what was furnished by his widening acquaintance with life and his observation of the inner contrasts of his own being."

We must forego entering upon further particulars, such as the discussion of the "Urfaust," the analysis of *Wagner's* character, the consideration and partial refutation of Scherer's criticism of *Faust's* first monologue, and other passages of Prof. Thomas's work which seem to us especially worthy of commendation. But enough has been said to make it clear that here we have a work which, when completed, will be no small credit to American scholarship, and which even in its present form will do much to stimulate serious Goethe study in our colleges and universities.

Admiral Farragut. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, U. S. N. D. Appleton & Co.

This little volume is the first of a series which is to be devoted to the lives of the great commanders of American history. It is fortunate that so able and competent a pen has been secured to treat of the career of the greatest naval commander of recent times, not only presenting one of the best short naval biographies that we know of, but giving also a critical naval history of great value of the operations in which Farragut took part. The work before us should serve to elevate and sustain the professional reputation of Farragut, and in addition make better known the professional and literary ability of his biographer.

Farragut was born near Knoxville, Tenn.,

in 1801, his father being of unmixed Spanish origin, a native of the Balearic Isles, while his mother, of Scotch descent, was a native of North Carolina. Shortly after his birth, his father, who had served upon the side of the Americans during the War of the Revolution, removed to Louisiana and was appointed a sailing-master in the navy, his duties being confined to service in the waters of the Gulf. Through the kindness shown by the father of Farragut to the father of Capt. David Porter during his last illness, the relations between the families became intimate, and the future Admiral of the American Navy was adopted by the father of the late Admiral Porter, who was the second person to hold that grade in our naval service. Accompanying his protector to Washington, Farragut, in 1810, when less than ten years of age, received through the influence of Porter a warrant as midshipman in the navy. In 1811 he joined the frigate *Essex* with Capt. Porter, to whom the command of this vessel had been assigned. The building of the *Essex* by the citizens of Salem, in accordance with the law passed in 1798, is described here in an interesting manner; everything pertaining to the construction and equipment of the ship being portioned out among the people of this Massachusetts town, and supplied from its resources and those of the surrounding country. Each of the three ropewalks undertook the rigging of a mast, and the workmen carried the rope cables when completed upon their shoulders, in procession, to the ship, headed by a drum and fife.

The war of 1812 breaking out, the *Essex* was fitted out for her last and famous cruise in the Pacific. Missing the *Constitution* and *Hornet*, Porter finally proceeded to the Pacific, reaching Valparaiso in 1813, after a severe passage around Cape Horn. After a cruise of nearly a year, commerce-destroying, the *Essex* was met by English men-of-war, the *Phœbe* and *Cherub*, and shortly afterwards followed the famous action which, though resulting in the capture of the *Essex*, redounded more to the honor and fame of the captured than of the captors. Farragut lacked still three months of being thirteen years old in this fight. He saw service after his exchange before the termination of the war of 1812, and continued afloat without much interval or incident, excepting his service in the Mosquito fleet in the West Indies against pirates. In 1823 he returned to Norfolk and married, and from that time until the outbreak of the civil war his life was the ordinary one of a naval officer in time of peace, an alternation of sea cruising and duty on shore. The author, however, bears witness, from an examination of the private journal of Farragut, to his activity of mind, habits of observation, and above all to a constant readiness and diligence in embracing every passing opportunity for improvement, all of which told for so much in his after career. When at New Haven he availed himself of the lectures given at Yale College, and while on duty in Washington he attended regularly those of the Smithsonian Institution.

With Farragut, as with members of our military and naval services generally, the time of preparation was long, that of action but short. He was nearly sixty years of age in 1861, having been in the navy over fifty years, while his famous war career was compressed into a period of less than three years. We were fortunate, immediately after the outbreak of the war, in having had called to the Navy Department a man competent to act as its professional head, though not at the time in the naval service. Mr. Gustavus V. Fox, the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, added to a naval experience of eighteen years an extensive acquaintance with naval officers and excellent business and military capacity. To him was due the general scheme of the expedition against New Orleans. Farragut, whose loyalty had stood the crucial test of the early days of the war, was selected for its command, and enthusiastically approved of the proposed operations. The author discusses fully the professional differences in the views of Farragut and Porter as to the passage of the forts, Porter favoring a reduction before passing, while Farragut, with Fox, believed that the passage of the forts should be made and the troops brought from the Gulf above the forts, under the protection of the ships, through the bayous. The passage of the forts is critically and fully described. The strategic foresight of Farragut enabled him to successfully carry his fleet by the forts, cut off their communications with New Orleans, and thus cause their fall. That the capture of the city, as well as the occupation of the Lower Mississippi, was the work of the United States Navy, and of the navy alone, has never been successfully impugned; and the author well says that of this triumphant work Farragut, by his magnificent successes, became the representative figure.

Space does not allow us to follow Farragut in his course up the Mississippi, and the succeeding combined operations which led to the Vicksburg campaign of Grant and ended in the final command of the great water route, which caused in turn the trans-Mississippi States of the Confederacy to shrink into insignificance as a military factor of the Rebellion. The criticisms of the author concerning these operations are peculiarly sound and able.

Mobile came next. It was, at the end of the period referred to, the best port upon the Gulf left to the Confederates; its attack had long been urged by Farragut as well as desired by Grant. When the Department directed the attack, a further delay occurred by reason of the completion of the iron-clad *Tennessee* and the consequent necessity for iron-clads upon the Union side. When the iron-clads arrived, Farragut found at Mobile new conditions, serviceable iron-clads for attack and defence, torpedoes and permanent channel obstructions. The fight at Mobile Bay, though less important in its objective and results than that below New Orleans, surpassed the latter in its varied nature, heroic personal leadership, and dramatic accompaniment. The confusion at the head of the column, from the mistaken course of the *Tecumseh* and the stopping of the *Brooklyn*, and the final sinking of the *Tecumseh*, all under the heavy fire of Fort Morgan, gave Farragut the opportunity to display his heroic qualities and genius for war. The ramming and iron-clad contest with the *Tennessee*, the pursuit by Jouett, and the final surrender of Buchanan, fitly closed this memorable page in American history.

After Mobile, Farragut's health and advancing years prevented him from taking any further active part in the war, and after the war in professional matters of importance; but his closing years were as unsullied as his whole life had been pure and elevated. Those who had the good fortune to know him during his lifetime felt drawn to him not only by his unobtrusive and simple character, but by his great kindliness of manner. His character is one that his countrymen can always dwell upon with a satisfaction and pride that needs no qualification. No great commander of the war for the Union, of either service, North or South, was more symmetrical and noble in his mould or more heroic in character than the first Admiral of the American Navy.

The Old English Manor. By Charles M'Lean Andrews, Ph.D. Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science. Extra Volume XII. Baltimore. 1892.

MR. ANDREWS'S substantial treatise on Anglo-Saxon manorial life is welcome, both as a scholarly piece of work and as testifying to a growing perception among American students of the vital importance of the question of the origin of the manor for any real understanding of the social evolution of the past. It is scholarly in the sense of being well informed and careful; and although the style is frequently slipshod, that is a minor defect, especially as the book appeals only to specialists.

The greater part of the volume is occupied by a minute description of manorial life in the century before the Norman Conquest. In this Mr. Andrews follows very closely the lines laid down by Mr. Seebohm, as indeed every unprejudiced writer since 1883 has been compelled to do; but he has brought together a wealth of additional detail which will be of no little service to subsequent investigators. He frankly concedes much that the writers with whom he has most sympathy have hitherto refused to recognize; that, for instance, "there is no reason to believe that the Norman Conquest created any changes in the life of the village group"; that the great body of the people were only "nominally free," and indeed can fairly be described as being "in a semi-servile condition"; and that there is "no clear evidence" for the existence of "freeholders" in pre-Norman times. He makes a still more important concession, of the full significance of which he is hardly aware, viz., that in the laws of Ine of Wessex (drawn up between A. D. 688 and A. D. 705) we already "find the manorial growth well developed, *either from serfdom upwards* or from freedom downwards," and indeed that they show "nearly every feature of the manor life of the *Rectitudines*"—a document three centuries later. This would seem to knock the bottom out of the argument to which Mr. Andrews more than once resorts as against Mr. Seebohm, that between the *villa* and the *manor* there is "a period of 600 years" without evidence. Mr. Andrews perhaps feels this; for he hastens to minimize his concession by the remark that "there is no clear indication of the labor upon which the whole question turns." There is much virtue in a *clear;* since the phrases of the laws of Ine certainly do indicate some sort of labor dues. And if we compare the conditions there revealed with the laws of the Alamanni and the laws of the Bavarians half a century earlier, it is easy to see in what direction the probability lies. Mr. Andrews warns us not to "draw inferences from Frankish practices," and he would probably add "or any other Continental parallels"; "for," he goes on, "it is plain that Roman influence on the Continent had consequences which cannot be applied to England." But this is precisely what has to be proved.

Thus, in the part of the work where Mr. Andrews is giving the results of his own study of the original sources, his conclusions are in general harmony with those of Mr. Seebohm and others who throw back the serfdom of the body of the population into a very distant period. But our author still clings to the free vil-

lage-community theory, and in his long Introduction he propounds a view of his own. It is, in brief, that the manor is descended from the settlements of clans under hereditary chiefs. For this he adduces scarcely anything which looks like evidence, but still it is an opinion worth bearing in mind; and there are other considerations to which Mr. Andrews does not refer—such as the opinions of Skene and Sullivan as to the late and artificial origin of the clan—which tend in the same direction. Only, why not drop the term "village community"? It has too long been the practice to use it without discrimination for everything which differed from modern holding in severalty: like the writer quoted with approval by Mr. Andrews who says that "the Irish *tribe* was simply one example of those village communities which existed among all the early Aryan nations." The mediæval manor we know, and the tribe we are beginning to know; but the free *Markgenossenschaft* has never been more than a pleasing vision. And if Mr. Andrews and those like him who are almost persuaded to give up Maurer will let their minds play freely round these facts—that English manorial life was substantially identical with the manorial life of the Continent, and that the manorial life of the Continent came down without break in continuity from the conditions of the later Roman Empire—they may at last recognize the likelihood that even in Britain the manor derived very much from Roman agrarian methods.

A Tour around New York. By John Flavel Mines. Harper & Bros. 1893.

It would be a pity if these pleasant sketches, which have delighted so many readers, should go the way of what they commemorate and be forgotten. They deserve to be preserved in this permanent form, enriched and enlivened as it is by more than 100 engravings from well-chosen subjects of buildings, views, and curious relics described in the text. Taking Trinity Church as a starting-point, Felix Oldboy saunters leisurely through the streets, parks, burial grounds, and public buildings of the lower city, following the story of each one back from its condition now, through its changes to its beginning. The knowledge of persons and localities displayed in his early papers, and the genuine feeling pervading them, brought letters and requests from many correspondents. Guided by these, his walks extended over all the island, and his inquiries revealed new histories or discovered sites, while his range of reminiscences by degrees embraced almost all classes and institutions of New York as it was forty or fifty years ago, and his researches linked all these with the remoter past of Revolutionary days. Perhaps the latter part of the volume, devoted to the shores of the East River, is the best instance of his skilful use of points historical and traditional. At the same time the sketches of the scenery and the society of that region abound in picturesque effects and interesting personalities.

One does not look for a keynote in writings which their author speaks of as simply the records of a random tour through familiar places, recalling the persons of other days. Yet such a note is betrayed. The sketches are held together by the slightest thread of recurrence to one quiet home and its gracious inmates. As the notes of saunterings widen in range they deepen in feeling and gain a simple tenderness; and the close of the first series expresses the undertone of the whole, in the answer, more amused than contemptuous, to some one's suggestion that Felix Oldboy knows nothing of "the élite of the city in former years." It is of the finest style—the quiet way in which the modern social standards of the soi-disant élite are ignored, and the true worth and dignity of the elder ways implied, in contrast with the extravagances of fashionable leaders and their fashionable rabble at this day. It does not lie at all in the author's way to explain such contrasts, but their causes are suggested in every family name that he cites, in every civic function he describes, in every sidelight he throws on the spirit and drift of the old public and private city life, out of which that of to-day has sprung—widened, stimulated, enriched, but surely, as to many of the best things, degenerate.

As a startling outcome of forces that had long been working for social changes, the author mentions the civil war. No doubt society, not merely in its surface show, but in all its relations to business, politics, morals, was profoundly modified by that tragic period, with its "sudden making of splendid" fortunes. Still, other influences of change, more subtle if less violent, are suggested by Oldboy's light touches upon the men and their deeds of fifty years ago. The mention of some great merchant's name revives the strong personality, the wide knowledge, the bold forecast that won commercial leadership before the telegraph had equalized opportunities and almost levelled capacities. If some eminent banker is named, it serves to remind us of the times when financiers had not yet found Fortunatus's purse in the needs of great corporations. If Oldboy had been asked the question, we believe he would have answered that of all the powers speeding the shifting of the old and the coming of the new order, that one which works most deeply at the foundation of society is the rise and growth of corporations, stifling individuality, concentrating power, deadening responsibility. But this is digressing into regions which Oldboy's cheerful lightness would have avoided.

As his clerical lineage and connections lead us to expect, the writer's notes reveal many curious facts about the churches of a half century ago. The tenacity of doctrine, even the persistence in locality, of some of these modest and little known religious communities, is striking. The salt of the earth is still strewn in many out-of-the-way places. Of the legal profession he has less that is new, because old, to tell us. Indeed, the men of the robe have never been backward in speaking for themselves, their share in public affairs always keeping them conspicuous. The names he dwells upon are those of lawyers whose civic service and social charm made them the peers and friends of the great merchants who win Oldboy's warmest praise. The medical brotherhood cannot be said to fare worst at his hands, for in fact it does not fare at all. Yet old Manhattan, healthful and beautiful as he paints it, knew both the blessing of doctors and the curse of quacks. We have personally known one desperate Sangrado and an Ollapod or two. In the plagues of yellow fever and cholera that have invaded the island there have been heroes of the hospital whose names deserved to be kept green; and New York society has at all times recognized, as it does today, certain physicians as among its most brilliant and valued members. However, men of the first rank in that profession have never been quite as ready as those in the others to let their left hand know what their right hand was doing.

It may be that the new times are the better times. At any rate those who enjoy them will think so. It may gratify their curiosity, as it will touch with a tender regret those who lead them by a score or two of years, to read these lively memorials of a time when brick, mahogany, and madeira were going out with the old ex-slave servant, while brownstone, veneer, and thin potations began to come in with Biddy and valets. There are some men with minds so constituted as to think that things in our city ought to be honest as well as splendid—that on the whole the public good is not so well served by "combines" of Hans and Mike as by dull old Dutch probity. Such persons would actually prefer what used to be advertised as "an agreeable rum," brought in by traders fifty years ago, to fiery whiskey attending the advent of Hibernian statesmen.

We may hope for help to better municipal rule from one class for whom this book should be full of interest. They are the scions of those families whose names are recorded in it only to be honored, and whose line of public service runs back to the days of colonial Government. And among the correspondents whose attention was drawn to these papers there must be many whose stores of information and anecdote upon kindred subjects would be welcomed by the public. Such contributions might aid to complete this valuable record of what may be called the biography of New York city, as distinct from its history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Attis of Catullus. London: David Nutt.
Anstey, F. Voces Populi. Second series. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Ariel Shakspere. 7 vols. Putnams. $5.25.
Bates, Charlotte F. The Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Best Dressed Man: A Gossip on Manners and Modes. London: J. W. Doré; Boston: J. G. Cupples Co.
Browning's Prose Life of Strafford. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Bruce, Rev. A. B. Apologetics. [International Theological Library.] Scribners. $2.50.
Chambrun, Le Comte de. Aux Montagnes d'Auvergne: Mes Conclusions Sociologiques. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Clews, Henry. Twenty-eight Years in Wall Street. Irving Publishing Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. The Last Touches, and Other Stories. Macmillan. $1.
Colomb, Madame C. Hermine's Triumph. Appletons.
Cone, Jessica. Scenes from the Life of Christ. Putnams. $3.50.
Conybeare, F. C. A Collation with the Ancient Armenian Versions of the Greek Text of Aristotle's Categories, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Day, O. F. G. The Devil's Gold. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. 50 cents.
Deutsche Volkslieder. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $1.50.
Doyle, A. C. The Great Shadow. Harpers.
Driver, Prof. S. R. Sermons on Subjects connected with the Old Testament. London: Methuen & Co.
Dumas, A. The Man in the Iron Mask. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Dunbar, Newell. Heinrich Heine: His Wit, Wisdom and Poetry. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co.
Francis, Edward. Life of Chopin. [Petite Library.] Brentanos. 50 cents.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Gogol, Nikolai V. The Inspector-General. London: Walter Scott; New York: Lovell & Co. $1.25.
Gore, Rev. Charles. The Mission of the Church. Scribners. $1.
Grossmith, George and Weedon. The Diary of a Nobody. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Gruener, Prof. Gustav. Keller's Dietegen. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Hoskins, L. M. The Elements of Graphic Statics. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hugo, V. Les Misérables. 2 vols. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Fever of Life. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
Hyne, C. J. C. The New Eden. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Ireland, Mrs. Alexander. Selections from the Letters of Geraldine Endsor Jewsbury to Jane Welsh Carlyle. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Ivanhoe. [English Classics for Schools.] American Book Co. 50 cents.
King, J. H. The Supernatural: Its Origin, Nature, and Evolution. 2 vols. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $6.

Lamb's Wit and Wisdom. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $1.
Leger, Louis. La Littérature Russe. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Malleson, Col. G. B. The Refounding of the German Empire, 1848–1871. Scribners. $1.75.
Massingham, H. W. The London Daily Press. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Minet, William. Some Account of the Huguenot Family of Minet. London: The Author.
Paul, Prof. Hermann. Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie. II Band, 1 Abteilung, Liefe-rungen 5 and 7. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Hildegarde's Home. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Robinson, C. N., and Leyland, John. In the Queen's Navee. Brentanos. $1.50.
Sanborn, E. J., and A. W. Dramas. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.
Tucker, Elizabeth S. A Cup of Tea: Pictures from Doll Life. Worthington Co.
Tucker, Elizabeth S. Little Ways and Great Plays. Worthington Co.
Tynan, Katharine. Irish Love-Songs. Cassell. $1.25.
Vagabond Rhymes. Boston: Cupples. $1.25.
Woods, Katharine P. From Dusk to Dawn. Appletons.
Wordsworth's Poems Selected by Matthew Arnold. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Worthington's *Annual*. 1893. Worthington Co.
Wright, Prof. G. F. Man and the Glacial Period. Appletons.
Wright, W. W. The Works of Shakspere. (The Cambridge Shakspere.) Vol. VIII. Macmillan. $3.
Ziehen, Prof. Theodor. Introduction to Physiological Psychology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

Readers of the FORUM *will remember Dr. Weir Mitchell's recent enthusiastic article on the privately-printed sonnets of* MR. CHARLES LEONARD MOORE. *Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have pleasure in announcing that they have arranged to publish Mr. Moore's works as follows:*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 8, 1892.

The Week.

It must be said that Mr. Harrison, in his message to the expiring Congress, takes his humiliation as gracefully as could be expected. He admits that "the result of the recent election must be accepted as having introduced a new policy." He refrains from charging the people with being fools for decreeing a change, although he does accuse "the wage-earner" of having his perception of the beauties of McKinleyism "obscured by the passion evoked" by controversies between employers and employees. He graciously concedes that "those who have advocated a protective tariff can well afford to have their disastrous forecasts of a change of policy disappointed." At the same time he declares his conviction that these disastrous forecasts will not be disappointed—that the friends of the protective system will await the results of the new experiment "with undiminished confidence in the principles they have advocated." As to action, he says:

> "I recommend that the whole subject of tariff-revision be left to the incoming Congress. It is matter of regret that this work must be delayed for at least three months; for the threat of great tariff changes introduces so much uncertainty that an amount, not easily estimated, of business inaction and of diminished production will necessarily result. It is possible, also, that this uncertainty may result in decreased revenues from customs duties, for our merchants will make cautious orders for foreign goods in view of the prospect of tariff reductions and the uncertainty as to when they will take effect."

Postmaster General Wanamaker's annual report is aglow with the best rhetoric of his bargain-counter advertisements. Everything proves "wonderful growth" and "steady improvement of the service." One characteristic touch is, "The deficit receded nearly a million." This is much neater than to admit that his prediction of a year ago, that the deficit would be entirely wiped out, has been falsified. Secretary Foster believed him at the time, and made post-office receipts and expenditures equal in his estimates for 1892. In his estimates for 1893, submitted last year, he actually counted upon a surplus in the Post-office Department. But he has since learned not to take Wanamaker literally, and now figures on a deficit in his Department of $2,453,966 for 1893, and one nearly as large for 1894. If the Postmaster-General is no longer credited by the Secretary of the Treasury, we do not think that other people will give great heed to him.

The Superintendent of the Census, Mr. Porter, renews in his annual report his former suggestion that the Census Bureau be made permanent, and in support of it remarks that he has consulted statisticians, experts, and others interested in the improvement of census statistics, who favor the proposition. A collection of opinions from genuine authorities upon census statistics as to the value of Mr. Porter's services would, we are positive, be unanimous in favor of ridding the Government of him as soon as possible. He gives much space in his report to the consideration of complaints made against the accuracy of his census, observing complacently that the work of his enumerators "has been vindicated by time." As a matter of fact time has steadily added cumulative evidence in support of the belief that his census is undoubtedly the most inaccurate and untrustworthy ever compiled in this country. Mr. Porter is obliged in his present report to explain how it was that his census of the manufacturing industry of Philadelphia was so grotesquely inaccurate that the entire press of the city was obliged to denounce it. He says that the special agent in charge of it "was imbued with the idea that the manufactures of Philadelphia must be made to exceed in value those of New York city, and to sustain this idea some of his subordinates manufactured returns which they failed to find legitimately." He adds that a revised valuation of the city shows a net decrease from the first of nearly $157,000,000. Everybody who has followed Mr. Porter's course in the Bureau will recognize as his the idea with which he says the Philadelphia special agent was "imbued," for it is the idea upon which the entire census has been compiled—namely, to make it a monument of the blessings of a high-protective tariff.

Mr. Porter shows that the total expense of compiling his worthless census (for worthless it is and always will be as a source of exact and unquestioned information) is already more than $8,000,000, and that he will need $240,000 more in order to continue his work through the present fiscal year. He is unable to say when the work will be finished. Whatever action Congress may take in the matter, one of the first steps of the Cleveland Administration ought to be to rid the service of this preposterous statistician. Of the very many bad appointments which President Harrison has made, Porter's is easily the worst. He had no qualifications for the place, for he had never been anything except a notoriously partisan juggler with tariff and wage figures. His only idea of the census has been so to stuff it with bogus and defective figures as to make it a Republican campaign document. To put such a man in charge of a work which, in order to have any real value, must be not merely above attack but above suspicion, was a misuse of the appointing power for which it would be difficult to find a parallel.

The Treasury Department has been gradually crawling out of its untenable position on the subject of quarantine and immigration, and the vacant place is now occupied by Senator "Bill" Chandler of New Hampshire, who offers a bill proposing that all immigration shall be prohibited for one year as a measure of protection against the cholera. There is a proviso attached to his scheme, that persons who come merely as visitors shall be allowed to enter the country and stay as long as they choose, such persons being always free from the cholera germ, as is well known. The year 1893 being fixed for the World's Fair at Chicago, and great preparations having been made for a rush of visitors from abroad, it is to be hoped that Mr. Chandler will give the people of the Old World very exact information of the steps to be taken to distinguish between those who come hither to remain and those who come with the intention of returning.

Congressman Dockery's resolution calling upon the Committee on Appropriations to ascertain and report to the House the exact situation of the Treasury, was introduced none too soon and should be passed at once. It might be taken as something of a reflection on Secretary Foster, but then it is impossible to discuss national finance at all without reflecting on him, and Mr. Dockery will find the country ready to overlook any seeming discourtesy of that sort. And even Mr. Foster, we should think, would be relieved to be freed from the necessity of longer doctoring his reports and holding up appropriations, and would be willing to go before the Committee and make a clean breast of it. Certainly he can expect nobody to give serious attention to his estimates submitted to Congress on Monday, in view of the demonstration made by time and the event of the worthlessness of his former efforts in that line.

An interesting statement as to the bearing of the Democratic victory upon the future of cotton-manufacturing industries in New England has been issued by Durfee & Chace, bankers of Fall River, Mass., in answer to questions from some of their clients. They begin by saying that they "were supporters of Mr. Harrison and hoped for his reëlection to the Presidency"; but, having been defeated, they accept the decision of the majority, and propose to look at the situation as it is, from the standpoint of Fall River. In case of Harrison's reëlection at least six and possibly eight new mills for the manufacture of cotton goods would have been built immediately in Fall River, and there would

have been the same tendency elsewhere, while, as it is, these mills will not be built, at least for the present. But this will be a gain rather than a loss, for if the new mills had been built, "the result would have been, in twelve months from now, over-production and its resultant evils." On this point they say further: "The mills which would have been built will not be, probably because of an indefinite idea that the results of the election are inimical to manufacturing enterprises. So far, then, we shall be better off, for over-production will not follow so speedily." As regards future tariff legislation, Durfee & Chace ridicule the idea that any changes will be made which will ruin manufacturing industries, saying among other things:

"Mr. Cleveland is elected President of the United States, not of a section, and we have faith that he appreciates that fact, and that he will live up to it in the fullest sense. The Democratic party, which elected him, in this case, was and is a party of the country, and not of a section. Many of its members are manufacturers, engaged in various industries, among them the manufacture of cotton cloth, and their interest is the interest of the community and of the country. They accept the responsibility, and, without fear as to the future, we leave it to them, confident that they will work no harm to the cotton-manufacturing industries of New England."

The conclusion of these Republican bankers is that "such industries are to experience a further season of prosperity, not to be menaced by hostile tariff legislation," and they strongly advise holders of stocks in cotton-manufacturing corporations not to part with them at present, as, in their opinion, "they promise as good returns as any investment at the present writing."

Several Massachusetts newspapers have been sending scouting parties of reporters throughout New England to discover some of the manufacturers who, Senator Hoar says, are "in a state of great anxiety" about the future because of Mr. Cleveland's election. At last accounts no trace of even one manufacturer in dread of "ruin" had been found. A Bridgeport, Conn., carpet-manufacturer explained the failure of the hunt satisfactorily by saying that he believed "no one is anxious except those Republicans who fear that their predictions will not come true." So far as the carpet industry is concerned, this manufacturer said that the price of carpets had advanced 5 per cent. since election, that there was not a single instance in which capital had been withdrawn or production decreased since election, and that the manufacturers are "all waiting for free wool, knowing that it will enable us to enlarge our production and pay better prices for labor." This is substantially the verdict from all other quarters in New England. From the remote West a different and a sadder tale comes. In Helena, Mont., Russell Harrison's newspaper, which was seized by the sheriff at midnight on Election Day, was sold at Sheriff's sale on Thursday for $21,000. Its debts are said to aggregate $100,000, in Montana and the East. This is a genuine case of "ruin," due to the defeat of President Harrison and the withdrawal of protection. The venerable Senator Hoar ought to write the Home Market Club a special letter on this case.

Mr. J. Q. Smith, the veteran tariff-reformer of Ohio, gives the *coup de grâce* to the gigantic humbug known as the Wool-Growers' Association of that State. This concern, which has largely dominated the tariff policy of the country in recent years, and has actually dominated the Treasury Department in the matter of rulings on disputed questions, consists of three men named Lawrence, Delano, and Harpster. If they have any following at all, it has failed to show itself in any recent election. Nevertheless, they have held the bulk of the wool-manufacturers in abject terror by threatening to do a lot of things that they had no power to do. Six or eight years ago Mr. Smith, who was formerly Commissioner of Indian Affairs at Washington, and is himself an Ohio wool-grower, exposed this triumvirate very thoroughly in a pamphlet which had a wide circulation. He said and proved that it was a sham and a fraud so far as it assumed to have any considerable influence or following among the farmers of Ohio. Pretty soon an election came on in which a square test was made of the power and importance of the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association. This was in the election of 1889, when Foraker and Campbell were the rival candidates for Governor. The Democrats in this campaign were obliged to take ground against the wool tariff. Accordingly, Gov. Campbell went into the chief wool-growing counties of the State and made speeches declaring outright that wool of all kinds ought to be imported free of duty. "Now we've got you," said Delano, Lawrence, and Harpster; "now we'll show you where you stand." Instead of that they showed where *they* stood. Not only was Gov. Campbell elected, but he made his most conspicuous gains in the wool-growing counties. In the following year, 1890, the Democratic tidal wave carried the Ohio Congressional elections, the wool tariff being still an important issue. In 1891 the silver question came in as a disturbing element, and the Democrats lost the State. In the present year the tariff question was again uppermost, and, surprising as it may seem, and must seem to the triumvirate, the fourteen chief wool-growing counties of Ohio show a net Democratic gain of 653 even as compared with 1890. Mr. Smith thinks that it is time the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association should quit business. We think that they should at least take down the sign.

The prospect of the establishment of two or three new lines of steamers between this country and Europe, backed by American capital, suggests more than a mere growth of business and enterprise. It shows that a mortal blow has been struck at the old protectionist folly of supposing that any country is sufficient for itself, and that commercial intercourse with foreign nations is only a concealed form of treason. The best of it is, that the Republicans themselves were driven to acknowledge that their policy in regard to foreign trade and shipping had been sheer nonsense, and to lead the way to better things by practically repealing the law forbidding American registry to foreign-built ships. The exception made in favor of the Inman Line cannot in fairness be withheld from any other company applying for equal privileges. In fact, the promoters of the new lines from Newport News and Charleston expect, as they have every right to, that their steamers, wherever built, will be given American registry. When the future historian of the movement for free trade in the United States comes to look for the earliest legislative enactments breaking off the old shackles, he will lay great stress on the abandonment by Republicans of their doctrine of protection to American shipping. And he will have to record the grievous fact that Congressmen Boutelle and Dingley sat by in silence while the entering wedge was driven.

An analysis of the official vote of New Jersey shows the great strength of Mr. Cleveland across the North River. The total vote this year was 337,547, as compared with 303,801 in the Presidential contest of 1888, 260,893 in 1884, and 245,928 in 1880. Of the gain this year over 1888, Cleveland had 19,534 and Harrison 11,708, New Jersey doing better for the Republican candidate in one respect than New York, as she did not reduce his vote. The vote of the two parties in the last four Presidential contests is shown in the following table:

	Democratic.	Republican.
1880	122,565	120,555
1884	127,798	123,440
1888	151,508	144,360
1892	171,042	156,068

Werts, the Democratic candidate for Governor, received a smaller plurality than Cleveland in each of the eleven counties which he carried, and he lost Essex County by 1,186 plurality, while Cleveland carried it by 1,131. Kean ran behind Harrison in three of the ten counties carried by him. Werts received 3,785 votes less than Cleveland, and Kean 3,564 more than Harrison.

Gen. Dyrenforth has ended his rain-making experiments with a terrific bombardment of the heavens above Texas, which failed to produce even a drop of rain. It is said of the final "test" that it lasted from sunset to sunrise, that up till midnight the explosions were all upon the ground, that between midnight and day-

light they were entirely from balloons, and that the noise was heard for a distance of thirty miles. The sky remained perfectly clear till the balloon explosions began, when the "phenomenon" of clouds gathering immediately overhead was witnessed by a large crowd of spectators. Great hopes of a shower were raised, but the wind "soon seemed to change" and "seemed to counteract the influence of the explosions, for the clouds were driven back and dissipated." Gen. Dyrenforth was very much discouraged by this brutal conduct of the wind, but he sent up balloon after balloon with heavy explosives aboard, and soon a fresh batch of clouds appeared. "They seemed to come up from the southern horizon, and were laden with moisture to such an extent that a heavy mist set in which could be felt perceptibly." This mist continued for about twenty minutes, but that was all. "The efforts," says the chronicler of the experiments, "at precipitating rain from the clouds proved futile." There was a light sprinkle of rain at a neighboring point, but "the fall was too light to be measured by the rain-gauge." Although the "experiments were a dismal failure," assurance is given that Gen. Dyrenforth and his backers declare that the tests have "proved the theory of producing rain by concussion." They do not expect to obtain further results this year, but next year the General is going to abandon Texas and try the heavens above South Dakota. We trust that he will not be able to continue his silly work at the expense of the United States Government. The appropriation which Congress, at the suggestion of "Uncle Jerry" Rusk, made for the tests has been exhausted, and there is slight probability that a subsequent Congress will be capable of the folly of making another. Gen. Dyrenforth and "Uncle Jerry" should be permitted to lapse into obscurity together.

A correspondent writes to us to propound the theory that Edward Murphy, jr., is put forward as a candidate for the Senatorship simply to receive "the hot shot from the Cleveland forces," and on this assumption he bases the prediction that, when the time comes, he will disappear and William F. Sheehan appear in his place. We never like to close the mouth of a prophet, and accordingly place this prediction before the public for what it is worth. Our own opinion is that Murphy, according to all present appearances, is sure of the place, and one reason for thinking so is that the "hot shot" has not been forthcoming. If "the Cleveland forces" are cannonading him, they make no noise and evolve no smoke. The reason probably is that the Legislature is so completely Tammanyite and Hillite that it need not mind either Cleveland thunder or public opinion about the qualifications of a Senator.

Those who blame theologians for disputing about unreal abstractions will certainly find some ground for their complaint in the charges against Prof. Briggs, as now finally amended and undergoing argument. The first one of these turns on the question whether the reason is "a fountain of divine authority," and the second on the question whether the Church is a similar fountain. But what a fountain of divine authority may be is nowhere defined, and there might easily be twenty opinions about it in the Presbytery, so that days could be spent in debate before being able to fix the meaning of the terms of the charges. The third accusation against Prof. Briggs relates to the possibility of errors in "the original text" of Scripture. But this is an abstraction of the purest sort, the said original text being something which no man ever saw or will see, and of which it is not possible to make any affirmation whatever. Yet there is no doubt that the main controversy will be carried on precisely in this fog. As to the two points where a clear question of historic fact is presented—namely, the charge that Prof. Briggs denies that Moses wrote all of the Pentateuch, and Isaiah all of the book that passes by his name—we must suppose that the prosecution brought them in as mere makeweights, it being scarcely possible that they would seriously attack opinions supported by a growing weight of critical authority.

To treat the late Jay Gould, as some of our contemporaries have done, as a man who achieved his notoriety and acquired the enormous power which he wielded in the financial world under ordinary conditions, is to do our civilization great injustice. He was in reality as much the product of anarchy as Napoleon—to whom he is often compared—or Rosas, or the Greek Hadgi-Stavros. He saw his opportunities and made his beginnings in a state of things in which all the institutions of a civilized society—the Legislature, the Judiciary, the Exchanges, the means of carrying on commerce and even currency—were made to take part in the semi-military contest of two speculators for the possession of a railroad, and in which a Boss, and not a Buccaneer, was preparing to take possession of a great city and loot the treasury, not on the Spanish Main, but in a Christian Protestant Anglo-Saxon State. One of Gould's own earliest exploits was storming with an armed force a tannery which was defended by his business rivals with another armed force, in regular twelfth-century fashion. In short, the community was, between 1865 and 1873, in that revolutionary condition in which Tweeds, Fisks, and Goulds surely appear, apparently in obedience to a law of social development. As you sow so shall you reap, say the Scriptures. Thorn-trees produce thorns and fig-trees figs, and to stand round Gould's grave now and treat his career as something wonderful is to misunderstand the moral government of the world. Every great modern city—as we have often said in speaking of Tammany—swarms with men capable of making very good Goulds, Fisks, Tweeds, Kellys, and Crokers, under favoring social conditions. Create the needed environment, and you can have them anywhere by the dozen—keen, alert, courageous, resourceful, unscrupulous, ready to use, for either rule or ruin, every weapon which the law and the meanness or greed of their fellow-men put into their hands. It is a sorrowful thing to have to give up whole pages of a newspaper to a chronicle of the exploits of such men. They ought properly to be recorded only in popular mediæval ballads. They are sad anachronisms in the days of "public opinion" and a free press. But the sorrow they cause has its crown when they pass their later years in tranquil prosperity, and go down to the grave with more or less of the admiration of the generation which comes after them, and which has only a vague, if any, memory of the way in which they began their struggle, and sees how far success has gone to palliate or condone their enormous offences against civil society. Their type is to-day the worst enemy with which democracy has to contend—the enemy which, if the great experiment fails, will be the cause of the failure.

The jaunty tone of the daily despatches from Brussels, describing the progress of the Silver Conference, indicates that some very sanguine person has a hand in their composition, possibly Senator Jones. No matter what happens in the Conference, we are always assured that the "American delegates regard the situation cheerfully." When the Rothschild proposition was made, the American delegates were "cheered" by it, looking upon it as a "recognition" by the monometallists of the merits of their claims. When the Rothschild proposition was rejected, the American delegates were again "cheered," declaring that the "way was now cleared for a full discussion of their bimetallic plans in accordance with their original programme." When the British delegates opposed long debates in the interest of speedy adjournment, and the British, German, and Austrian delegates threatened to withdraw at the latest by the middle of December, the American delegates made themselves more "cheerful" than ever by resolving "not to yield to the application for hasty adjournment." In explanation of all this cheerfulness, it is added that the "delegates are having a pleasant time socially," and that "dinners and other entertainments are of nightly occurrence." It is possible that the despatches containing all this "cheer" are written at the close of the "dinners and other entertainments." We shall look for a grand outburst of "cheerfulness" when the Conference collapses.

THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE.

A SUNDAY newspaper publishes an interview with our Mr. Jones, Senator from Nevada and a delegate to the Brussels Monetary Conference. Mr. Jones, if he is correctly reported, is embarrassed in his great work by the comments of the American press on the proceedings of the Conference. The American delegates, he says, went to it in good faith to promote international bimetallism. They found that Europe was not in favor of that, so the Americans were disposed to take the next best thing—that is, to make a compromise of some sort. What that compromise may be—what may be the best terms that Europe will agree to short of free coinage—is still undetermined; and while the debate is still on, the American newspapers keep up a running fire of comment implying that the whole Conference is a humbug. "When we are doing our best *for our country*," says the Nevada Senator, "the American press steps in and derides our efforts." Then Mr. Jones becomes down hearted and asks: "What can you expect other delegates, acquainted with the comments of the American press, will think? The result is inevitable."

For one member of the American press, we are constrained to reply that the result was inevitable from the beginning. That Europe would not have international bimetallism was known beforehand. She had been interrogated on that point twice already, and had answered in the negative. There was not the least reason to suppose that any nation, great or small, had changed its mind. On the contrary, three of them (Italy, Rumania, and Austria-Hungary) had abandoned the bimetallic or the single silver standard since the last Conference was held in 1881. We have our opinion of the reasons for calling the present Conference. We need not say what those reasons were, but the expectation of international bimetallism was not one of them. What then? Mr. Jones says, "The next best thing."

What is the next best thing to international bimetallism? From the Nevada point of view, it is the purchase of large quantities of silver by somebody, the larger the better. Mr. Jones and his fellow-Senators from the mining camps managed two years ago to get the Government purchases doubled, but the result did not answer their expectations. The price of silver went down more rapidly than it had ever gone before. So hopeless seemed the task of bidding up the price artificially that one of the great political parties protested against it and demanded the repeal of the Sherman Act, and Mr. Sherman himself had advised its repeal. Here was a threatened crisis in the silver market. "The next best thing" was to get Europe to help us to bolster up silver, and especially to commit us to our present policy for a definite period of time. This was the mining point of view exactly, but it met the expectations of no other class. It did not satisfy the free-coinage men who are not silver-producers. Still less did it satisfy those who believe that the gold standard is the best one and the only possible one for us. The latter class would be willing to accept international bimetallism as an experiment, if it were attainable, but they do not think that the necessary number of nations will ever agree to it. Silver-buying on Government account they look upon as sheer waste and as a terrible thing, fraught with present suffering and future disaster. That policy has been in force now nearly fifteen years, and no words can express the shuddering and loathing with which it is contemplated from day to day by the great bulk of our financiers and instructed men of business. They know that the time must come when silver buying will be stopped, and that the silver crisis will grow in the meantime by what it feeds on.

The American press, therefore, faithfully represents the American people—all the people except the silver-mining class (and a part of these, too)—when it says that the next best thing to international bimetallism is to adjourn and come home. There is no other next best thing. Mr Dana Horton, a real bimetallist, is on hand to tell them that. If he does not agree that the next best thing is to take an early passage for home, he will belie everything he has ever said before. We have another friend, a real friend, there, in the person of Mr. Bertram Currie, who told the truth when he said that the United States had undertaken the endless task of Sisyphus and ought to drop it in their own interest and in the interest of the civilized world.

As we bring this article to a close, the following account of recent silver discoveries in Colorado fixes our attention. It is from the *Sun* of December 5:

"DENVER, December 4.— The new discoveries at Creede have had a stimulating effect at that prosperous camp. Persistent prospecting is daily establishing the extent of Creede's mineral belt. The Amethyst is being worked with unprecedented activity, while from the Little Maid and Cleopatra adjoining come most encouraging reports. In the Atlanta a vein has been encountered at a depth of thirty-five feet, which has shown fifty ounces of silver, while further in was encountered a cross feeder of spar and amethyst quartz. The Last Chance and Holy Moses continue to ship many tons of ore, the returns for which are exceedingly gratifying."

Creede is the place where silver can be produced in large quantities at twenty-six cents per ounce. We venture to say that the Last Chance and Holy Moses will do their whole duty and meet any requirements of the Brussels Conference.

FRENCH VIEW OF THE CONFERENCE.

M. CUCHEVAL-CLARIGNY, a leading French writer on financial topics, is publishing a series of articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the Latin Union and the silver question. The second of the series, which appeared in the last number, deals more especially with the Monetary Conference now sitting, but was, of course, simply a prospective view of it, having been written before the meeting. His forecast is interesting.

After giving the history of the previous conferences convened at the request of the American Government, he asks, What reason is there for supposing that the present one will have any more success than its predecessors? The answer to this question, he says, is to be found in the subsequent acts and declarations of the various Powers which took part in them. He shows that Germany, Italy, Austria, Russia, and England have all, since 1881, through their Ministers of Finance, distinctly intimated that there was for them and their respective countries no silver question at all, and that they attend the conferences asked for by the United States simply as a piece of courtesy due to a great nation. He further quotes the protests against an accumulation of silver made in their messages by Presidents Hayes, Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison, and continues thus:

"How could it be otherwise? Is it not a chimerical enterprise to try to compel people to use a kind of money they do not like when they have a better kind within their reach? Why have Americans remained deaf to the advice of their Presidents urging them to withdraw their paper money from circulation? Would not the substitution of silver dollars for greenbacks have offered them a sufficient outlet for the produce of their mines? Why are they straining their Constitution by keeping $300,000,000 of paper money afloat? Simply because the greenbacks—which have been at par in gold since 1879, have the guarantee of the Federal Government, and are legal tender in the payment of debts—have all the advantages of convenience and security which are offered to us by the notes of the Bank of France. As to the silver certificates, they constitute a second kind of notes, with a metallic guarantee lying in the Treasury vaults; and they have entered into circulation to the extent of $240,000,000. Add these to the gold certificates, which offer the same facilities, and to the bank bills, and you perceive that the United States have four kinds of currency, representing five thousand million francs, while their circulation of silver, of their own free will and in obedience to their manifest preferences, is not more than three hundred million francs, or five francs per head of population. In the presence of these facts and figures, is it possible to take the American proposals seriously? Are they anything but, as Mr. Luzzatti [the Italian Minister of Finance] intimated, an attempt to unload on Europe a mass of silver dollars, created by useless and reckless coinage?"

The fall of prices which some ascribe to the scarcity of gold, he ascribes to overproduction, more particularly in the iron, cotton and woollen, and silk industries. He then proceeds to ridicule the notion that the world needs more coined money as an instrument of exchange, in view of the enormous masses of coin and bullion now lying idle in the banks, and more particularly in view of the tremendous advances made in all the civilized countries in the use of checks, banknotes, bills of exchange, and other instruments of credit, in the work of trade and commerce. In truth, the most striking phenomenon of the industrial world to-day is the growing disuse of the precious metals as money except for small change. The growing tendency of all civilized nations now is to do business,

both domestic and foreign, by setting off debts against debts, which may fairly be called a new modern art, and makes the yells of the bimetallists for more coin increasingly absurd.

The report of the Bank of France for 1886 showed that the proportion of bank-notes used in the transactions of that year was 52 per cent., of other instruments of credit 43½ per cent., and that of coin only 4½ per cent. Mr. Birch, a London financier, was so much impressed by these figures that he asked the directors of the Bank of England to give him similar ones, showing the part played by the three different instruments of exchange in their operations in one week taken at random. They gave him the results of a daily average of £4,445,000, which were: drafts and checks 87½ per cent., banknotes 12½ per cent., and coin ¼ of one per cent.! There was one day in which, in a sum total of payments amounting to £4,775,593, the part played by coin was only £4,632. The private banks in England have the same story to tell. In 1887 the part of coin in these transactions was 4½ per thousand. In 1880 Mr. Pownall estimated that the coin used by ten London banks was only 9½ per thousand. In 1881 the number of checks drawn on the country banks of which Glyn & Co. were the London correspondents was in three days 19,950, of which 2¼ per cent. were under a pound sterling. In 1887, in the corresponding three days, the total number of checks was 35,090, of which 4 per cent. were under a pound.

The same process is going on rapidly in every country. Even the bill of exchange is being to a considerable degree supplanted by telegraphic orders—that is, money which used to be sent across the ocean in boxes or banknotes or drafts, is now sent by telegraphic set-offs. A merchant in Hong Kong doing business with New York settles the transaction through the telegraph just as promptly as if he were himself face to face with his customer in Lombard Street.

M. Cucheval-Clarigny is sarcastic about the notion that the supply of gold needed by the great nations is falling short. He quotes Mr. Leech as showing that the production of gold was 140,555 kilogrammes in 1886 and 188,531 in 1891. M. Ottomar Haupt, a great authority on metals, says the gold coinage of the world, which was 494,000,000 francs in 1886, was 650,000,000 in 1887, 702,000,000 in 1888, and 879,000,000 in 1889. The amounts in all the banks and in private hands are also enormous. With these figures in the pocketbooks of the European delegates, the task of the Americans was of course hopeless from the beginning.

SUNDAY AT CHICAGO NEXT YEAR.

The reassembling of Congress brings into prominence the question how Sunday shall be treated at the Chicago Exposition next year. Senators and Representatives will be compelled to define their position, as the issue is bound to come to a vote. The President of the Board of Directors has written a letter on the subject, copies of which have been sent to every member, stating the attitude of the management and presenting their arguments for Sunday opening. They maintain that the closing of the Fair on Sunday would deprive a host of people of an opportunity to enjoy the spectacle which ought to be granted to all who wish to improve it, and declare their own belief that a majority of the American people are in favor of granting this opportunity. They propose to "stop all machinery, merchandising, and unnecessary labor," to require the services of as few attendants as possible, and to enforce a rule that no employee shall work more than six days a week, besides furnishing facilities for the conduct of religious services.

We contend that the Directors are entirely right in believing that a majority of the American people will favor such a system of Sunday opening. The demonstration against it which furnished Congressmen an excuse for their votes at the last session, was largely a fictitious show of strength. It was chiefly a matter of paper. Printed petitions were distributed all over the country by organized effort, and the national weakness for signing any sort of a petition sufficed to secure a great number of names. A smaller expenditure of energy would easily have secured a larger and more intelligent showing on the other side.

The arguments in favor of closing will not stand examination. The one which is most relied upon is altogether out of date—that freedom to view the treasures of the Chicago Exposition will be "the entering wedge" for the introduction of "the Continental Sunday." The truth is, that this wedge was inserted many years ago by two of our most conservative cities—Boston and Philadelphia—and driven in a little deeper more tardily by New York, when public libraries, museums, and art collections were thrown open for the enjoyment of the people on Sunday. This experiment has now had a thorough trial in each of these three cities, and not one of the predicted evils has been realized. In no case has it resulted in any movement towards turning Sunday into a day of work or of riotous pleasure. The argument for keeping the Chicago Exposition closed on Sunday is simply an argument for again shutting the doors of every museum, library, and art collection that is now open on that day—and such an argument would be overwhelmed with ridicule in Philadelphia, Boston, or New York.

Indeed, the whole argument for opening the Chicago Fair on Sunday is simply the same argument that has been endorsed by public sentiment wherever it has been put in practice on a smaller scale. The opening of the Metropolitan Museum in Central Park disturbs no New Yorker who prefers to spend the whole of Sunday in religious worship or meditation, or who considers it a sin to gaze upon a work of art on Sunday. All that such a person has to do to avoid contamination is to stay away. In like manner, the visitor to Chicago who wants to spend the day in church going or in religious reading in his room will not be annoyed by those whose tastes lead them to prefer other employment of their time.

In fact, it would be hard to imagine a method whereby those who differ in their views as to the best way of spending Sunday can be more easily accommodated than by opening the grounds for those who choose to enter. Nobody proposes to require any person to visit the Exposition on that day, so that no one who has conscientious scruples against so doing will need to violate them—nor, indeed, to see them violated by others. On the other hand, nobody who considers a visit to the grounds the most profitable way of spending the day will be prevented from following his predilections. The Sabbatarian will not be driven into the Exposition against his will, and the liberal will not be barred out of it against his will. Each class will spend the day as it thinks wisest, and neither will disturb the other.

The national sentiment in favor of fair play is altogether on the side of those who advocate Sunday opening, and it will respond emphatically when an appeal is made to it. The plea of the Sabbatarian that nobody shall be allowed to visit the Fair on that day because he, the Sabbatarian, does not think he ought to go, is a plea for ecclesiastical despotism which is altogether out of date in this country and this age.

We repeat that the directors are right in holding that a majority of the people are opposed to Sunday closing. As the will of the majority ought to prevail, Congress should at its approaching session revoke the ill judged prohibition of such opening which it was persuaded to approve at the last session. No foolish pride of consistency should prevent Senators and Representatives from undoing a hasty blunder which it would be almost a crime to sustain.

THE LATEST "HILL-MURPHY CONSPIRACY."

Nothing has been more remarkable in the career of David Bennett Hill than his consistent inability to comprehend the size of the United States. Because he was able to build up a political machine which he could control absolutely in the State of New York, he was deluded into the belief that, by applying the same methods to the whole country, he could force his party to throw over its strongest candidate for the Presidency and nominate him in his place. The National Democratic Convention repudiated this idea with such contemptuous emphasis that one would have supposed that even Mr. Hill would have learn-

ed a lesson from it, but he did not. He began at once to set on foot a plan to defeat the election of the Convention's nominee unless the latter should first consent to sell himself to the Hill Machine as the price of the electoral vote of New York. This plan failed also, because of the indignant refusal of the nominee and because of the people's determination to elect him.

No experienced student of election returns can examine the figures from this State and not become convinced that the Hill-Murphy Machine did the most it could without detection to prevent Mr. Cleveland's election. In all parts of the State above the city limits the trace of the Hill knife is discernible. Mr. Cleveland's total vote, which is known to have been increased by the accession of thousands of men hitherto Republican, falls off in every strong Hill locality, and falls far below what it ought to have been and would have been had the full Democratic strength been polled for it. Many of the Hill Democrats refrained from voting, and many others of them voted for Harrison in 1892 as they did in 1888. Indeed, there is good reason for believing that had there not been a straight issue on the Presidency, with no Governorship at stake at the same time, the State might have been sold to the Republicans by Hill this year as it was in 1888, when, according to the *Tribune*, "Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." The Hill Murphy Machine did little or nothing to help Cleveland in the State, but devoted all its energies to the election of a Legislature which should send Mr. Murphy to the United States Senate.

Having failed first to prevent Mr. Cleveland's nomination, and second to defeat his election, Mr. Hill proposes to take Mr. Murphy with him into the United States Senate, and there prevent Mr. Cleveland from exercising his powers as President. In other words, having been repudiated by his party in national convention and at the polls, Mr. Hill presumes to dictate in the Senate the policy of his party, and of the President whom the party has nominated and an overwhelming majority of the people have elected! He and Murphy propose to sit in the Senate and to oppose all of President Cleveland's appointees whom they do not like, and to appeal to the Democratic majority to sustain them in that course on the ground of "Senatorial courtesy." They pretend to believe that in this way they can tie the President's hands completely, block the course of his policy, and force him to surrender to their wishes! Mr. Hill has made many miscalculations, but none comparable to this. It is very clear that he will never comprehend the size of the United States.

That this latest conspiracy will fail as disastrously as the preceding one did is inevitable. Mr. Cleveland was nominated and elected because of his strength with the people—a strength which had been manifested in many ways, but which had not formally been put in evidence. The elections have thus put it in evidence in a manner which no man can question. He is the President-elect of the whole people, and would have been chosen even had the Hill-Murphy Machine been able to deprive him of the vote of New York. He will sit in the White House with a power behind him incomparably greater than that which made Mr. Hill's former conspiracies so futile. As the Democratic majority in the Senate after March 4 will not be composed entirely of imbeciles, it is scarcely necessary to speculate as to the probability of their choice between a discredited and rejected politician like Hill and a President like Cleveland, who not only has the people behind him, but all the offices at his disposal. The people would very soon make it known to their Senators on which side they stood in such a contest.

So far as this great State is concerned, the spectacle which it will present to the country will be pitiable enough. It has furnished the country with the most popular Presidential candidate that it has had for years, and the country has elected him with delight and by a most significant majority. Yet, having done this, the State is to be represented in the Senate by two political jobbers who are going there for the express purpose of trying to "get up a row" with the President over the distribution of the offices. Neither one of them has any other conception of his office than as a basis for the distribution of spoils. Not an honest or public-spirited idea has entered the mind of either one of them throughout his political career. Both are as incapable of representing the great commercial and industrial interests of the first State in the Union as they are of comprehending the forces which have baffled all their previous conspiracies against Mr. Cleveland and are foreordained to baffle this their final and weakest one. It is an unspeakable misfortune that the terms of both in the Senate will continue long after the Machine which has put them there to belie the intelligence and morality of the State, shall have been destroyed, as it is certain to be in this final struggle with Mr. Cleveland.

THE FRENCH TROUBLE.

It must be borne in mind that it is not the Panama Canal scandal alone which has overthrown the Loubet Ministry and has plunged French politics into such disorder. The Panama scandal has simply brought to the boiling point the public indignation over a long series of weaknesses and failures on the part of the Ministry in dealing with the Socialists and Anarchists. The Panama charges are being pushed because the Ministry was already discredited by the multiplied signs of its incapacity to meet the growing audacity of the Socialist organizations and the trades unions, and the growing tendency to legislate in their favor and against the employer class.

Some of the illustrations of this which M. Leroy-Beaulieu furnishes in the last number of the *Économiste Français* may well be called alarming. The trades-unions in France are recognized as corporate bodies by law, and have been committing acts of the grossest oppression in excess of their legal powers or rights. The Court of Cassation had recently to reverse a decision of the court below denying relief to a non-union workman to whom the employers of the whole region had been formally forbidden by the local union to give work. In the Department of the Nièvre, the unions have actually imposed a tax on non-unionists, and have compelled the employers to stop the amount out of their wages. A Labor Exchange (*Bourse de Travail*) has been built and furnished luxuriously by the municipality in Paris—a "veritable palace," M. Leroy-Beaulieu calls it—and it receives an annual subvention from the city treasury. Its ostensible aim was to supply a meeting-place for laborers in search of employment or of information about work and wages. It has in practice become a centre or headquarters of revolutionary politics, in which the Anarchists hold meetings and denounce Society and Government and applaud law-breakers. The proceedings in it have for several years been a great public scandal, but no Ministry has had the courage to shut it up or reform it.

The Carmaux strike was the legitimate outcome of this governmental feebleness. There the strikers took possession not only of the mine, but of the town. They elected one of the strikers Mayor, and he set the authority of the Prefect at defiance, refused to allow his proclamations to be posted, mocked at the police, and appeared at the head of processions carrying the red flag of the Commune and threatening the "bourgeois" with death and spoliation. All the while, too, several members of the Chamber were on the ground, encouraging the strikers and denouncing the gendarmes and the troops. On the top of these things have come the explosions of dynamite in Paris and the terror inspired by dynamitard threats not only among the officers of the law, but among persons who live in the same house with them. The tenants in one apartment-building have left it because the Procureur-Général who prosecuted Ravachol lived there, and a dynamitard deputation has actually had the courage to go to a newspaper office and warn the editor that they would put him on their black-list if he did not stop denouncing them.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu sums up his description of the situation as follows:

"The evil in France is a general evil, which has greatly grown within a few years, and particularly within a few months. It is both political and social. From the political standpoint it consists in the fact that the Government is composed of men who cling to the vain title of 'Minister' while failing to discharge its duties, who capitulate every day both wholesale and retail, retain no effective authority and

contribute more and more to the weakening of justice, police, and administration. From the social standpoint the evil consists in the overflow of an excessive and frivolous sentimentalism, very like that which was the fashion towards the end of the eighteenth century, and disregards the natural laws on which both the production and distribution of products rest, and in constant and increasing concessions to Socialism, both in word and deed, and in the adoption of the Socialistic formula by a crowd of featherheads and popularity-seekers."

The result has been the diffusion of the old alarm about property and order which put France under the foot of both the first and the second Napoleon, and a renewal of the doubts about the power of a republic to deal with the forces of anarchy which made Boulangism possible. Why it is that the Republic is exposed, every now and then, to these doubts it is hard for foreigners to understand. There is no country in Europe in which property is more widely diffused than in France, or in which the great body of the people, especially the farmers, are readier to sacrifice political liberty for the sake of security. The Socialist element is but a very small part of the French population, and is confined to the large towns. Why, under these circumstances, the Ministers are afraid to be vigorous and peremptory does not appear on the surface of French politics, and can be explained only by the readiness of the Conservatives to join with the extreme Radicals in the Chamber whenever there is a chance to bring Republican institutions into discredit.

THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS.

ITALY, November 15, 1892.

IN Italy, as in England and in America, the electoral struggles are over. In Italy, as in America and in England, the champions of liberty, economical and political, have won the day. With the affirmation of a strong liberal majority there seems a chance of a strong, durable Government. The present Ministry has had the open support of the men who have never deviated from their liberal principles, to whom are due the great liberal measures of the last eighteen years. Around these have rallied some of the ablest and purest names in the country. Though Crispi himself has not in so many words pronounced in favor of the Government, he has offered no opposition, and his paper, the *Riforma*, warmly praised the ministerial report which accompanied the decree for dissolution. Nor could Crispi do otherwise. He objects to the pressure of the ministerial agents during the elections, which has excluded some of his warmest friends and supporters, but, alas! Crispi himself adopted the same system to his cost, even as all his predecessors and successors, from Cavour to Giolitti. In the main, Giolitti's programme is a modified edition of Crispi's own, and it is clear that many of the salutary reforms proposed and carried by Crispi, but left in abeyance or neglected or modified by Rudini, will now be taken up again and continued and carried out to their full extent. I allude especially to the reform of the charitable institutions, to the reform of the communal laws, the pensions for old age, the organization of co-operative societies of bona-fide workingmen, internal colonization rather than African extension—everything, in short, that shall end to increase production and adjust distribution, by which alone can the Italians hope to make ends meet and apply the wealth of the country, never yet much to boast of, to its own increase through agriculture and industry in the country itself. The deficit is placed at 28,000,000, and no promises are made that this can be suddenly filled up, but the expenses are being kept under, and the income rather than the land-tax is looked to for an increase of receipts. There is to be no fresh taxation, nor any increase in old taxes, until all other methods have been exhausted. There is a proposal for a Government monopoly of lucifer matches and petroleum which would at most disgust some noted speculators, but would not increase the price of the articles to the public.

Of course any rupture or change in the terms of the Triple Alliance is not contemplated. The expenses of the war budget are thus stated in round numbers, for late years: 1887-8, 318,000,000 lire; 1888-9, 405,000,000; 1889-90, 307,000,000; 1890-91, 290,000,000; 1891-92, 260,000,000. Next year we are to spend only 241,000,000. The expenses of the navy, which in 1887 stood at 114,000,000, are this year to be 105,000,000. But what is more satisfactory is, to know that the hopes of the future are to be placed less in an enormous standing army than in the general military education of the people in the schools and a thorough system of national rifle associations; that the term of service is to be reduced, so it is hoped, from three to two years; and, that while the *cadres* are to remain intact, fewer soldiers will be kept under the colors. With the aforesaid military instruction at home there will still be an efficient army to be called on in case the hopes of peace should be blasted and the nation summoned to defend its frontiers. This, you see, is a very different attitude towards the *triplice* from that assumed four years since, but then the state of Europe is also changed. The attitude of France towards Italy is modified; the grand meeting of the fleets at Genoa was cordial and hearty, and there is some chance of the resumption of commercial relations between the two countries, as France still needs Italian wines and Italian raw silk, and, with the new commercial treaties with Germany, Switzerland, and Austria-Hungary, it may be that the French will see their way clear to deal directly with Italy rather than receive her wines, etc., through a roundabout route. At any rate there is a truce to the press warfare between the two countries, and the present Ministry and Zanardelli especially will do all that lies in human power to avoid giving offence to their supersensitive neighbors. What the country wants is breathing space, and the electors have very decidedly taken as their war-cry, "Confound the factions!"

If the present Ministry should succeed in carrying through certain reforms in the system of procedure, insisted on by Zanardelli when he propounded his penal code, a long step will be taken towards the repression and the prevention of crime. Police reform and the swift administration of justice, the reform of ordinary prisons rather than the erection of "model penal establishments," would go far to save young offenders from growing old in crime by contact with vice and infamy. There are sentences in both the ministerial programme and in Zanardelli's wonderful speech which imply that they really mean to take in hand the question of land tenure and land reform. While thousands of hard-working peasants are starving or dying of pellagra (the disease produced by exclusive feeding on maize) or from malaria, thousands of acres of land are lying uncultivated and become pestilential sources of fever, ague, and death. Under the head of "Social Legislation," Zanardelli says, "The culture of the soil ought not to meet with obstacles in that inflexible proprietorship which the old *jus abutendi* maintains, to the detriment of all social progress, which renders internal colonization impossible, whereas this system would not only attach the peasant by his material interests to the general interests of the country, but would immensely increase the wealth of the nation." How often has this truth to be repeated before an attempt is made to put it in practice? Were a party, supported by the Government, to attempt such a colonization in good earnest, I do not doubt that funds would be forthcoming from wealthy persons in Italy, for it is a fact that the sums subscribed and bequeathed for charitable purposes increase yearly. Only yesterday a wealthy Israelite of Milan left 15,000,000 of lire for the foundation of a labor school in the city for the unoccupied poor, without any distinction of religious denomination. With regard to ecclesiastical policy the old Left is true to its flag—liberty of conscience for all, the church property remaining to be used for the maintenance of parish priests, but the Vatican to be kept from the power to harm. The proposal is made to restore to the crown the right of revoking the *exequatur* and *placet* whenever the prelates, abusing their office, preach sedition and excite the ignorant masses against the civil power. If this measure were carried out, half the bishops and archbishops would have to mind their manners or lose their temporalities. This, one of the fundamental principles of the old historical Left, reappearing on the scene, is another sign that the "transformism" of late years is disappearing.

The extreme moderates and the ultra-radicals who have decried the Triple Alliance and pursued a policy of obstruction are nowhere. One of these, a popular poet and a man of considerable ability, having no chance in Milan, which returned him with overwhelming numbers before, has been defeated in the little college of Belgiojoso. Likewise, Imbriani, whose constant interruptions and impertinences turned the House into a beargarden, has been defeated in three colleges. Unfortunately, they have carried down in their fall some of the real champions of liberty and of popular progress—the great sculptor and true democrat, Ettore Ferrari, the workingmen's candidates, Maffi and Armirotti; and this is a dire misfortune. Costa, the representative of the Socialists, is also defeated, but other Socialists have succeeded. Some capital additions have been made to the radical party, and there is a faint hope that once again the extreme Left, instead of being an undisciplined, useless—nay, baneful—element, will return to its own mission as exercised of old under the leadership of Bertani, Avezzani, and other makers of Italy, and will retake its position of advanced sentinels of liberty, sustaining the Government when its measures are those of right and progress, and stimulating it to activity and courage when it shows hesitation or fear. The moderates have made a desperate fight, and, with the assistance of the Catholics, who, though they do not yet dare to present themselves as candidates, nevertheless vote plentifully, have secured a certain number of seats; but some of their magnates have fallen ignominiously. Bonghi, who stood in three colleges, has not succeeded in any; and to-day his fate will be

decided in the one college of Agnani, where he is in ballot with his competitor.

One defeat has caused genuine grief to all patriots, without distinction of party, and that is of Alberto Cavallotti, almost the last survivor of the prisoners of the Spielberg—a man who has fought for religious and political liberty in the foremost ranks; one of Crispi's supporters, though a moderate in past times, and until now always elected almost without opposition in the same college of Venetia. His reëlection was combated in a circular letter of the archbishop of the diocese, who recorded against him an able speech showing the encroachments of the Vatican on the liberties of the State. The clericals fighting with the moderates, Cavallotti succumbed. He will be appointed Senator as a tribute to his unblemished patriotism. This is one of the results of the return to the uninominal college, as is called the old system abolished in 1886 and replaced by the *scrutin de liste*, or vote by all the electors of a single province for all the Deputies to which the college is entitled. This change was clamored for by those who believed that political corruption had increased under the new system, but their provisions were unsound. It is much easier for the prefects to prevail on the syndics and on the most influential persons in one college to vote for this one candidate and against that, than to succeed in the same trick when four, five, or even seven candidates are to be elected by the entire electoral body. Again, the champions of the "one college one candidate platform" used another argument. Said they: The *scrutin de liste* has lessened the number of voters; the people don't care for a list of names many of which they have never heard of, hence they don't take the trouble of going to the voting-hall—and with seeming reason they quoted the affluence of electors in 1876, which amounted to almost seventy-five per cent. of the whole. But in that year, as until 1882, the suffrage was restricted to 600,000 voters; now the electors amount to over three millions. Then, too, 1876 was the year of the fall of the Moderate party and the advent to power of the great Liberal party, for the first time since the constitution of the kingdom of Italy. Also, it is generally admitted by his friends and foes that Nicotera, Minister of the Interior during the first elections, did not use the coercion of his predecessors and successors, but really left the country free to choose its own representatives. All this would account for the increase of the voters; but, since the extension of the suffrage, the attendance at the urns has considerably fallen off. In 1885 it was fifty-eight per cent., in 1890 it was fifty-three per cent. In that year, you will remember, Crispi obtained an enormous majority, which, without rhyme or reason, broke up two months after. Last Sunday the attendance at the voting-halls did not throughout the country attain to fifty per cent. Hence nothing has been gained by the return to the uninominal college, as far as national dignity and electoral purity are concerned. A minor attempt to lessen bribery and corruption has brought ridicule on the clumsy methods adopted. It was affirmed that many electors, instead of voting themselves, sent proxies; so by the new law no one was to be allowed to vote who could not prove his identity to the sitting committee. Hence the most absurd scenes ensued. The present Government, recognizing the evil effects of the measure, has agreed to abolish it; but meanwhile it has served its end as an electoral manœuvre.

As yet the attitude of the Southern Deputies is said to be decidedly favorable to the Government. It is not yet clear what attitude Nicotera will assume in the House. He has, during the elections, supported many of the candidates devoted to Crispi. The programme of the present Government is almost a facsimile of that presented by the first Ministry of the Left, of which Nicotera formed a prominent part as Minister for Home Affairs. That he should have accepted office with the moderate, Rudini, was considered an error by his friends; but no one accuses him of having abjured his Liberal principles. To-morrow the Chambers open, and when the elections are sanctioned or cancelled, we shall see how the tide sets in. J. W. M.

P. S. The ballotings are over, and the results add to the Ministerial majority. But numbers of those who won their seats as Ministerials are already clamoring for benches in the Centre, in that neither "t'other nor which" portion of the House against which Zanardelli launched the Biblical anathema, "And because thou art neither cold nor hot," etc. Nicotera has published an indignant letter against "the more than usually indecent interference in the elections." Bonghi has not succeeded. Sicily, out of fifty-two Deputies, sends but five moderates, with four radical Socialists; the rest all for the Ministry. Now as Sicily is nine-tenths *Crispino*, it is certain that Crispi's influence has not gone against the Government.

CONTINENTAL TRAVELLING—AND IRELAND.

ROME, November 20, 1892.

ONLY when you have travelled for some months do you begin to realize the extent of the floating population of tourists spreading everywhere over the Continent. As summer and autumn visitors, German-speaking people now apparently outnumber any other. As more or less permanent residents, moving northwards at the approach of summer and southwards at the approach of winter, Britons and Americans are certainly more numerous. The observer must often reflect where this great flood of travel is to end, what are its effects likely to be on the countries visited, on those who travel and on those who remain at home. The influence on the native population, where a large number of tourists temporarily reside, cannot be essentially good. Judging by my own observations, however, I believe the average results, so far as yet apparent, among the Swiss and Italians are less demoralizing than those among the inhabitants of tourist resorts in Great Britain and Ireland. These "foreigners" are less grasping than our insular population; persons with an imperfect knowledge of the language are less imposed upon, less at a disadvantage, than they would be with us. The ease with which so many can now absent themselves from home life must have a considerable influence, acknowledged or not, on those at home who cannot travel. Formerly, whatever were their different means and conditions, the lives of all flowed on from cradle to grave very much together. What affected one more usually affected all. Now that so large a proportion of the middle class can avoid the evils of crowded town life, that so many of them can indulge in a summer trip, that so many can flee pestilence or can at will change their skies, it is inevitable that the stay-at-home masses, chained to one spot, should more and more demand the right to decide the laws and conditions under which they are obliged to live.

The ennobling and educating effects of travel on most travellers for pleasure nowadays are on the whole doubtful. To have travelled by no means implies at present increased cultivation of mind, as it did when privations had to be endured to attain its benefits, and when books were less accessible than they now are. Many a "school-marm" who never leaves her own district, many a mechanic who can rest only factory holidays from his labor, is better informed, has more real knowledge of the inner life and history of the nations, than numbers of individuals who float round in ocean palaces and sleeping-cars, and return to fill their rooms and astonish their friends with knicknacks, photographs, and antiques (pseudo or real) from foreign lands. The average tone of thought and conversation at Continental hotels and boarding-houses, the average attitude of mind towards home politics and towards the inhabitants of the country visited, the average spirit displayed in the Continental papers meant for circulation among British and American residents, are the truest gauge of what that tone of thought, that attitude of mind, that spirit generally is; and, so estimated, they seem neither broad nor elevated. I know no Continental nation more deserving of our sympathy than the Italians, or making more heroic efforts to reverse an unfortunate past, no nation that has more belied the sinister anticipations of even the shrewdest minds of thirty years ago, none confronted by more difficult problems or more likely to be embarrassed by outside influences affecting her development. To no nation do I hear harder measure meted out by temporary sojourners within her borders.

Unless when circumstances or health or study demand living abroad, there is a certain want of dignity in such a life as it often is—a butterfly existence, running around seeking something new, or craving to see all that others have seen. I more and more understand the feelings of one of your great men, lately passed away, who, having visited the Continent in his youth, never cared to visit it again; of Edmund Quincy and Whittier, who preferred picturing foreign countries in their minds to seeing them with their eyes. There is one class of persons to whom travel would be most beneficial, and yet who proportionally do not enjoy it as much as others. I refer to party politicians. What more instructive than to come away for a while, and find how little the affairs that agitate us are known or heeded beyond our shores! What more likely than occasional travel to enlighten a spirit of petty provincialism, such as that of a certain politician, of no mean eminence, who, sitting by me at some celebration in Connaught years ago, exclaimed, "Is it not interesting to think that the eyes of all Europe are now fastened upon us?" What more calculated to bring before us the eternal issues involved, to minimize the passing complications, the personal pettinesses that inevitably gather round every struggle? And what more likely to impress on the ordinary political functionary of any common sense the fact that he can be very well dispensed with, that it is by no means incumbent on him to barter truth and principle—to sell his soul, as it were—in order, for the ostensible benefit of his city or country, to maintain himself in a prominent or representative position?

The thought of politics leads back to my own country, concerning which, although abroad for some time, I have kept myself fully informed. Mr. Gladstone's Government is, in the face of greatest difficulties, through

many temptations to turn aside from the right path, redeeming all its promises regarding Ireland, doing all that a Government can, in the interval between its advent to power and its meeting Parliament with a programme of well-considered measures. Mr. Morley's administration of Irish affairs, the abrogation of all the Coercion Act forces, the dismissal of Col. Turner, the appointment of Mr. Murrough O'Brien to the Land Commission, the instituting an inquiry regarding the position of the evicted tenants and the means by which they can be reinstated, are incontestable proofs that a new era has dawned. It lies with the Irish people whether they are to reap the full benefits of the change, or whether, when another election comes, they are again to be relegated to unsettlement and the old weary round of demoralizing patronage and exasperating coercion. It rests with the Irish people. And yet we must acknowledge the extent to which, as compared with seven years ago, the importance of Irish politics has been overshadowed by social, especially labor problems, affecting equally the entire United Kingdom. Ireland's best friends in England are in the North. Too many of them have been carried away by the bimetallic craze; and Mr. Balfour, since his defeat, has ranged himself on the side of bimetallism. Industrial complications, rearrangements of parties, and general disturbances, some involving serious consequences, are likely to result in the United Kingdom from these labor questions, from the readiness with which so many politicians accept theories, not only as to the possibility of wages being maintained at an unnatural level, but regarding the right of unions to exclude outsiders from employment. Such horrors as occasionally occur with you at Homestead and elsewhere are to be deprecated; but the repressive power of our executive is by no means an unmixed blessing. Our people are not, like yours, from time to time afforded palpable demonstration of the working out of unsound principles. Possibly we in the long run may be led farther astray than you. But whatever general complications, such as I have indicated, may arise, the fate of the Liberal party, and with it the hopes of an Irish settlement, rest with the Irish people themselves. The majority continue true to the Liberal Alliance, to those principles enunciated and acted upon by Mr. Parnell till the hour of his fall. The worst fault of too many prominent in the majority is a tendency to impute vile motives to the Redmondite party. Much of this is hyperbolical and for effect; they cannot surely believe that Mr. Redmond and Mr. Mahony and Mr. Harrington, with whom for years they worked side by side in the closest intimacy, are the monsters depicted. But such language, fully exploited by enemies, operates most disastrously for us in Great Britain, where it tends to degrade the whole Irish people and undermine confidence in them. It were better had the Paris funds at first been sunk in the ocean than that the sordid bickerings and complications concerning them had been permitted.

It is a pity the majority have not frankly acknowledged that the Redmondite schism originated partly from an honest uprising against real or supposed clerical dictation. The apparently all but universal accord of Roman Catholics with clericalism in Ireland, so fostered by her history, which prevailed until a few years ago, will never again prevail. In Redmondism we have the commencement of that divergence of feeling which has sooner or later occurred in all Catholic countries. It would be more straightforward and politic for the Irish majority, while, as they well might, standing by the clergy in their general action, to acknowledge the heinousness of such language as that for which a Catholic priest was lately subjected to a month's imprisonment, rather than, through their chief organ, turn the incident into a fresh argument against the minority because the prosecution was instituted by one of them. That any party of patriotic Irishmen, any body of men professing to desire a settlement, pretending to hold to the principle that the majority in Ireland should rule—that any such body of men should adopt the present attitude of the Unionists towards Mr. Morley's Government, seems almost incredible. It must arise partly from individual spleen at being placed in a small minority, from a determination that there shall never be any settlement with Great Britain, or from an underhand, perhaps unconscious, desire to curry favor with the Conservatives. The minority appear bent on embarrassing, and if possible bringing about the ruin of, the Government by making demands upon it impossible to concede, regarding subsidiary matters upon which they must know the English are not so clear as they are concerning the main question of home rule. Mr. Redmond, at Waterford a few days ago, is reported to have spoken of Mr. Morley's policy in Ireland as one "of cowardice, of delay, and of evasion," and to have declared that "he failed altogether to see the great change in the position of any of the great political questions that they had near at heart." Home rule is necessary mainly because of British ignorance regarding Ireland and Irish affairs. The Conservative party and their organs are with almost fiendish ingenuity utilizing this ignorance to prevent the concession of home rule. They carefully suppress the fact that a British party is now, for the first time in history, heartily supported by the most tried and trusted leaders of Irish public opinion, and by the vast majority of the nation, as represented by 71 of its 103 elected members of Parliament. Mr. Redmond, Mr. Mahony, and Mr. Harrington, the leaders of a party of nine, are put forward and fully reported as representing Ireland, alternately patronized as patriots and gentlemen and held up through their utterances as proof of the impossibility of ever reconciling the sister island. The Conservative policy regarding Ireland is illogical and aimless. Surely what is wanted is to pin the Irish people to some reasonable settlement, to take them at their word, pledged before the world, and, backed by the public opinion of the world, to hold them to their engagement. No country ever made a treaty with another in which the majority was so fully represented as in this case it would be.

The action of the Irish Ascendancy party, of men who, under the continuance of a Balfour régime, would occupy seats on the Irish bench, towards Judge Mathew shows that they require not just judgment but special judgment in Ireland. The attitude of the *Times* and the British Conservative press towards him proves that they are not prepared to extend to the Irish people the safeguards extended to Englishmen through the respect usually shown the English bench. Judge Mathew is a judge of irreproachable character. His legal knowledge, the fairness of his decisions, have never heretofore been questioned. If when called upon, unfortunately for himself, to sit in Ireland, his judgment failed to satisfy Englishmen, surely the conviction ought to strike the thoughtful and fair-minded among them that the system judged, rather than the Judge, is at fault. That the landlords have withdrawn from his commission cannot ultimately improve their position.

Regarding Irish affairs as a whole, it is perhaps dangerous to predict before Parliament meets. If, after the general election, there was some danger of our being unduly elated, there is perhaps at present some excuse for our being unduly depressed. The situation is certainly one of great gravity. D. B.

HENRI DE VIRIEU.—II.

PARIS, November 25, 1892.

WE left Virieu after the departure of the Duchess de Rohan, his second mother, with the emigration. He remained in Paris, occupied with the framing of the Constitution. He did not oppose the enumeration of the rights of man, but insisted upon the admission of the name of God into the preamble of the Constitution. Mme. de Rohan remained a long time in Burgundy with her friends the Jaucourts, waiting, perhaps, for a change in Virieu's mind, and hesitating to leave for ever those whom she loved best in the world; she finally went away in December, 1789, and started for Nice, where she wished to stay till the tempest was over. Virieu was now beginning to ascend Calvary; his loyalism to the crown received a new blow every day. He asked in vain for the royal "veto"—the King was now called the Executive; the master of twenty-four millions of subjects had become the subject of twenty-four millions of masters.

Just at that moment Mme. de Tourzel, the great aunt of Mme. de Virieu, was appointed governess of the children of France. She accepted a function which had become a danger. Virieu had become in all the revolutionary papers the "infamous Virieu." When the Parisian fishwomen made their expedition to Versailles and invaded the hall of the Chamber, Mme. de Virieu was with her aunt, Mme. de Tourzel, in the palace. In the night the palace was invaded by an armed multitude. The Dauphin was carried rapidly to the King's room. "The Queen joined them; her hair was down; she had on only a little coat *rayée jaune*. What a picture! Marie Antoinette, Mme. Elisabeth, the children, all pressed against each other before a window, through which looked the King. In the passages, on the staircases—everywhere the crowd, everywhere screams, dead bodies; under the window, a furious and drunken crowd demanded the Queen on the balcony." The King in Paris was the wish, the order of the mob. Louis XVI. obeyed, and abandoned Versailles. The Assembly decided to follow him. The journey lasted seven hours. Mme. de Virieu was taken in one of the carriages, expecting all the time to see the head of her husband at the end of one of the pikes which were brandished round her.

Virieu's political theories were entirely wrecked in these two historic days, the 5th and 6th of October. He belonged to the group which called itself Constitutional, and what was the Constitution worth? Mounier and Lally were already asking for passports. In a letter to Mounier, who left Paris, Virieu says: "The atmosphere in which I live seems poisonous. The crimes and the criminals who rise on every side revolt my heart and soil my eyes. . . . Civil war would be better than all this mud in which we are drowning." On the 29th of April, 1790, the Centre of the Assembly, by a supreme effort, managed to name Virieu President. He was not able to remain long in

the chair and resigned. His alarm was now so great that he sent his wife and his three young children to Pupetières; he thought himself obliged to remain in Paris. "When I consider," he wrote to Mounier, "the situation of this unfortunate royal family, always under the dagger, I dare not go away. Notwithstanding the decree which has abolished all titles of nobility, I still feel enough of a gentleman not to abandon the King."

Louis XVI. was already thinking of secretly leaving France; Virieu helped Mesdames the daughters of Louis XV. to make their escape; he saved the princesses who had protected his infancy. He heard immediately afterwards that Mme. de Rohan was dying at Nice; she had for some time left his letters, which now had become very humble, unanswered. In June, 1791, he resigned the colonelcy of his regiment, as he was unwilling to take the new civic oath which had been ordered by the Assembly. Then came the flight to Varennes. Virieu was indignant at the King's confiding his defence to Barnave. It is always so. The Queen had trusted Mirabeau; the King trusted Barnave, who had incessantly conspired against him. "I have to work," wrote Virieu, "for people who are working for their own suicide." Mme. de Rohan was inflexible; she had no pity for the remorse and sufferings of Virieu. She was slowly dying; she did not allow any conversation about her on the affairs of France. When her will was opened, the first page contained these words: "I order that, immediately after my death, the little golden crucifix which I have always worn be taken from my neck and given as soon as possible to Mme. de Virieu." The name of Virieu himself was not pronounced. Virieu wrote to Mme. de Wall, who had remained to the end with Mme. de Rohan: "Ah, if she had seen me amidst the assassins who threaten me every hour, the person whose death you accuse me of having caused, she would have understood that cowardice would have rendered me unworthy of her. I have never been more faithful to the principles which she gave me than when I disobeyed her." The Duc de Rohan died a few weeks after his wife. "With him," says M. Costa de Beauregard, "disappeared one of the last, perhaps the last, of those *grands seigneurs*, as unintelligent of the fearful time which was beginning as they are unintelligible to our new time. The old gentleman died like a perfume which has ceased to be the fashion."

The powers of the Constituent Assembly had come to an end. Virieu had left it without regret and with many misgivings; he had remained in Paris with the faint hope of being of some use to the royal family. Mme. Elisabeth gave him a mission to Coblentz, which he accepted without a murmur, but with great reluctance, as he had always disapproved of the emigration. He made the journey with a mysterious agent, who had taken the false name of Montalbano. This Montalbano was a secret agent of the Austrians, one of those adventurers who find their opportunity in troublous times. Virieu had so little confidence in him that he always kept pistols in his pocket, and thought it necessary, when they slept in the same room on their way to Coblentz, always to keep his sword near him. They crossed the frontier together. Virieu obtained an audience of Monsieur the Comte de Provence and of the Comte d'Artois. Montalbano had also an audience of the Comte d'Artois, and delivered to him a message from the Archduke Francis, the heir of the Austrian crown, who professed to be as devoted to the cause of Marie Antoinette as the Emperor Leopold was himself indifferent.

Virieu lingered a long time in Coblentz; the princes had bid him remain. He was much troubled by the sort of responsibility which he had for Montalbano's mission, and heard not without a patriotic pang that the Austrian agent had in his plan demanded the occupation of Neuf-Brisach, which was then a French fortress, by an Austrian garrison. Virieu saw clearly that the foreign Powers were preparing either to abandon Louis XVI. to the Jacobins or to dismember France. The Emperor of Austria died on the 1st of March, 1792, quite unexpectedly, as he was only forty-five years old. The *émigrés* conceived much hope from the accession of Francis, but they were soon disappointed: the Emperor did not keep the promises of the Archduke. The negotiation which Virieu had begun was abandoned. He remained idle in Coblentz without money. After a while he left for Turin, stopping on the way in Geneva, at his aunt's, the Marquise de Blonay. He had a semi-official mission to the King of Sardinia from (so to call him) the minister of foreign affairs of Monsieur. He found the King very angry with the princes and the *émigrés*. "My people will get spoiled by all these gentlemen," repeated constantly Victor Amadeus. Virieu's mission came to an end when Louis XVI. declared war on Austria in April, 1792. He returned to Paris and found the monarchy in the last spasms of its agony; he was among the few faithful servants who remained around the King on the 10th of August. It is well known how, when the mob attacked the Tuileries, the King took refuge with the Assembly, and how the Swiss Guard was massacred in the palace and in the garden of the Tuileries. Virieu escaped through the garden almost miraculously. He concealed himself in a boat on the Seine, and afterwards in the woods of Meudon.

The memoirs of his daughter, Mlle. de Virieu, are here interrupted; they bring us, without any transition, to Lyons, where "the same will which had sent him [her father] to Coblentz, sent him to find his death." Lyons was in the hands of Chalier, a Piedmontese who had been brought up as a priest; he had become a commercial traveller, then administrator of the police in Lyons; suspended from his functions in April, 1791, for ordering women to be whipped at the doors of the churches, he had been reinstated by the Legislative Assembly on the 15th of August, 1792. Chalier was a sanguinary fanatic, and he would not have spared Virieu, who was obliged to change his name and to conceal himself. The King of Sardinia had been obliged to begin hostilities, as the French had entered Savoy. Mme. de Virieu to k refuge at Lausanne, with her children, but, after a while, she rejoined her husband at Lyons. The tyranny of Chalier became so intolerable that the inhabitants of Lyons rose against their ferocious proconsul. Virieu took part in the insurrection; he was, in fact, its principal leader with a workingman named Madinier.

Unfortunately for Virieu, the triumph at Lyons coincided with the downfall of the Girondists in Paris. Such of them as had fled from the capital tried to raise the provinces. Chalier had been guillotined and the Mountain swore to avenge him. Lyons had to prepare for a siege. Virieu organized and drilled the volunteers; eight thousand men were rapidly equipped and armed. An old gentleman, Comte de Précy, took the command. Précy had been a colonel; he had fought among the Swiss on the night of the 10th of August, and had retired near Lyons. Virieu was in favor of offensive action, and wished to take his volunteers out of the city. Précy preferred to take the risk of a siege. The city was besieged in due form by Gen. Kellermann. Virieu had command of the strong positions of the Croix-Rousse between the Saône and the Rhone. Lyons suffered a bombardment, and was invested. Famine turned the population against the defenders. Virieu made a sortie with his men, and was killed. "The day after the battle, the body of an officer had been found along the road. . . . His cross of Saint Louis had half entered his breast with a ball. His face seemed still alive." Public rumor said that it was Henri de Virieu; in the official report of the Commission of the Convention to Robespierre, it was said that among the prisoners was the ci-devant Marquis de Virieu. There were too many prisoners for the guillotine; they were killed together with grapeshot. Fouché, with Collot d'Herbois, had been intrusted with the punishment of Lyons. Fouché became a minister of Louis XVIII. Virieu died by his orders if he did not die in battle. His unfortunate wife could never learn exactly how he succumbed.

Correspondence.

THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article of December 1 upon "Politics and Currency" gives fresh reason for surprise and regret at your practice of stating clearly a set of premises and then shrinking from the perfectly obvious conclusion. Except for the fact that we are a very rich nation and can afford to do almost anything, our national finances present about as pitiable a spectacle as can well be imagined.

In the first place, we have half-a-dozen kinds of currency—gold and silver coins and greenbacks full legal tender, gold and silver certificates partial legal tender, and national banknotes rather less a legal tender. Then we have some thousands of tons of silver bullion, increasing at the rate of 125 tons a month, which has depreciated and is depreciating heavily upon our hands, which is of no use except as a basis for circulation, and is increasing at a rate which, if continued, will at no distant day bring us to a suspension of gold payments, in a way which is making us the laughing-stock of the civilized world. And yet there is a cry that we have not currency enough, and that the restriction must be taken off from State banknotes to supply the deficiency!

Turning from currency to debt, we find since the war a mad rush to pay off bonds, and this tendency stimulated by an enormous surplus revenue produced by a high tariff; so that, instead of leaving the money in the pockets of the people, it was taken to pay off bonds drawing from two to three per cent. interest. From this has resulted a panic lest the national-bank circulation should be extinguished for want of the pledged security, and a disposition has appeared to guard against this danger by opening the gates in advance to a flood of State banknotes. The danger appears, however, to have been otherwise obviated by the operations of a lobby of pension agents who, by bringing about an expenditure almost equal to that upon any of the great armies of Europe, have made it extremely probable that in the near future the United States Trea-

sury will be selling bonds instead of buying them.

The state of the tariff reminds one of the man who was holding a mad dog by the collar and could not let him go, while, to crown all, the high officials of the Treasury seem unable to agree within five or ten millions of dollars as to what the condition of the Treasury really is.

And all this delicate and complex machinery, upon which so much of the welfare of the people depends, is to be placed next year, to say nothing of the present Congress, in the hands of two bodies, taken together, of 400 men, all precisely equal, without discipline or leaders, except so far as they are evolved by party wire-pulling, and among whom there is nothing to distinguish the most accomplished expert from the most inexperienced and self-confident tyro.

The all-important question in the matter of the finances is not as to any particular policy or measures, but upon what system they shall be carried on; how some order is to be brought out of this indistinguishable chaos. The essential conditions are (1) that it shall be a comprehensive system, in which debt, currency, revenue, taxation, and expenditure shall be dealt with in some relation and proportion to each other; (2) that it shall be a continuous system in which the experiments and policy of yesterday shall have some relation to those of to-day, and these to those of to-morrow; (3, and most important of all) that it shall be conducted from the standpoint of the national interest, and not from that of local and private interests. It should never be forgotten that the nation as a whole is not represented in Congress; that every man in either house represents only a district or a State. Is it any wonder that private and local interests have the upper hand, and the national interest receives very little attention?

The only way in which these conditions can be attained is by putting the whole subject in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury, to be brought forward in open Congress. Imagine the interest that would be felt through the country if it were known that when Congress first meets under Mr. Cleveland, that would take place. It matters not that the particular individual would probably prove to be quite incompetent. While no vote of Congress could displace the Cabinet, it is yet true that the President could change at pleasure any or all of the members who, in his judgment, appeared to be incompetent. The mounting ambition of many candidates would probably be hurled from the saddle before the right man appeared. The first five or even ten years would be well and cheaply spent in evolving a man who was equal to the work. But when he did come, we should start on a new career. In the civil war we taught the nations of Europe an unexpected lesson as to the strength of democracy. It is not impossible that time may have it in store for us to teach them another and even stronger one in the conduct of civil government and the management of finance.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, December 3, 1892.

WILLIAM CLARK (NOT CLARKE).

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The spelling of the name of the famous explorer who was with Lewis in 1804-'06, has been in question ever since. In my bibliography of the Lewis and Clark literature, published in 1876, I said the balance of evidence favored Clarke. Had I said the balance of ostensible (published) evidence, the statement would have been more precise. Now I find the balance the other way. The name is unquestionably Clark. I have before me a verbatim copy of family Bible records of genealogies of the Clark family back to 1724—there is not a Clarke in the whole list. I have examined many signatures of autograph letters; they are invariably "Wm. Clark." The *k* is large, like a capital letter, with a flourishing long, lower loop, but nothing that can be turned into an *e*. Many letters I have seen address the explorer as Clark. Copies I have seen of various commissions are issued to him as a Clark. Old St. Louis newspaper notices are all Clark. Mr. F. L. Billou, the veteran annalist of St. Louis, writes me: "Spell it without an *e*." The only surviving son of the explorer signs a letter to me "Jefferson K. Clark." In fine, Ensign Clark, Lieut. Clark, Capt. Clark, Gen. Clark, Indian Agent Clark, and Gov. Clark—the man who was a Clark in every personal, legal, commercial, and official relation in life—passed into history, by some mystery that may never be cleared up, as a Clarke.

The first systematic use of the *e* I know of occurs in Gass, 1807-1813, in the four or five editions of the Sergeant's 'Journal.' Then the princeps edition of the 'Travels,' Philadelphia, 1814, has "Clarke" throughout the text, though "Clark" on the title-page. This is curious, for Nicholas Biddle, the real editor of the book which was put to press by Paul Allen, was an intimate of Clark's, and wrote "Clark" in private letters to him. The appearance of Clarke throughout the authentic narrative of course turned the scale the wrong way. Future editors and commentators should revert to the proper spelling.

Truly yours, ELLIOTT COUES.

No. 1726 N STREET, WASHINGTON, D. C., December 4, 1892.

STAINED-GLASS WINDOWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A wise and appreciative critic who wrote in your columns last week regarding the work of Mr. Burne-Jones spoke with great interest of this artist's cartoons for stained glass, in which may be found a rare degree of excellence; and this excellence leads him to compare the glass windows of Mr. Burne-Jones with those of Mr. La Farge, so widely famed for beauty of color, and to hope for a future perfection in the art of stained-glass design which may combine the qualities of both. It would indeed be a fine consummation which should bring together such varied riches in a little room; but it is asking for what cannot be obtained, owing to the nature of the elements involved in the production of glass design. Let me, in a few words, explain this.

The stained-glass windows now made in Europe, among which those of Mr. Burne-Jones hold high rank, are wrought out of large glass plates, each plate being of uniform thickness and uniform tint. On these plates, or panes, of color, all minutiæ of design are *painted;* all shadows, modelling, and delicate lines are done with the brush—the lead-lines being reserved for the outlines and large masses generally. A fine example of this method of treatment may be seen in the window entitled "The Building of the Temple" in Trinity Church, Boston, where the intricate, subtle, and beautifully modulated drawing of Mr. Burne-Jones's cartoon is exactly copied in paint upon glass composed of flat, even tones of color.

It will be seen that by this process one gets the advantage of elaborate drawing, but at the cost of a certain loss in purity of color, for the color of the glass must be somewhat injured by the use of pigment. On the other hand, in the justly so-called American process, the glass which is used is all *opalescent*—that is, of varied and iridescent quality of color. It is made in plates, also, but each plate varies in thickness and in tint, so that by careful selection light and dark tones can be obtained from the glass itself, without the use of paint at all (save in the head and hands). All lines used in this method are *lead-lines*, which cannot be indefinitely multiplied, as when done with a brush; and the special aim is to produce beauty by a highly varied use of color, by purity of tone, and by texture—this last a new and exquisite element obtained in opalescent glass.

It will be found that windows made by the American method are capable of expressing, under the hand of a great artist, new and ineffable manifestations of color; and in a domain of art where light plays so large a part in the essential beauty, it seems to many that subtlety of color rather than subtlety of drawing is the more legitimate goal in the production of stained-glass work. But, however this may be, two noble schools stand side by side to-day, each expressing in its own way some of the dreams and desires of the heart of man.

S. W. W.

NO. 77 MT. VERNON STREET, BOSTON.

THE DANTE SONNET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Would it perhaps be interesting to your readers to compare the, I fear, little-known version by the late Dr. T. W. Parsons of Dante's sonnet, "Tanto gentile e tanto oneste pare," with those by Rossetti and Mr. Norton given in the last number of the *Nation* (No. 1430)?

"So gentle seems my lady and so pure
When she greets any one, that scarce the eye
Such modesty and brightness can endure,
And the tongue, trembling, falters in reply.

"She never heeds when people praise her worth—
Some in their speech, and many with a pen—
But meekly moves, as if sent down to earth
To show another miracle to men!

"And such a pleasure from her presence grows
On him who gazeth while she passeth by—
A sense of sweetness that no mortal knows
Who hath not felt it—that the soul's repose
Is woke to worship, and a spirit flows
Forth from her face that seems to whisper,
'Sigh'!"

This may not be as faithful to the original as Mr. Norton's version, but it is evidently the work of a genuine poet.

WILLIAM M. SALTER.

PHILADELPHIA, November 30, 1892.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. will first give to the public at large 'Poems Antique and Modern,' 'A Book of Day Dreams, or a Century of Sonnets,' by Charles Leonard Moore, and 'The Banquet of Palacios,' a South American comedy in prose by the same author.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'Studies of Travel in Greece and Italy,' by the late Edward A. Freeman; 'Carlsbad, a Medico-Practical Guide,' by Dr. Emil Kleen; 'Short Stalks,' hunting trips North, South, East, and West, by Edward N. Buxton, with sixty illustrations; 'Studies by a Recluse in Cloister, Town, and Village,' by Augustus Jessopp, D.D.; 'Voodoo Tales,' collected from original

sources," by Mary A. Owen; 'Red Leaves and Roses,' poems by Madison J. Cawein; 'A Country Muse,' verses by Norman R. Gale; and 'The Pocket Encyclopædia.'

Henry George's new work, 'A Perplexed Philosopher,' being an examination of Herbert Spencer's position on the land question, will be published by C. L. Webster & Co., who will also take over Mr. George's other writings for reissue in a uniform edition.

T. Fisher Unwin's announcements include Quevedo's 'Pablo de Segovia,' with more than a hundred drawings by Daniel Vierge; 'Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life,' by George Jacob Holyoake; a new edition of 'Three Generations of Englishwomen,' by Janet Ross; 'The Life of William Cowper,' by Thomas Wright; 'The Fishguard Invasion by the French in 1797'; and 'The Nationalisation of Health,' by Havelock Ellis.

Shakspere in blocks of seven is the scheme of the dainty "Ariel Shakspere" of the Messrs. Putnam. Seven of the Comedies are the first instalment, and as many of the Histories and gain of the Tragedies will follow. Each play makes a volume, and is contained in a box of its own, suitable for a pocket case. The print is open and handsome, and the illustrations are unobtrusive outlines reduced from designs by Frank Howard, issued sixty years ago, and of course uniform in style and consistent one with another. The binding is leather, prettily stamped. Altogether, this is a very acceptable form for the perennial dramas. The same publishers have added two volumes to their Knickerbocker Nuggets series, one being 'Deutsche Volkslieder,' a selection from German folk-songs, edited by Prof. Horatio S. White of Corneli. This is a fresh assortment, printed in German text with ornaments by German designers, with an introductory essay on folk-songs, a bibliography, notes, and an index of first lines. It is sure to be appreciated. The other "Nugget" is 'The Wit and Wisdom of Charles Lamb,' selected and arranged from his works by Ernest D. North, with supplementary anecdotes by his contemporaries. The frontispiece portrait of Lamb at twenty-three adds much to the value of this volume. The same drawing, by Hancock, slightly reduced, has been etched as a vignette for the title-page of 'The Essays of Elia,' a handsome duodecimo issued by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, to which Prof. George E. Woodberry supplies a brief introduction. A companion volume is 'Last Essays of Elia.' The typography and the dark-blue binding of both have a simple elegance. Mr. Hugh Thomson, pursuing his pen-and-ink illustrations of old English classics, gives us 'Days with Sir Roger de Coverley' (Macmillan). This artist had more scope in the 'Vicar of Wakefield' and in 'Cranford,' but his present designs have the cleverness, imagination, and decorative quality of their predecessors. Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cousin Phillis' joins the "Tales from Foreign Lands" of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago; and 'Paradise Lost,' compressed into small but clear type, takes its place among the "Laurel-Crowned Verse" of the same publishers, who have given to both series a stamp of good taste without and within. This stamp is conspicuously wanting in 'Heinrich Heine: His Wit, Wisdom, Poetry,' edited by Newell Dunbar, who has incorporated Matthew Arnold's essay on Heine (Boston: J. G. Cupples Co.). Roberts Bros. make an interesting experiment in employing a Frenchman, Émile Bayard, to furnish the illustrations to a new edition of the 'Poems of Helen Jackson.' They are of uneven quality, but have as a whole more distinction than a native artist would have been apt to exhibit, while their "local color" is nil. They are numerous, and besides them are three good portraits: of the poetess herself, of Emerson, and of Charlotte Cushman. 'Christmas Books' is the title given to Dickens's five Christmas stories collected by his son in Macmillan's series of reprints from first editions. The "Christmas Carol" was the first of the line, and its popularity ranks with that of 'Pickwick' and 'David Copperfield.' It was also, says the younger Dickens in his introduction, the first of the novelist's works to be read in public by himself (in 1853), while "The Chimes" was the first to be read aloud to his friends in advance of publication. The other tales are "The Cricket on the Hearth," "The Battle of Life," and "The Haunted Man." 'Guy Mannering' is the second volume in the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels (Macmillan). To what we have already said of this admirable undertaking, we can only add a word of praise for Mr. Gordon Browne, who this time furnishes the illustrations.

Nobody will begrudge the fine attire bestowed upon that powerful tale, 'The Little Minister,' in the "Kirremuir Edition" (New York: Lovell, Coryell & Co.). These two noble octavos are printed on untrimmed Holland paper, with broad margins surrounding a 16mo page of type. The title-page and initial letters are rubricated, and there are ten etched illustrations, including a portrait of Mr. Barrie, by G. W. H. Ritchie. These etchings are duplicated throughout, one set being on vellum, unlettered; the other, on plate paper, lettered. The covers have vellum backs and pale-green paper sides, and give the work a very distinguished appearance. Mr. Ritchie's designs are a real embellishment, and are at their best very good indeed. The typography also is excellent. In short, the conception and execution of this sumptuous edition, which is limited to less than 300 copies, entitle it to rank among the best of the holiday publications of the year which have thus far come for judgment before us.

Except that the silhouette of *Lady Teazle's* profile is a little too startling, the cover of the new edition of the "School for Scandal" which Dodd, Mead & Co. have just published is excellent. The printing also, the work of the University Press, is good, although two typographical ornaments on the title-page are out of place. The illustrations by Mr. Frank M. Gregory are less praiseworthy; they are stiff and do not really illustrate the play; they are deficient in decorative quality also. The five so-called "aquarelles" have none of the charm of watercolors clearly and cleanly facsimiled; they are very chromo-like, oily, and heavy. It is perhaps too much to ask that the illustrations of a play shall suggest that it is destined for the stage; but this is what some of the French illustrators of Molière's comedies have succeeded in doing to perfection. They have set before us the persons of the drama in their proper surroundings, and have thus managed to hint at the stage whereon alone these characters are seen to best advantage. Mr. Gregory has not attempted to do this, any more than Mr. Abbey has in his illustrations of Shakspere's comedies.

To Mr. W. J. Loftie's "Art at Home" series Mr. Andrew Lang eleven years ago contributed 'The Library,' which had to do with the arts dear to the book-lover. Now this little book appears in a second edition (New York: Macmillan), with a preface "brought down to date," and with an appendix to the final chapters, by Mr. Austin Dobson, on modern English illustrated books. The body of the book seems to be intact. Mr. Lang's new preface contains references drawn from recent sales; it protests against the modern craze for large-paper copies of new books and for the first editions of books by living authors. Mr. Dobson's postscript deals with the great advance in book-illustration since 1881. It is with some surprise that we find a critic of a taste as refined as Mr. Dobson's bestowing even a word of praise in passing on work as doubtful as Mr. Caton Woodville's illustrations for Mr. Haggard's tales of battle, murder, and sudden death, or as Mr. Herkomer's illustrations for Mr. Hardy's 'Tess.' Mr. Dobson's praise of Mr. Abbey's best work is discreet and cordial, and so is his recognition of the promise of Mr. Hugh Thomson and of Mr. J. Bernard Partridge. Of American illustrators other than Mr. Abbey, Mr. Dobson says nothing; it would have been pleasant to have his opinion of Mr. Frost's "Rudder Grange," and of Mr. Howard Pyle's "One Hoss Shay."

The Chiswick Press in London turns out now and then really well-made books, equal to the standard set by the best printers of France and America. The manager of the Chiswick Press is Mr. Charles T. Jacobi, who put forth last year a little essay, 'On the Making and Issuing of Books,' which he has now revised and amplified, and republished as 'Some Notes on Books and Printing: A Guide for Authors and Others.' It contains suggestions on the preparation of MS. for the press, describing the styles of type, the kinds of paper, the sizes of the various pages, the process of stereotyping, etc. In intention and in plan it is excellent; but the author's style as a writer is slovenly and his proof-reading as a printer is careless. Very useful are Mr. Jacobi's specimen pages of the principal styles of type, set solid, leaded, and with thin leads. Useful also are the dozen samples of paper, machine-made and hand-made.

There is evidently a steady demand for Mr. Frederick Douglass's autobiography, for the 'Life and Times' just put forth by De Wolfe, Fiske & Co., Boston, is, if we mistake not, a fourth edition. In the previous issue Mr. Douglass had shown his respect for Mr. Cleveland, whose official attitude towards himself had been uninfluenced by the fact of his color, and he bears his testimony anew in this volume, having elsewhere expressed his satisfaction with the late election, as containing no menace to the welfare of the Southern blacks.

Three books on cookery call for notice at this season of home feasts. The "Majority Edition" of Marion Harland's 'Common Sense in the Household' (Scribners) marks the twenty-first year of a book which has proved useful and acceptable to many, notwithstanding the overbearing tone of its advice on domestic management. 'Ninety-nine Practical Methods of Utilizing Boiled Beef' (New York: John Ireland), a translation from the French, is a much-inflated book, suggesting that the author agonized to complete the odd number by making the least change in seasoning an excuse for turning over the leaf and writing a new title. We must sometimes economize in the quality of our cooks as well as in food, and most of them would make a sad mess in attempting to follow these rules, which will have their chief use for American readers in showing how far we still are from the admirable economies of the French cuisine. 'Letters to a Young Housekeeper,' by Mrs. Bayard Taylor (Scribners), combines with excellent general directions for marketing and cooking a large number of practical recipes, many of which are for odd dishes tasted and liked by the author in various foreign lands. The whole book is written with a commendable regard for its literary

dress uncommon in a cook-book. A young housekeeper can use it with a sense of being in good company, and can hardly fail to profit by sound advice so modestly given.

'The American Annual of Photography' for the coming year (Scovill & Adams Co.) contains the usual variety of contributed articles on topics interesting to the craft, and plates illustrative of a variety of processes. Among these are several portraits of Daguerre, but not many remarkable compositions or *genre* studies. We should have been glad of some illustrations of long-distance photography, on which there is a brief paper. Mr. Stillman, in describing the Roman Amateurs' Club, gives some useful hints to amateurs as to objects, places, and times for getting the best views in the Eternal City.

A "Children's Calendar" for 1893 (Boston: Greenough, Adams & Cushing) is the first to reach us of the pad variety. The same firm send us also "Thoughts from Modern Authors," hinged leaflets, with a sentiment for every day in the year, compiled by Alice F. Stevens. Rose Porter makes a tiny book of 'Men's Thoughts for Men,' the novelty consisting in drawing all the thoughts for a whole month from one author. Marcus Aurelius is followed by Mr. Froude, who supplies some excellent aphorisms on the subject of truth, by Thomas Hughes, etc.

The translation of Galdós's 'Marianela,' by Helen W. Lester (Chicago: McClurg), is considerably condensed from the original, perhaps to fit the metes and bounds of the series in which it is published, but is otherwise remarkably faithful and adequate. The story itself has an idyllic strain not characteristic of its author, and in its pastoral unreality is certainly not typical as "A Story of Spanish Love"; but it is not without a fanciful charm which is well preserved in the English version.

Dr. Daremberg of Paris, whose work on cholera we recently reviewed, has published 'Traitement de la Phthisie Pulmonaire' (Paris: J. Rueff & Cie.) that is too distinctly a professional work for particular notice here. He necessarily upholds the modern doctrine of the contagiousness of consumption, whose mode is shown by the tubercle bacillus. He believes the disease to be rarely hereditary, and he has firm faith that it is curable with sufficient frequency to justify its removal from the hopeless catalogue. The treatise is in two small volumes, beautifully printed on good paper, with flexible bindings. The style is luminous and the substance excellent.

A year ago we called attention to Restori's 'History of Provençal Literature,' in Hoepli's well-known series of manuals, as giving in compact form much which the general student of literature could not easily find accessible elsewhere. A somewhat similar service is performed by the 'Crestomazia Provenzale' of Prof. V. Crescini of Padua. The first part, now published (Padua: Fratelli Drucker), contains some 7,000 lines of Provençal text from about fifty authors, or one-quarter as much as Bartsch's 'Chrestomathie Provençale,' from two-fifths as wide a range of authors. The second and smaller part, which is to appear shortly, will consist of a grammar and a glossary. Both together cost only three and a half lire—a price which, taking into consideration the number and variety of the selections, should recommend the work to many who do not care to buy the more expensive Bartsch, or who welcome fresher subject-matter for their class-room work.

Two documents, recently discovered in the Florentine archives and published by Del Lungo in the July Bulletin of the Italian Dante Society, supplement our slender knowledge of Dante's part in Florentine politics. They are dated July 6 and December 14, 1295, and concern respectively a noteworthy episode in the modification of Giano della Bella's severely stringent democratic reforms, and a clumsily arranged bi-monthly election of priors. Both documents antedate all others extant concerning Dante's political life. Moreover, they confirm 1295 as the date at which Dante began to take an active part in political affairs, and afford a basis for several interesting inferences as to the experiences which changed the timid sonneteer of the 'New Life' into the vigorous and versatile scholar and statesman of a few years later.

We shall soon set eyes on the first number of *Toscanelli*, a publication launched last month at Florence by Loescher & Seeber, whose American agents are B. Westermann & Co., New York. Its sub-title is: "Notes and Documents touching the relations between Italy and America." The term "relations" (*rapports*) is to be interpreted in a broad sense, (1) on the ancient side, by paying special attention to documents existing in the Italian archives and libraries that relate to the period of discovery; (2) on the modern, by keeping a current record of the relations of the two countries at the present day in respect of literature and artistic enterprise ("les œuvres d'art en voie d'exécution"). Articles will be welcomed that contain documentary evidence or impartial criticism. To avoid padding, the size of the several issues will vary, and the publication will be irregular. Book-reviewing will be a feature.

—An unscholarly article in *Foet-Lore* for October maintains that Dante's claim to the place as a poet which he now holds in popular esteem will not bear investigation. It is interesting to notice that the author bases most of his deductions upon passages from the "Inferno," and to recall that the "Inferno" is indeed what Dante means to the ordinary reader. Whoever takes real delight in Dante's poetry, however, is very likely to consider the "Inferno" as merely a gateway, beautiful and impressive in itself, to the greater beauties of the "Purgatory" and the "Paradise." That the last two canticles of the great poem are especially dear to the student of philosophical and religious thought, one is reminded by a glance at the citations appended to the text in the late Canon Liddon's interesting essays on Dante and Aquinas, and Dante and the Franciscans, which, though read some years ago before the Oxford Dante Society, are now for the first time published in his 'Essays and Addresses' (Longmans, Green & Co.). Here the mere fact that there are twice as many references to the "Purgatory" as to the "Inferno," and three times as many to the "Paradise" as to the "Purgatory," will indicate the relative proportion in which the three canticles associate themselves with the Franciscans and with the great Dominican thinker. Both of Canon Liddon's essays are undogmatic in form and substance, and will greatly interest and aid those who find not enough help in the ordinary commentary on Dante, and too much in the larger books of reference. The author concludes that Dante "holds St. Thomas, beyond any other religious teacher, as his master," and that Dante "certainly detected in the mind of the greatest teacher of the thirteenth century those elements which command the attentive respect of men when the changes of thought and feeling which come with time have had their full range of influence." But though Dante's deepest sympathies were with St. Dominic, he did ample justice to St. Francis and his followers, both by direct encomium and by his evident admiration of and affection for *il poverel di Dio*. Perhaps more remarkable, however, than Dante's references to the great Franciscans is, according to Canon Liddon, his omitting all mention of the three great English Franciscans who were his own predecessors or contemporaries—Alexander of Hales, "Doctor Irrefragabilis," the master of St. Bonaventure; Roger Bacon, "Doctor Mirabilis;" and Duns Scotus, "Doctor Subtilis." Silence as to the last, however, we cannot think strange, for Scotus had done comparatively little worth mention before 1300, the date which Dante, with such scrupulous accuracy, sets as a limit to his vision of all that seemed to him memorable in the past.

—A recent writer in the London *Notes and Queries* (8th s., ii., p. 358) insists on the name United Statesians as best befitting dwellers in the United States. He avers that he did not coin the word, but that "he has read it in authors of respectability." The name Yankee, he holds, is too narrow, and American too wide—"an extension of the Monroe doctrine to which he is not inclined to yield." The current limitation of the noun American seems, however, to have grown up very naturally. It was perhaps restricted to inhabitants of British American colonies by English writers earlier than by those inhabitants themselves. We find it so used by such writers before the Declaration of Independence. Thus, in 1765 a writer in the British Philosophical Transactions said: "Paying quit-rents to monopolizers of large tracts of land is not well relished by *Americans*." An epigram dating from 1774, addressed to the Ministry, begins:

> "You've sent a rod to Massachusett,
> Thinking the Americans will buss it."

So, in 1775, Dr. Johnson, in 'Taxation No Tyranny,' wrote: "That the Americans are able to bear taxation is indubitable." He also employed the phrase "American Congress" in no doubtful sense. Only on farthest shores washed by the farthest sea has the present writer discovered the adjective American to be still ambiguous. Asking in Colombo for the American Consul, he was directed first to an official from Brazil and then to one from Mexico. The narrowing in the application of the name American to existing usage, which did not begin with Johnson, is in keeping with the analogy of several collateral words, and those mostly made up by the English themselves. Thus, *Americanized* means assimilated to characteristics of the United States. All the citations illustrative of this word in the Philological Society's Dictionary are adduced from English writers. So *Americanism*, *Americanize*, and *Americanization*—the last an issue from the London mint—describe characteristics of the United States, and not of any other sections of the Western continent. *A potiore nomen fit.* The people of the United States, as outnumbering the dwellers in any other American country, would more reasonably bear the name of Americans. But while still few in number, they were already so called, because they had not, like Canadians, Mexicans, etc., a distinctive name based on their geographical position. The truth may be that the inhabitants of the United States were styled Americans with prophetic foresight. When it was first bestowed, their number was not one-tenth as multitudinous as it has now become, nor was their territory one tenth as vast. Should their expansion in the future be commensurate with that in the past, the American hemisphere will soon be too narrow to

bound in the local habitation of United Statesians. But when the name of United Kingdomers shall be accepted by the people of the three Britanno-Celtic islands, and when British federationists have devised a descriptive title for their rope of sand, Americans may be ready to exchange their name for that of—Greater Britons.

—Few historic monographs are so instructive, and fewer are so readable, as Mr. George A. Gordon's account of land-grants in the wilderness north of Merrimack River in 1659 and onward. Lowell, second of Massachusetts cities in 1880, was a centre of these grants, and this paper was recently read there before the Old Residents' Historical Association, all of whom doubtless wished they were descendants of the original grantees. The grants were sometimes made to requite heroism in public service, or in return for money advanced in planting the colony, or in place of salaries, or, once, as an Indian reservation. It is remarkable how many names occur that are still notable, as Winthrop, Saltonstall, Higginson, Gardner, Tyng, Russell, etc. The boundaries were so indefinite as to need perambulations at least annually, thus: "Laid out to Mr. Edward Tyng 250 acres in the wilderness on the northern side of Merrimack River, being bounded and butted by a farm laid out to Mr. Russell on the south end; the wilderness elsewhere surrounding according to marked trees. Jona Danforth, Surveyor." The significance of Indian names is given according to latest authorities. Racy anecdotes abound, so that no dish at the dinner can have been more of a dainty than the discourse. One of the grantees was in 1669 a commissioner at Salem to see that no coin was exported, with authority to examine outgoing sailors and passengers, and, if found, to bring the coin to the court for confiscation. His career ought to be studied by our statesmen who are now laboring so hard to keep gold from running out of the country.

—We have received from B. Westermann & Co. a pamphlet containing a lecture by J. Wells of Wadham College, Oxford, on "The Teaching of History in Schools." The subject is an important one both because history is constantly gaining ground in the schools, and because in the past it has often been taught in such a wooden manner as permanently to prejudice the young student against it. In Mr. Wells's view, the prime utility of history is its power to bring new interests into life which will always be an addition to one's intellectual resources. As travel enlarges our experience in space, so history enlarges our experience in time. An indirect lesson of great value to be learned from the study of history is that one can believe strongly in a cause and yet be fair to opponents and see that they too are sincere. Mr. Wells strongly condemns in teaching any "attack on present political parties or classes through their predecessors, real or supposed." "So to teach or so to write is the mark at once of a bad historian and a bad citizen." He is also severe upon allowing children to read so-called comic histories, and warns teachers against over-familiarity of treatment, against encouraging false sentimentality, such, for example, as that in Mrs. Sigourney's 'William the Conqueror at Windsor,' and a too early introduction to historic doubt. He emphasizes the use, as aids, of architecture, pictures and photographs, museums, historical poetry, and national songs. In garrison towns the history of the regiment cannot fail to kindle interest. Historical novels should be made use of with caution; perhaps not more than fifty are of value for this purpose. Mr. Wells would confine the teaching in schools to the history of England, and on this point he seems too dogmatic. The lesson of judicial impartiality is often far more easily inculcated in studying the history of Greece and Rome, while the strong personal element in Greek and Roman history and the narrative power of the ancient historians combine to stir the interest of young students. By a strange oversight, Mr. Wells speaks of Scott being misled by Thierry in writing 'Ivanhoe.' Thierry did not publish his 'Histoire de la Conquête de l'Angleterre' till 1825, while 'Ivanhoe' appeared in 1820.

SYMONDS'S MICHELANGELO.

The Life of Michelangelo Buonarroti: Based on Studies in the Archives of the Buonarroti Family at Florence. By John Addington Symonds. With etched portrait and fifty reproductions of the works of the Master. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xxxii, 469, and viii, 441.

THE ideal biographer of Michelangelo is perhaps an impossible person to find. He should not only be one deeply versed in the history of the period and in general literature, a careful and impartial investigator, a man of imagination and penetration, and a powerful and interesting writer, but he should also be a specialist in three great arts, having a wide and profound critical knowledge of, and a practical acquaintance with, painting, sculpture, and architecture. Mr. Symonds probably fills many of these requirements better than any other English writer. His knowledge of Renaissance history and literature is vast, and his competence as critic and investigator is undoubted. He has, besides, had access, rarely granted, to the Buonarroti archives, and has thus been able to throw much new light on many points. He has avoided Grimm's fault of wide excursions into general history, and has kept his hero constantly in sight. He has, where possible, used the language of Michelangelo himself and of his contemporaries, thus securing greater vividness of delineation even at some expense of continuity of style. His 'Life' is an admirable and solid work, and one must be a very profound student of the subject or a very reckless writer to question his conclusions on all matters of fact. Michelangelo was, however, first of all an artist; and in the interpretation of a work of art, and of the artist through his art, a little practical and technical knowledge often goes farther than much general information. It is here that Mr. Symonds is weakest, and here that we feel we may venture to disagree with him or supplement him. We shall rather supplement than disagree, for we believe that his conclusions are in the main the right ones, and that a clearer technical knowledge would have insured his arrival at them with less difficulty and confusion.

The three great questions as to Michelangelo are (1) his relation to men and women, and, bearing upon that, his treatment of the sexes in his art; (2) the reason for the paradox that, though essentially a sculptor, his greatest work is in painting; (3) the reasons, whether temperamental or external, why so much of his work remains unfinished. Connected with these are many minor questions, such as that of his failure to found a school, his successive changes of manner, etc., etc.

The first of these questions, which Mr. Symonds discusses with great frankness in his twelfth chapter, can hardly be considered here except in the second branch of it, that of Michelangelo's treatment of sex, and particularly of the female figure, in his art. We know of no point in which the master has been so misunderstood as this, and none which it is so important to clear up. Critics of Michelangelo have constantly dwelt on his insensibility to female grace and beauty. Mr. Symonds is somewhat confused, not to say contradictory, on this point, and oscillates strangely from the extremest view to one very nearly right. He says: "I find it difficult to resist the conclusion that Michelangelo felt himself compelled to treat women as if they were another and less graceful sort of males. The sentiment of woman, what really distinguishes the sex, whether voluptuously or passionately or poetically apprehended, emerges in no eminent instance in his work." And again: "He remained insensible to the grace of purely feminine lines; and the only reason why his transcripts from the female form are not gross like those of the Flemish painters, repulsive like Rembrandt's, fleshly like Rubens's, disagreeable like the drawings made by criminals in prisons, is that they have little womanly about them." Nothing could well be more strongly stated than this, yet, a little later, we find Mr. Symonds admiring, in a long series of works, that profound sentiment of maternity which the world has been accustomed to consider as "what really distinguishes the sex" more than any other, and admitting that "the Eve of 'The Temptation' has even something of positively feminine charm." This admitted charm, however, he immediately explains away, by an explanation that is none, as "dramatic characterization" necessary "in this part of his work."

As important conclusions about this artist's psychology are drawn from the lack of "girlish charm" and "grace" in his female figures, it is well to consider if there is not a very simple reason for it. Michelangelo had a message and a style. His style was gradually evolved as the only language that could carry his thought. It is marked by the absence of landscape, of ornament, of everything but the human figure, and the figure is systematically enlarged and idealized in a special way until his personages are colossal, rugged, titanic—primeval powers rather than human beings. What should "girlish grace" and slim elegance do here? They would be as much out of place on the ceiling of the Sistine as would a background of Perugino's or Fra Angelico's wings or patterned draperies. Yet we are assured by Condivi that Michelangelo was passionately fond of beautiful landscape and all beautiful things. An artist's choice of material for his art has often little to do with his likings in other respects, and the woman he chooses to paint may be very different from the woman he chooses to marry. Michelangelo idealized his female figures in exactly the same way as the male, and for the same reason—to fit them to carry the weight of thought he placed upon them. They are true mates for his men—colossal and grandiose like them—but they are nevertheless intensely feminine. Every curve of the figure of "Dawn" is a masterful and wonderful idealization on Michelangelesque lines of distinctively female forms, no smallest fragment of which could ever be mistaken for part of a male figure; and it is so full of grace that, minus the style, it becomes the type of all the long-legged, sinuous women of seventeenth and eighteenth-century art; while the "Libyan Sibyl" is one of the most graciously, nobly, and winningly feminine presences in all art. The

"enormous haunches" of the Eve are, like the superb thorax of the Adam, a stylistic exaggeration, and mark the sex more and not less strongly than nature. We are not of the same race as these giants; if we were, it is such giantesses that we should love —giantesses that are not less but more feminine for being framed on the generous scale of those huge things that lived before the flood.

The recognition of a personal artistic style, gradually developed for the expression of profound and romantic thought, will aid us in arriving at some conclusion about other points in Michelangelo's work. If he was the most sculpturesque of painters, so that one recognizes in each of his pictorial compositions the sculptor's manner of seeing and feeling, he was also the most romantic and, in a sense, pictorial of sculptors. If his frescoes are composed on only one plane and without accessories, his sculpture depends, more than that of any other great sculptor, upon light and shade, and, in many of the most remarkable of his works, largely upon lack of completion, for its effect. Take the Lorenzo de' Medici from his niche and place him in a plain side-light, and, together with the brooding shadow of his helmet upon his face, half his mysterious dignity has vanished and he seems almost commonplace and vulgar. Disengage the face of the "Day" from its stony mask and complete it, as it is completed in the common small models of the figure, and its strange horror has evaporated. What is left is the Michelangelo that his science and training had made him, the academic master of anatomy who epitomized the learning of the Renaissance, the decorator who already foreshadows the epoch of Rococo; but the personal element, the strange poetic nature which has had no fellow unless in Rembrandt, is gone. Mr. Symonds says: "His 'Bacchus' alone is sufficient to explode a theory favored by some critics, that, left to work unhindered, he would still have preferred a certain vagueness, a certain want of polish in his marbles." We venture to say that it is nothing of the sort. The "Bacchus" is an immature work, showing none of Michelangelo's great qualities, and no immature work can explode a theory drawn from the mature work of the same artist. Michelangelo was constantly at the beck and call of a succession of pontiffs, and was constantly being made to desert one piece of work for another; and this fact undoubtedly had something to do with the incompletion of his work. He may also, occasionally, have deserted a statue because of veinings in the marble. Neither of these causes, however, seems sufficient to account for the remarkable fact that there is hardly a work of sculpture by him in existence, after the time of the "David," which is finished throughout by his own hand. Some of his statues were finished by inferior men after he had done with them, but most remain, as he left them, more or less unfinished.

There must surely have been some cause, deep down in the temperament of the artist, for this; and this fact Mr. Symonds partly recognizes later in these volumes, but he does not, we think, draw as much for the study of the master's mind from it as is there to be found. It may throw some light on the question to notice that in many figures, otherwise finished to polish, the head and hands are only blocked out, and that in most of the artist's sketches and studies the head is omitted entirely or indicated by a mere scrawl. As an anatomist Michelangelo undoubtedly felt that, structurally, the head is of the least importance of anything in the figure, having the smallest influence in determining the action and movement which he was studying. It was of least importance to him artistically also, for his whole scheme of art was based on the expression of the nude figure. His finished heads are usually rather commonplace abstractions, and might be destroyed without much affecting the expression of the figure; and he may well have felt that when the figure was once done, it mattered little whether the head was completed or not, its pose being settled, and might even leave it, complacently enough, to any journeyman's hand to finish.

More than this, however, it is absurd to suppose that Michelangelo was himself insensible to the strange charm which is so visible to all of us in his unfinished work. He began to work, and to a certain extent always worked, on a system of carefully polished and rounded modelling; but he was constantly striving to infuse into sculpture meanings and thoughts which it was not meant to express and could not hold. His whole life shows him to us as an artist of the modern, *musicianly* type—fitful, moody, impatient, unable to found a school or to work with assistants—at the antipodes of the serene craftsmen who knew how to do a good thing and could teach what they knew. His deep poetic spirit tried to express itself through the medium of the most simple, classic, and formal of the arts. What more natural than that he should have found the sentiment evaporating as the work advanced, and should have, half-despairingly, left in the unfinish of the sketch a suggestion of things which the cold completeness of the finished marble could never convey? It is this struggle of a romantic temperament to express itself through a classic medium that caused the lack of finish in so much of Michelangelo's work, and which accounts also for the paradox that, sculptor as he was and remained, even in painting, it was in that more romantic art, where finish does not exclude mystery, that he found his highest and most complete expression.

There is another matter in which, it seems to us, a fuller knowledge of technical conditions might have modified Mr. Symonds's judgment. He discusses the apparent suddenness of transition from Michelangelo's realistic manner to the "schematic" treatment of the figure in the Sistine Chapel, and imagines that the intermediate stage might be found in the cartoon of "The Battle of Pisa," if it were in existence. Possibly it might, but little is needed to explain the change beyond the conditions of the work itself. The "David" may have been, and probably was, modelled directly from nature, but the host of figures on the vaults of the Sistine could be done at all only in virtue of a system and a convention. Nothing could, in the nature of things, be made from nature save more or less slight sketches and indications. Every painter who has ever undertaken much more humble work of anything like the same sort will understand how Michelangelo was *forced* to rely upon the knowledge gained from his long and intense study, and to invent a Michelangelesque type which thenceforth dominated his work, getting ever farther from the nature from which it started till it ended in the pure conventionality of the "Last Judgment," and manner became mannerism.

Michelangelo is so great that it is hardly necessary to depreciate Raphael in the comparison, as Mr. Symonds seems inclined to do. He calls Leonardo, Michelangelo, Raphael, and Andrea del Sarto "the four greatest draughtsmen of this epoch," and then proceeds to bracket Raphael and Andrea together as much inferior to the other two. This seems to us a grave fault in criticism. Raphael was, on his own lines, the equal, if not the superior, of any draughtsman that ever lived; while Andrea is every way his inferior and that of the other two. Neither is Michelangelo "always technically faultless." The left forearm of the finest of his figures, the Adam, is by no means impeccable, and he is not infrequently guilty of really bad drawing.

There are also one or two matters of fact that we shall touch upon by way of suggestions for a future edition. They are of no great importance in themselves, but accuracy is not to be despised even in trifles. The drawing Raphael sent to Dürer is not a pen-drawing but a chalk-drawing. The outlines of Michelangelo's cartoons for the Sistine were not "pricked in" with dots to guide the painter." They were traced on the wet plaster with a point which produced an incised line. The large photograph of the Adam shows this indented line plainly, and also that the master, in painting this figure, neglected his outline and entirely redrew the right leg with the brush, making it some inches longer—a very interesting display of his power. We very much doubt if the so-called "study" for the Madonna of St. Lorenzo can be properly so called. It is boldly and rapidly sketched, but every fold of drapery is in the place it occupies in the statue, and even the light is just as it falls upon the group where it is placed in the chapel. We doubt if even Michelangelo ever conceived a work of art so absolutely in its entirety as this. It is likely that the Madonna was far advanced, if not to its present state, when the sketch was made from it. Is it even certain that the drawing is by Michelangelo? A comparison of the reproduction of the drawing and of the plate of the statue, also given in these volumes, is most interesting. We are much puzzled by a sentence on p. 167, vol. i. Speaking of Cellini's statement that "The Battle of Pisa" was superior to the frescoes of the Sistine, Mr. Symonds says: "It seems hardly credible; but if we believe it, the legend of Michelangelo's being unable to color his own designs for the vault of that chapel falls to the ground." Michelangelo certainly did color his own designs for the Sistine Chapel, but we are altogether unable to see how the superiority of an uncolored cartoon over his work in color should prove his ability to do so.

The book is well printed and got up, and provided with all necessary notes, appendices, and other aids, including a good index; and the illustrations are well chosen and well executed. It is only to be regretted that Mr. Poynter's colorless copies of the heads of the Delphic Sibyl and the Prophet Isaiah should have been allowed to take the place of reproductions from the originals.

MORE NOVELS.

The Magic Ink, and Other Tales. By William Black. Harper & Bros.

The Ivory Gate.—Verbena Camellia Stephanotis, and Other Stories. By Walter Besant. Harper & Bros.

The Chatelaine of la Trinité. By Henry B. Fuller. Century Co.

The Story-Teller. Boston: W. F. Clark & Co.

Crow's-Nest and Belhaven Tales. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Century Co.

In Old St. Stephen. By Jeanie Drake. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Fortner's Marital Claims, and Other Stories. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. D. Appleton & Co.

Zachary Phips. By E. L. Bynner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Characteristics. By S. Weir Mitchell. Century Co.

Etelka's Vow. By Dorothy Gerard. D. Appleton & Co.

The Woodman. By Jules de Glouvet (M. Guernay de Beaurepaire). Translated by Mrs. John Simpson (*née* Senior). Harper & Bros.

THERE is perhaps no profession in which a man works harder for the sake of reputation than that of a novelist; there is certainly none in which, having won the bauble, he seems often to work so hard to lose it. He is a strange, unpractical creature, who toils upward to the sun not that he may thrive and bloom in his light, but apparently for the single purpose of rushing down to his own destruction. It is curious and touching to observe the fidelity of the public, notoriously fickle, to an author who has once won its hearty admiration: he may almost reach the bottomless pit before the news that he has started on the downward track is spread abroad and generally believed. Wisdom, indeed, takes her seat betimes "in streets and openings of the gates," but the passing crowd long displays a discouraging indifference to her choicest utterances.

It is now several years since she began to insinuate that Mr. Black was, as a novelist, neither what he had been nor yet what any novelist worthy of the most honorable crowd's distinguished attention should be; but the hour has not yet struck when people who know the 'Princess of Thule' and the 'Daughter of Heth' are eager to accept a dictated judgment of Mr. Black's work. At least we suppose so; otherwise the publication of 'The Magic Ink' is an instance of disinterested regard for an "old contributor" with which publishers are rarely credited. In this neat volume there are three stories, "The Magic Ink," "A Hallowe'en Wraith," and "Nanciebel." If the author's name were unknown, the most favorable notice consistent with the shadow of truth would be but a useless unkindness to obscurity. His adoring young sister would have to close the book with tears and bid him hope no more. Nothing more incompetent in the way of story-telling is easily conceivable. The tales have neither meaning, probability, nor form. In "The Magic Ink" and "A Hallowe'en Wraith" there is a suggestion of the supernatural which, if worked out with care and skill, might have had some sort of value; but prolonged and attenuated, overladen with sentimental gush and swamped in verbiage, the poor suggestion feels its feeble way to inglorious extinction. In providing the name "Nanciebel" and the scene Stratford-on-Avon, Mr. Black may have thought that he excited as much interest as is proper and healthy. For any relevance, the story might as well have been called "Susan" and the scene laid in Tompkinsville. It is dreadful to dwell upon the inanity exhibited in "Nanciebel." Nothing can be more distressing than childish babble from the lips of a man.

The novel 'The Ivory Gate,' and the volume of short stories entitled 'Verbena Camellia Stephanotis,' offer abundant evidence that Mr. Besant is going down among the babblers. His deterioration results from a too highly cultivated benevolence, and a flow of language which does not express thought, whatever it may conceal. The defects of his virtues have taken possession of him; his naturally sympathetic and fluent style has become sentimental and prosy, and he babbles on serenely, dispensing paternal blessings with a wide, optimistic smile. So comfortably, indeed luxuriously benign is his state of mind that he entreats us to turn our backs on the Horn Gate, with its harrowing realities, and to dawdle around the Ivory Gate, revelling in false visions of universal bliss. Any impulse to face facts and the unpleasant aspects of human character necessarily perishes in the presence of perfect amiability; therefore, Mr. Besant has almost abandoned himself to the construction of idols whose feet are not of clay, and to ecstatic dreams of a socialistic paradise arrived at in contempt of reason. So cruel a force as Nature is, of course, a trial to him; so, while placidly ignoring her common ways, he represents her as a sort of juggler, performing tricks which relegate every known variety of magician to everlasting shade. It is easy to say that there exists on earth a human body inhabited alternately by two intelligences, each one unconscious of the thoughts and acts of the other; not so easy to give a convincing, circumstantial account of the phenomenon. Mr. Besant is not in the least convincing. The explanation of the mystery of the 'Ivory Gate' is preposterous, and there is no balm for wounded intelligence in the beautiful spectacle of care and sorrow retiring to their Stygian caves forlorn, and the inauguration of a general love-feast.

In his volume of short stories sentimentality and magic (queer companions!) go far to produce a volume of nonsense. The first story, with the floral title, pushes sentiment to a point where the tears which we are invited to shed turn irresistibly to laughter. The second, "The Doubts of Dives," relieved of its philanthropic motive, might be properly named "The Tale of the Artistic Mendicants," and described as a MS. found in a cellar in Bagdad. The third, "The Demoniac," describes a situation well within the bounds of human experience. Out of its inseparable misery De Maupassant would have made a study which no one could forget. With his smirking and preaching, Mr. Besant has very nearly annihilated the horror he conceived, and, with the horror, the moral lesson. The last story is a continuation of Ibsen's "Doll's House." It sums up the consternation felt by many worthy people lest the somewhat impetuous *Norah's* desertion of her husband should be widely held justifiable, and establish a righteous precedent. To this is added the author's profound personal alarm. If wives and mothers once begin to take an interest in themselves, as creatures possessing mind and spirit, who can measure the imminent calamity for society? What is to become of Mr. Besant's social pleasure-house if the heresy of individualism is to insinuate itself into the foundation? Without presuming to belittle the possibility of the gloomy Norseman's vicious effect on British morals, there doesn't seem any reason for being scared out of one's wits about it. But in "The Doll's House—and After" Mr. Besant has seized time by the forelock and invested himself with the robes of the son of Hilkiah when he went down to cry in the ears of Jerusalem.

When the old faiths begin to fail, one is rarely so jaded as to be unable to turn with expectation to the new. In spite of incoherencies and affectations, Mr. Fuller's 'Chevalier of Pensieri-Vani' had much attraction and promise. The attraction lay in the independent and satirical observation and the clever portrayal of eccentric people; the hope was that the author might grow in taste and cast off his objectionable mannerisms. 'The Chatelaine of la Trinité' is not wholly disappointing. By close attention a train of events may be perceived, and some deference is paid to the ancient and honorable claims of verbs and pronouns. The jealousies and squabbles of archæologists are described with humor and without depressing erudition. The adventures of Miss Aurelia West with the travelling opera company, and the search, in Salzburg, for original MSS. of Mozart's, are uncommonly funny; while the worn, long-suffering Swiss mountains are made to take on an air of virginal beauty. Very happy and admirably carried out is the idea which confers on Aurelia the distinction of novelty in that much used and abused character, the American girl in Europe. The imagination and physical energy which she throws into her reconstruction of the simple Chatelaine are thoroughly national and feminine, and no woman except an American could so magnificently ignore masculine resentment of petticoat government. Yet the three lovers dragged by Aurelia to the Chatelaine's feet did, when tyranny became intolerable, manage to run away. The coolness, not to mention ingenuity, displayed in their escape might be offered to Mr. Besant, gloomily pondering over the old story of Eve and the apple, as evidence that self-reliance still survives among men, and that they may be trusted to hold their own against "emancipated woman."

'The Story Teller' is a collection of twenty-six tales, all of which have been previously printed in *Two Tales*, a weekly magazine. The authors are American, and most of them are familiar to magazine-readers. Eight years ago the Scribners published a series of short stories, and comparison between the two publications is not flattering to the younger set. Generally speaking, the subjects chosen are weaker, the method is no better, and there is a noticeable deterioration in style. The passion of love holds its own, and the exhibition of mortal folly in a proverbially foolish condition is in one or two cases especially eccentric. Miss Wilkins is an authority on New England character, and perhaps in that kingdom of eccentrics the blind god suits himself to his company. We accept "Juliza" under the influence of love as a person possible to New England, but with the reservation that, if there are many like her, the comic or burlesque element in the Puritan States has been sadly neglected. Imagination, when present in these tales, mostly expends itself on the supernatural, the occult, and the fairy-tales of science. The danger of a little knowledge is appallingly exemplified. No pains are taken to produce an illusion, and it is always very clear that the author doesn't know enough about occultism, or hypnotism, or psychic phenomena to impose on the most liberal credulity. Mr. Hawthorne's "Interplanetary Episode" and Mr. Heard's "Experiment with Time" are excepted from this sweeping indictment. The stories presumably taken from life are strong in local color. The mania for actuality in description of locality and reproduction of local phrase may account for the regretted incompetence to represent things that are beyond common human vision. It has much to do with the reduction of our authors to the inartistic level of the actor who has only one rôle, and it is positively fatal to the acquisition of a good style, which adds so much to the worth of him who has something to say and is the salvation of him who has nothing. The literary impression derived from these stories, none of which

absolutely fails to excite a mild interest, is that the authors have not tried to write correctly and fluently, and that elegance is an obsolete ambition.

As a mitigation of the depressing suspicion that we are all hopelessly lost in sloughs of dialect and slang, Mrs. Harrison's volume, 'Crows-Nest,' comes opportunely. The moss-grown Virginian town, better known as Alexandria, has, in tranquil old age, found a graceful chronicler of its stirring youth. Charming is a word that nowadays signifies little; yet charming, and delightful too, are the right words to describe both subjects and workmanship. Figures gentle and courteous, yet with plenty of spirit and fire on occasion, pass before us, each spinning his life thread of mingled joy and sorrow. They pass but do not vanish, for some things that are written remain, and these tales are sealed with the seal of permanency.

The author of 'In Old St. Stephen' makes a conscientious effort to sustain a style consistent with the dignity of a gentleman who was young when fine ruffles and fine manners were the fashion. The effort is sometimes too conspicuous, but is nevertheless praiseworthy. Miss Drake has a tendency to meander aimlessly, as if she were not sure of her point, but hoped to find it. In the course of her wanderings she makes some pretty sketches of old times in Virginia, and manages to give her characters individuality. Tragedy is the natural outcome of the complication; still, the case is one where the death of the villain would have been quite as natural as that of the hero, and more cheerful.

Mr. Johnston, the chronicler of Middle Georgian manners and customs, is apparently inexhaustible. His latest volume, 'Mr. Fortner's Marital Claims,' closely resembles many of its predecessors. The primitive love-making still goes on, and the sectarian hostilities rage. It is needless to comment on the dialect, which remains the basest corruption of English ever seen in print. One story, or rather incident, entitled "An Adventure of Mr. Joel Pozzle," has nothing to do with either love or religion, and the situation is so comical and so well hit off that, for once, the Georgian jargon may be forgiven.

Still another tale of the good old times is 'Zachary Phips.' We hope those times were really good enough to condone the badness of a boy who ran away to sea at he tender age of eight, and to permit him, when barely of age, to become an acceptable attaché of the American Legation in London. Certainly Zachary did far better than if he had been good and stayed at home and pursued humdrum knowledge under the shadow of Master Tilleston's cane. Whatever of national importance was going on from Boston to Florida, he managed to be in it. A most innocent accomplice of treason, he made one of the picturesque Washita expedition planned in the angry heart of Aaron Burr. Barely old enough to blow a whistle, he shared the *Constitution's* naval fame. Again, in the hand-to-hand tussle between the *Chesapeake* and *Shannon*, he was literally right on deck. As a climax of adventure, to him was it given to witness those atrocities in Florida which make Andrew Jackson appear more of an assassin than a soldier. Zachary's career makes a capital book for youthful readers, and is not without serious interest. The author's historical vision, while patriotic, is unprejudiced, and he gives history a dramatic value without distortion of facts. Some touches of characterization are very vivid—for instance, in the passing glimpses of Mrs. Blennerhasset and of Burr. Burr's last appearance in New York, poor and persistently dishonest, apparently unmoved by private neglect and public scorn, yet sorrow-stricken by the death of his grandchild, makes one feel, not how ignoble he was, but how noble he might have been.

Dr. Mitchell's 'Characteristics' is a dangerous experiment for an author who is sensitive, as all authors are, to the imputation of dulness. A book of conversations, connected only by the personality of the talkers, must be superlatively brilliant to escape being, on the whole, rather tiresome. To sustain interest in character illustrated almost entirely through talk, the mental qualities of the persons represented have to be uncommon and perhaps sharply contrasted. Dr. Mitchell has selected four men too much on a level of education, worldly condition, and personal refinement, to permit of very exciting exchange of thought on subjects of supposed general interest. The talk has scope, embracing science, literature, and social topics, and it is sane and even in tone. Perhaps because a man is usually at his best when speaking out of the fulness of knowledge, the doctor who is the narrator is vastly the most entertaining of the group. His short stories of queer cases are particularly welcome interludes. The man of letters, on the other hand, is by all odds the weakest. His manners are modified Johnsonian; if he had only had the great doctor's tongue, the discussions would have gained much in liveliness and point.

'Etelka's Vow' is not by an American author, but its plot turns on an American custom which our writers have overlooked or perhaps deliberately blinked. "An American duel," it is gravely stated, "consists simply of the drawing of lots as to which of the two men shall within a given time and on his word of honor shoot himself." If the duel, as practised in America, has any national peculiarity, we have always supposed that it "consists simply" in the promptness as to which of the two men shall "get the drop" on the other. But no doubt the worshipful company assembled in the *Erzherzog Leopold* knew whereof they spoke, and the author is justified by her authority. Granting the American duel, the complications ensuing are not improbable, and are ingeniously arranged in English not inferior to the short quotation given.

The English-speaking public has not yet been captured by the fiction of the most modern French school. When the popularity of the Scandinavians is waning, then we may look for the rise of the French Idealists. It appears that a Frenchman cannot write or paint without announcing that he belongs to a school and definitely labelling himself. So these gentlemen who deny the supremacy of the *bête humaine*, who steer the middle way between Romanticism and Naturalism, call themselves Idealists. The truth is, that they try to give good and evil each its proper value, that they recognize spirit as distinct from mind, and that they represent human emotion and passion without degrading them. If the reaction against Zola & Co. should even hold its own for a few years, it will do much to relieve the fair fame of France from the shame of a grossly immoral popular literature. 'The Woodman' (*Le Forestier*) is an excellent example of the school. It is a pity that, in the preface, the translator has anticipated the critic's praise. Her sketch of the author positively burns with high appreciation of him, both as M. de Beaurepaire, Procureur-Général of France, and as Jules de Glouvet, Idealist of the Chemins Verts. The only point that has been left for the critic's independent enthusiasm is the beauty and freshness of the descriptions of the forest. That the people who for generations had dwelt on its outskirts loved it with a pagan idolatry can well be believed. Jules de Glouvet makes you feel as if you could go forth at any moment and do battle to the death for every tree. The translator dwells on the love of Renaud, the poacher, and Henriette. The author really makes little of that. What he makes much of, and what every one may reflect on with unstinted admiration, is the steadfast soul of the boy to worst conditions born, and the poetic spirit which, careless of its poor mortal habitation, identified itself with the sweetness of the wild wood's breath and the rapture of the birds' song.

Studies in Modern Music. By W. H. Hadow. Macmillan & Co. 1892. Pp. 335.

It is generally assumed by musical historians that the chill of Puritanism nipped the promising bud of music in England. It is likely, however, that the growth of commercialism and the extraordinary devotion of Englishmen to politics had as much to do in diverting attention from the divine art as the Puritan iconoclasm or raid on organs and other instruments. How much the musical spirit was weakened by all these causes was shown by the amazing length of time during which Handel and Mendelssohn were the sole composers idolized in the British Isles, and by the strict quarantine which the critics maintained against all new-comers. Even as a pianist Liszt was an utter failure in England in 1841, and his manager would have been impoverished had not Liszt, with his usual generosity, repaid him his share of the receipts. Fourteen years later Richard Wagner, the greatest conductor the world has ever seen, was shamefully abused when he condescended to conduct the Philharmonic concerts for a season; he was reviled as a humbug, and the directors joined with the critics in finding fault with everything he did, because it was different from Mendelssohn's way. As Wagner complained in a letter to Liszt: "'Sir, we are not used to this'; that is the echo I hear eternally"

That something of this spirit still lingers in England is shown in a recent volume by H. H. Statham, in which such gems occur as these, that Wagner was "the most remarkable charlatan who has ever appeared in art"; and, regarding his operatic poems, "It would be cruel to judge such trash by any known literary standard." But the vast majority of English writers have got beyond this silly stage. Indeed, nothing is more remarkable than the large number of enlightened, vigorous, and fluent writers on musical topics that modern England possesses. Grove's admirable 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' is evidence in point. The new spirit of enlightenment which the late Dr. Hueffer did so much to foster, is evident in that monumental work. It is conspicuous also in other recent publications, among which is the volume of 'Studies in Modern Music' by Mr. Hadow, devoted to Berlioz, Schumann, and Wagner, with a preliminary essay on "Music and Musical Criticism." By the use of epistolary matter and other recent documents, the writer has succeeded in freshening up the familiar stories of these composers' lives, and his judgments seem to us almost always sound. The volume possesses a literary as well as a musical interest, the author being a man whose mind is stored

with other lore than music, and who is thus able in writing, for example, of Schumann's romanticism, to bring in side-lights from the literary movement in Germany.

Mr. Hadow has the courage to urge that there is no excuse for the "classical example" of the plagiarisms indulged in by Handel (p. 30); nor does he hesitate to bring forward facts (p. 94) which show up Mendelssohn in his narrow sympathies, as a man who had no appreciation for his contemporaries, Chopin, Wagner, Schumann, Liszt; who said of Berlioz, that "he is a perfect caricature without one spark of talent," and who even abused one of Schubert's quartets—the finest quartet ever written—as "poor music." But Mr. Hadow commits quite as great a *bêtise* in the sentence, "Few compositions are perfect unless they have been signed by Beethoven or Brahms." In our opinion there is infinitely more beauty of form in the songs of Schubert or Franz, the short pieces of Chopin and Schumann, the music-dramas of Wagner, the preludes and fugues of Bach, than in the artificial four-story symphonies of Beethoven and the reactionary Brahms, whose present popularity in London, by the way, cannot but be regarded in the light of a fad. But Mr. Hadow atones for this remnant of the old prejudices by the way in which he insists on the modernity of Bach: "He was the most daring harmonist of his century, and it may be said without exaggeration that, among his countrymen at any rate, there is hardly a single 'modern' progression or modulation which cannot be found in his writings." That modern lyric Bach, the immortal song-writer who has just died, Robert Franz, is, however, not mentioned by Mr. Hadow. He has apparently not yet been discovered by the English public; and inasmuch as it is only fifty years since Schumann reviewed his first songs so enthusiastically, more can hardly be expected.

In the chapter on Wagner there are a few minor errors. It is not the third act of "Lohengrin" that forms the transition to the Nibelung style, but the much more advanced second act, which was also composed last. The implication (p. 285) that it was the Emperor of Brazil who gave up the "Tristan" project is erroneous. The statement (p. 292) that the $225,000 needed for the Bayreuth festival of 1876 was collected by Wagner societies and concerts is misleading. Less than half the sum needed was subscribed by the societies; King Ludwig contributed $50,000, and the balance was—a deficit, which Wagner himself paid after the festival. The assertion (p. 294) that there was a profit of $3,500 from the Albert Hall concerts in 1876 does not tally with Dr. Hueffer's revelations in his 'Half a Century of Music in England.' But apart from a few such minor errors, Mr. Hadow's volume is reliable, and may be cordially commended to all lovers of good musical literature. Its value is enhanced by portraits of the composers discussed and of the young women who became the wives of Schumann and Berlioz.

A Companion to the Iliad for English Readers. By Walter Leaf, Litt.D. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

Fragments of the Greek Comic Poets. With Renderings in English Verse. By F. A. Paley, D.D. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

An ingenious divine, who illuminates one of our theological schools, has lately gleaned from Homer and the 'Iliad' an argument against the theory of evolution. The 'Iliad,' he says, is the greatest of poems, and Homer one of the earliest poets. He had, like Melchizedek, no forerunners nor inheritors; he is, indeed, a *lusus naturæ*, or, rather, a special creation. He proves, therefore, how needless it is to assume that slow growth and development are necessary either in the world of mind or of matter. Mr. Andrew Lang, without using the 'Iliad' as a theological weapon, seems, in a recent article, to agree with our divine as to the isolated and marvellous character of Homer. Mr. Lang will have only one poet, and no brothers near his throne; Mr. Leaf, on the other hand, believes in a great poet surrounded by brethren, and unfolds this not unreasonable view, together with other historical and literary questions, in his 'Companion to the Iliad.' The 'Companion' presents the novelty of a commentary, not on the Greek text, but on the well-known translation of the 'Iliad' by Messrs. Leaf, Lang, and Butcher. It is, of course, intended for the general reader who has no acquaintance with Greek. The position of Greek literature is indeed so fundamental in the history of the human mind that people who like to look into the origins of things can hardly dispense with some knowledge of it. To such inquirers the poetry of an original may be barred, while its historic value may be almost perfectly conveyed in a faithful translation. Hence Mr. Leaf's experiment. His commentary on the *Realien* of the 'Iliad' is entirely intelligible to the reader of a translation; and equally so is his discussion of the Homeric question in the elaborate introduction and occasional notes scattered throughout the volume. In fact, his treatment of the question shows how largely it turns on facts and discrepancies that lie within the judgment of any man of sense and culture. The abstruser points of language and dialect or vocabulary are by no means so decisive as certain broad indications that lie open to the general reader.

The bulk of Mr. Leaf's notes is the same as those offered in his larger edition of the 'Iliad,' and exhibits the same features and theories. He starts with Grote's assumption—which is indisputable—that the 'Iliad' has not the unity and continuity of the 'Odyssey'; it is not, like the 'Odyssey,' a literary whole. If we seek for such a whole in the 'Iliad,' we shall find it in a poem on the "Wrath of Achilles," contained in Books i, xi, xvi, and xxii, and embracing the quarrel of Agamemnon with Achilles, the rout of the Greeks, the exploits and death of Patroclus, and the slaying of Hector. Such a poem contains obviously the conception of one mind, flawlessly executed; it is, unlike the 'Iliad,' a unity and a creation. Its interest, moreover, is almost purely human; its machinery is not set in motion from Olympus nor from fairyland, like parts of the 'Odyssey' and of the rest of the 'Iliad.' Around this nucleus were gathered several short poems (such as the "Exploits of Diomed") whose purpose was to glorify the heroes of the great Achaian families. To these, as ornamental pendants, grew such lays as "The Embassy to Achilles," "The Making of the Arms of Achilles," "The Ransoming of the Body of Hector." The composers of the second series, while diminishing the artistic effect of the original poem, still bore in mind its scenery and atmosphere; the composers of the third series—of the Embassy and the "Fight at the Wall"—took liberties with some vital features of the original poem. The details of these divergencies and inconsistencies, of inferiority in conception or style, are pointed out in the notes to the respective books. There is really no denying that the quality of the 'Iliad' varies, that some of the battles are tedious reading, and that, here and there, avenues are opened which lead nowhere. Shelley admits this difference of quality when he praises so highly the 24th book. Whether several hands had the making of the poem, whether several makers could possess Mr. Matthew Arnold's "grand style"—these are questions which Mr. Leaf discusses with good sense, clearness, and plausibility.

Some of the most interesting notes in the volume deal with the discoveries at Mycenæ and the manner in which they illustrate the 'Iliad.' Mr. Leaf finds in them a confirmation of the Achaian origin of the poem. He accepts Mr. Petrie's date of 1150 B.C. for the contents of the shaft-tombs, and he conjectures 1050 B.C. as a probable date for the composition of the poems. Mr. Petrie's dates are still, with good reason, *sub lite;* but there is no reason to doubt that, after sifting and comparison, the relics of Mycenæ will eventually furnish positive dates as landmarks for the Achaian period. These relics offer a perplexing mixture of work which is very crude and work which is artistic and beautiful. They do undoubtedly illuminate certain passages of the 'Iliad'; yet, again, they offer problems which Mr. Leaf passes over rather lightly. The silver fragment, for example, which was recently cleaned and which figures as a frontispiece of the volume, represents a besieged city in a manner that, while reminding us remotely of Assyrian work, is unquestionably and delightfully Greek in the freedom and variety of the poses. Yet the entire nakedness of most of the warriors is a surprise and a perplexity to readers of the 'Iliad.' Again, while an expert like M. Perrot dates the Vapheio cups far back in the pre-Homeric heyday of Achaian civilization, an authority like Dr. Murray prefers to place them as late as the seventh century B.C.

Dr. F. A. Paley's little book is well enough conceived, but not so happily executed. It is a neat volume, intended, the author says, "alike for the schoolroom and the drawing-room"; and no one who can read the Greek will quarrel with the selections, which have in general wit, point, and grace. But the schoolboy will be perplexed by Mr. Paley's paraphrases; and the drawing-room reader will imagine sometimes that the Greek is obscure or has no Attic salt. The chief reason of this is that Mr. Paley's rhymes are butterflies which lead him too far afield. In pursuing them he does not hesitate to make up whole lines or phrases, or to leave out essential words; and this gives a blurred and awkward effect to an original that is full of grace and lucidity. The drawing-room reader must not, therefore, blame Eupolis or Menander for darkness of expression, but must have faith that, with the aid of the Greek as a commentary, Mr. Paley's riddles would be fully elucidated. And yet Mr. Paley is often almost felicitous, as in the following lines, which illustrate his virtues as a translator as well as his weakness under the beguiling influence of rhyme:

> "One course in life there is that's hard to roam,
> Back from a husband's to a father's home;
> And every decent wife should fear to tread it;
> The 'horning heat' wins nothing but discredit."

The Armies of To-day. Harper & Bros. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. 438.

Harper & Bros. have republished in handsome book-form the series of papers on "The Armies of To-day" which recently appeared in their *Monthly*. The papers vary a good

deal in scope and method, but this, perhaps, lends an agreeable variety to the book as a whole. The armies of America, England, Germany, France, Russia, Austria, Italy, and Mexico are separately discussed, with excellent full-page illustrations of uniform and accoutrement in the several arms of each service. The authors, with one exception, are officers of rank in the several armies described, and therefore speak authoritatively. The chapters on the armies of the United States, Germany, Austria, and Italy are business-like analyses of the organization of the troops and of the legal methods by which they are raised and recruited. In an appendix Lieut.-Col. Exner of the German Army adds a clear and very intelligent résumé of the military situation in Europe, which includes a comparison of the forces of the nations with respect to their preparation for war.

The paper of Gen. Viscount Wolseley on the British Army is less formal and more lively than most of the others. He gives an historical sketch of that army's progress and its growth in the qualities which have made the British soldier famous, but does not omit to criticise the happy-go-lucky methods of the Government in all matters of organization and support, in spite of which the army achieved its glory. He deals freely also with the questions of reforms now needed, and the possibility of making the system of voluntary recruiting a satisfactory mode of filling the ranks.

Gen. Lawal enlivens his sketch of the French Army with descriptions of the annual manœuvres, in which he puts us among the spectators and amuses us with the comments of the bourgeoisie and of the peasant on-lookers, as well as with personal traits and little adventures of the soldiers. Through the whole paper the dominant idea is that the German's day of reckoning is coming, and that France is as resolved to reëstablish her former Rhine frontier as she was in the gloomy days which first followed the loss of Alsace. The spirit of the whole paper and its scarcely restrained tone in this respect are perhaps the most significant thing in the book.

The paper on the Russian Army is the most reticent in its discussion of the future and most cautious in its disclosures. It strives more to present an intelligent idea of the Russian soldier than to give us encyclopædic information as to the military system. The Russian Army is necessarily an assemblage of different peoples and tribes, and the most characteristic thing in its organization is the skill with which the qualities of each are turned to account.

The book is so ornamental and so useful that it will prove a very acceptable source of instruction as well as an amusing companion for a leisure hour. The larger cuts are on separate leaves with no printing on the back, and are excellently done. The paper is heavy, the type large and clear, and the presswork of the first order.

Recent Rambles; or, In Touch with Nature. By C. C. Abbott, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1892. 8vo, 330 pp. Illustrated.

IN this volume, compared with his earlier books, Dr. Abbott has given us less of incident and observation and more of introspection. His rambles, while, as before, mainly on the banks of the Delaware or the lowlands of New Jersey, among familiar yet ever interesting by-ways, in this instance have led him also into the western arid region, where it is evident he felt himself a stranger. The numerous brief chapters of which his record is made up are of unequal quality, some seeming really and others but artificially "in touch with nature." One of the best, perhaps, is a "Defense of Idleness"; another which we have found enjoyable celebrates "Persimmons." Here and there are bits which have much of the charm and freshness of this writer's 'Wasteland Wanderings,' yet there are others, and notably the introductory chapter (which we must regard as our author's low-water mark), in which he comes dangerously near forgetting that the treatment of an individual's attitude toward Nature may be as monotonous as Nature herself is infinitely variable.

This volume is presented by the publishers in most attractive style; even the haziness of the "process" illustrations from photographs is less irritating than usual, and one, a vignette of a tree-frog, has even a self-assertion which is charming.

Paraguay: The Land and the People, Natural Wealth and Commercial Capabilities. By E. De Bourgade La Dardye. English edition edited by E. G. Ravenstein. London: George Philip & Son; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

THE translation of this book was worth the making as well on account of its own excellence as of the dearth of competing volumes. It is not an interesting book, except as facts are interesting, and of these it is stuffed full. The personal element nowhere comes to the surface. There are no records of travel or adventure, almost no characterizations of landscape or people; but there is an excellent physical geography of Paraguay, with some important corrections made in the work of predecessors, a fairly full account of the flora and fauna and mineralogical wealth of the country, a condensed description of the Government, the laws relating to property, and the movement of population, and some full and valuable chapters on the agricultural and commercial resources and possibilities of Paraguay. M. de Bourgade's principal contribution to geographical knowledge is a rectification of the Brazilian frontier, and the demonstration, if we may trust him, that the Pilcomayo, owing to its interminable shallows and rapids, can never become, as has long been hoped, a great artery of communication with Bolivia. His English editor might well have cut out his prophecies in regard to Argentine finance, which time has left hanging ludicrously. Three statistical appendices have been added, and an excellent pocket-map is offered at the end as if in lieu of an index. A baker's dozen of plates are brought over from the French edition, but are too pallid to add much to the value of the book.

Fort Pitt and Letters from the Frontier. Pittsburg. 1892.

THIS is apparently a selection from the copies of manuscripts which were collected by or through the interposition of the late W. M. Darlington of Pittsburg, and now issued in print by his family. It seems that the public library of that place possesses a copy, procured for it by M. Margry, of the journal of Céloron, the French officer who, in 1749, followed down the Ohio, planting his inscribed plates in token of taking possession of the valley for France. From this copy the journal is here printed at length, but not for the first time, as the editor mistakenly supposes. It was printed in this way in 1885-86 in the "Catholic Historical Researches." Various letters of Gens. Grant and Forbes, as well as some of Col. Bouquet, relating to the campaign of 1758, and journals, letters, and orderly-books of Capt. Écuyer, the Commander at Fort Pitt in 1763, are also printed from copies made for Mr. Darlington from the Bouquet papers in the British Museum, where they form a part of the Haldimand Collection. It is a satisfaction to have these papers printed at full length, for the manuscript copies from the Bouquet papers made for Mr. Parkman and now in the Cabinet of the Massachusetts Historical Society are not easily accessible to distant students, and the Calendar of them published by the Archives Department at Ottawa raises an appetite without satisfying it. There is another series of letters from the Western posts, 1776-99, which has been gathered from different sources, apparently. They cover papers by Gens. Edward Hand, William Irvine, James O'Hara, Knox, Wayne, with a few from Alexander Hamilton and James Wilkinson. A sketch of Gen. O'Hara and a paper by Mr. Darlington on the erection of the region into Alleghany County in 1785-86, complete the table of contents.

The book is a good contribution to our knowledge of a certain phase of Western history.

The Place of the Story in Early Education, and Other Essays. By Sara E. Wiltse. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1892.

UNLIKE so large a proportion of the current haphazard productions for children, this volume of essays about children, their natures and needs, must command the respect of the older reader who looks through its pages. Homely sincerity and adaptability to the plain wants of a child as explained by modern methods of observation are its characteristic individual merits. Its faults are partly due to the circumstances of its production, and are partly those of its class. It suffers from the inevitable scrappiness and lack of anything like evolution of thought that are consequent upon the collection into a book of detached magazine articles and lectures delivered to a popular audience. Any one who expects to find here the progressive development, stage by stage, of educational methods, that may reasonably be looked for in the bound volume, will have to put up with disappointment. But the desire for more definite teaching that she succeeds in awakening is a proof of the clearness of the author's own convictions, while the hints and suggestions she gives not only are valuable in themselves, but will show the reader the way to more systematic authorities. Some, at least, of these oft-quoted authorities have been fathers. Why, then, do the writers who seek to popularize and distribute their ideas address themselves so exclusively to mothers? The complications likely to arise if one parent walks in the light of Freyer and Perez and *Babyhood*, while the other is still groping in ante-Fröbelian darkness, are worth forestalling, one would think. Perhaps if both parents were impartially addressed, the more or less sentimental appeals to the emotions which are a distasteful ingredient in writings of this class, not excepting the present one, might be altogether left out.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Conquering Heroine. Tait, Sons & Co. 25 cents.
Adams, W. I. L. American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Allen, S. F. Down in Dixie. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Atkinson, Canon. Scenes in Fairyland. Macmillan. $1.25.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. 2 vo's. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $.12.
Bass, M. Florence. Nature Stories for Young Readers. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Blavatsky, Helena P. From the Caves and Jungles of Hindostan. The Path. $2.50.
Bouvet, Marguerite. Prince Tip-Top. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Brémont, Anna, Comtesse de. The World of Music. 3 vols. Brentanos. $3.75.
Burr, Rev. E. F. Aleph the Chaldean; or, The Messiah as seen from Alexandria. W. B. Ketcham. $1.75.
Burt, B. C. A History of Modern Philosophy. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $4.
Campbell, H. J. Text-Book of Elementary Biology. London: Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Church, Rev. A. J. The Story of the Iliad. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Copleston, Rev. R. S. Buddhism Primitive and Present in Magadha and in Ceylon. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Corbin, Caroline F. A Woman's Philosophy of Love. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Days with Sir Roger de Coverley. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dickens, Charles. Christmas Books. Macmillan. $1.
Dick's Festival Reciter. Dick & Fitzgerald. 30 cents.
Dodd, Anna B. In and Out of Three Normandy Inns. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $7.50.
Donaldson, A. L. A Millbrook Romance, and Other Tales. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Ellwanger, G. H. In Gold and Silver. Appletons.
Figure-Skating, Simple and Combined. Macmillan. $2.25.
Florio, John. The Essays of Montaigne. The First Book. London: David Nutt.
French-Sheldon, Mrs. Sultan to Sultan: Adventures among the Masai and Other Tribes of East Africa. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $5.
Galton, Francis. Finger Prints. Macmillan. $2.
Gaskell, Mrs. Cousin Phillis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Harland, Marion. The Story of Mary Washington. $1. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.00.
Jukes-Browne, A. J. The Student's Handbook of Physical Geology. 2d ed., revised. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Kelsey, Prof. F. W. Select Orations and Letters of Cicero. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Kinnear, B. O. Impending Judgments on the Earth. New York: The Author.
Lamb, Charles. Essays of Elia, and Last Essays of Elia. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lanciani, Rodolfo. Pagan and Christian Rome. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Latimer, Elisabeth W. France in the Nineteenth Century, 1830–1890 Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Monroe, Miss Harriet. Valeria, and Other Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Moore, C. L. A Book of Day-Dreams. 2d ed., revised. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Munroe, Kirk. Cab and Caboose; The Story of a Railroad Boy. Putnams. $1.25.
Nuttall, G. H. F. Hygienic Measures in Relation to Infectious Diseases. Putnams. 75 cents.
Payn, James. A Stumble on the Threshold. Appletons.
Pellew, George. Poems. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Perkins, W. R. Eleusis, and Lesser Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Pleasant Surprises for Folks of all Sizes. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Poinsard, Léon. Libre-Échange et Protection. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.
Porter, Rose. Men's Thoughts for Men. Randolph. 50 cents.
Régamey, Félix. Japan in Art and Industry, with a Glance at Japanese Manners and Customs. Putnams. $1.75.
Sargent, J. Y. Grammar of the Dano-Norwegian Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Schaff, Prof. Philip. History of the Christian Church. Vol. VII. Modern Christianity. The Swiss Reformation. Scribners. $4.
Scott, W. Guy Mannering. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sellon, Gertrude. Short Stories about Animals. Illustrated. Cassell. $2.
Slosson, Mrs. Annie T. Aunt Lucy. Randolph. 60 cents.
The Bookworm: An Illustrated Treasury of Old-Time Literature. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Armstrong. $3.
The Magnificat. Illustrated by Frank M. Gregory. Brentanos. $1.
The Mother's Nursery Guide (Babyhood). Vol. VIII. Babyhood Publishing Co.
The Principles of Pattern-Making. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
The School for Scandal. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Weiss, J. J. Sur Goethe: Etudes Critiques de Littérature Allemande. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Wide Awake. Vol. H. H. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.
Willard, Mrs. E. S. Kin-da-shon's Wife: An Alaskan Story. F. H. Revell Co. $1.00.
Winchester, M. E. Adrift in a Great City. Macmillan. $1.50.
Woodberry, Prof. G. E. Complete Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley. Centenary ed. 4 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.
Yeats, W. B. The Countess Kathleen, and Various Legends and Lyrics. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Zahn, Rev. J. A. Sound and Music. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $3.50.
Zangwill, I. Children of the Ghetto. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Zangwill, I. The Old Maid's Club. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.

DECEMBER
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Educational Influence of Arnold of Rugby, Goldwin Smith; Co-Ordination of Studies, Charles de Garmo; English Composition in Colleges, George R. Carpenter; What does the Oxford B.A. Degree Represent? Richard Jones; Catcolics and the Public Schools; The True Significance of "Tolerari Potest," Condé B. Pallen; Memory in Education, George T. W. Patrick; Reconstruction of the French Universities, Gabriel Compayré.
EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.—Herbert Spencer's Chapter on Moral Education, S. S. Laurie.
DISCUSSION.—Is Greek Dead? John McMullen.
REVIEWS.—Williams's History of Modern Education—The Works of Joseph Payne—Roberts's British Universities—Burt's Story of the German Iliad; Baldwin's Six Centuries of English Poetry; Foster and Williams's Selections for Memorizing; Deighton's Johnson's Life of Milton—Greenwood's Studies in English Grammar; Ramsey's English Language and Grammar.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 15, 1892.

The Week.

THE Republicans challenged the verdict of the country upon McKinleyism, and professed their entire readiness to abide by that verdict. The judgment of the tribunal was unmistakable. So overwhelming a defeat has not befallen any party within the lifetime of the present generation. Every doubtful State was lost to the Republicans. Such "sure Republican States" as Illinois and Wisconsin were carried for Cleveland, and Ohio was barely saved for Harrison. Other States which the Republicans had always controlled, like Kansas, for the first time failed the party, and were carried by a union of the opposition. In a number of the largest States the official count shows that the Republican vote in 1892, despite the increase in population, was much smaller than in 1888, although previously the party total had always shown a large increase in each national contest over its predecessor, notably in the following:

	N. Y.	O.	Ind.	Wis.	Cal.
1872..	440,736	281,852	186,147	104,997	54,020
1876..	489,207	330,698	208,011	130,668	79,269
1880..	555,544	375,048	232,164	144,400	80,348
1884..	562,005	400,082	238 403	161,157	102,416
1888..	650,338	416,054	263,361	176,553	124,816
1892..	609,167	402,399	256,681	170,354	117,756

During the closing days of the canvass the Republican managers had declared with the utmost vehemence that the election would decide the political character of the Senate, as well as of the House of Representatives and the President, and that the people ought to realize that a vote for the Democratic ticket meant a vote for the unrestricted control by the Democracy of all branches of the Government. The people accepted the issue. They not only gave Mr. Cleveland a great majority of the electoral vote and chose a House of Representatives which was overwhelmingly Democratic, but they also elected enough Legislatures in opposition to McKinleyism to deprive the Republicans of their present majority in the Senate. No fact was more clearly established within a week after the election than that the Democrats were entitled to the Senate as well as to the House of Representatives and the Presidency.

But although the Republicans expressly asked the people to declare their will so unmistakably that all departments of the Government would be controlled by the victorious party, they are to-day engaged in a desperate attempt to steal more than one seat in the Senate. New York and Wisconsin elected Legislatures which will return Democratic Senators. Montana and Wyoming elected Legislatures which had a majority of members pledged to oppose the choice of a Republican to the Senate. The loss of these four seats would cost the Republicans their control of the body, leaving out of the account Kansas and California. It was therefore essential that Republican Senators should somehow be secured from Wyoming and Montana, and for some days past the Republicans of those States have been engaged in schemes to count out the opposition in the Legislatures and steal the two Senatorships at stake. As they have the Executives on their side, and also seem able to control the courts, they are thus far meeting with success in their plots, and it seems possible that they will in each State organize legislative bodies which will go through the form of choosing Republicans and giving them some sort of a certificate of election. It is too early to form a clear opinion as to the final success of these plots.

Secretary Foster's recommendations of changes of methods and policy in the fiscal affairs of the Government are presented in a deprecating tone, as though it did not make much difference what he says. This may be a true estimate of the gravity of his report; nevertheless he makes some suggestions that are not without interest. He recommends, for example, that section 8 of the McKinley Administrative Act be repealed, "as experience has shown that it is impossible of practical administration." This is the section which requires that all dutiable goods consigned to this country for sale on account of the manufacturer shall be accompanied by a statement of "all the elements of cost as stated in section 11 of this act." Section 11 defines these elements of cost to be "cost of materials and of fabrication, all general expenses covering each and every outlay of whatsoever nature incident to such production, together with the expense of preparing and putting up such merchandise ready for shipment." All these details, too, are to be furnished in triplicate and to bear the attestation of the consular officer of the United States for the district wherein the goods are manufactured. This was one of the sections of the Administrative Bill upon which we made some very plain but ineffectual remarks at the time it was pending; and now comes Mr. Charles Foster, the next friend and supporter of William McKinley, jr., and says that this section of the bill cannot be executed. Of course it cannot. The intention of this section was to prevent the consignment of goods to this country altogether.

Secretary Foster makes several other suggestions by way of amendment of the McKinley Administrative Act. All these suggestions should give way to a total and unconditional repeal of the act, and we will add our belief that it will be repealed as soon as the Republican party loses control of the Senate. The Administrative Act was an act of brutality over and above the McKinley tariff itself. It was an act for the benefit of favored classes and the detriment of consumers. It was set on foot before the election of 1888 as a means of additional "protection" at a time when the protected classes did not dare to call for additional duties. They thought they could get an increase of tariff "on the sly" by putting a duty on coverings, costs, charges, and expenses in foreign countries and ports, and also by putting new difficulties in the way of importation such as those in section 8. When the election of 1888 gave them a majority in both houses and the Executive also, they determined to have the Administrative Bill and a new tariff to boot. They got them, but also got in the next succeeding election the most smashing defeat in the annals of American politics. The Administrative Bill "must go."

Postmaster-General Wanamaker makes many suggestions for improving the mail service in New York city, all of them excellent, but he fails to mention the one change which is absolutely essential to improvement of any kind, namely, the substitution of a competent Postmaster for Mr. Van Cott. It would be worse than useless to put additional facilities in charge of an official who has shown himself incapable of exercising those which are now under his direction. From the moment of Mr. Van Cott's entrance upon office, the service in this city has been growing steadily more defective, until to-day it is in a worse condition than it has been for many years. Nobody places any reliance upon it for sure and prompt delivery. We are overrun with letters of complaint from all quarters of the city and adjacent districts, giving accounts of tardy delivery, of missent letters, and of mail matter of various kinds which has failed to reach its destination at any time. The delays and mistakes are peculiarly exasperating between this city and Brooklyn, for in the latter city as well as here President Harrison's appointee has succeeded in demoralizing what was an excellently managed service when he was put in charge of it. There is no question that New York has for many years suffered from insufficient appropriations for mail service, but Mr. Van Cott has been no more handicapped in that respect than his predecessor was.

Attorney-General Miller's annual report admits that the celebrated Anti-Trust Law of the Republicans has proved abortive. He says that in all cases where it has been tried it has been found that "great care and skill" had been shown by the law-

yers of the Trusts. But did not the President, no later than in his message of December 6, give his old law-partner a handsome tribute for his "fine professional skill"? And does the Attorney-General suppose people will forget how his anti-Trust cases have been thrown contemptuously out of court by the judges, even before the opposing lawyers had anything to say? He thinks that "the investigations made and the evidence accumulated" will be "valuable." About as valuable, we should say, as the hole in the window through which the Irishman's pig escaped, and over which he rejoiced as giving him an accurate measure of the size of the beast.

A fresh exposure of census blundering is made by the *Railroad Gazette*. It attacks the census bulletin giving the railroad mileage of the world as "a careless and incomplete job." The *Gazette* alleges that most of the information regarding foreign railroads was taken from the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* of May–June, 1892, and was brought over most bunglingly. For example, there are some glaring omissions, no less than 4,122 kilometres of railroads in Jamaica and Asia Minor and Egypt and other countries being entirely left out. It was bad enough to take foreign statistics of 1892 to compare with American mileage of 1890, but what value is left in the deductions made when even the statistics used are so incomplete? Moreover, as the *Gazette* shows, even the simple mathematical problem of converting kilometres into miles was too much for the resources of our Census Bureau. No constant factor was used in making the conversion, it being found to vary in thirteen tested cases from .584 to .620—the proper one being .621—and considerable aggregate error resulting. A bright lad, says the *Gazette*, could have made the conversion of the whole table in two hours, and could have done it accurately to the units' place at least. This disgraceful botch is but the latest in Porter's long series of blunders, which he only needs to print to have exposed by specialists.

Oddities are all the time cropping up in Washington. One of these is a resolution of the Senate asking the State Department whether the agreement with Great Britain which restricts the naval force on the great lakes to two small vessels carrying one eighteen-pound cannon each, is still in force, and also whether this agreement had caused the rejection of any bids from shipbuilding firms for the construction of naval vessels. Both questions were answered in the affirmative. The usefulness of this agreement, which was entered into in 1817, is apparent in the fact that both countries have been spared the expense of maintaining any armaments on those waters except the very small force needed to execute their revenue laws. Both have been saved from the dangers of collision, which the existence of a naval force commanded by "Fighting Bob Evans," or other enterprising captains, would always entail. The second half of the resolution of inquiry is probably the really important part of it. If any shipbuilding firm has lost a contract for building naval vessels by reason of its location on the inland waters, there would seem to be only two remedies for that misfortune. One is that the agreement with Great Britain be rescinded so that warships can be put afloat on the lakes; the other is that the firm in question should remove its shipyard to the Atlantic or the Pacific. A third remedy might occur to some minds—that of building a canal from the lakes to the seaboard large enough to float an ironclad.

The daily chronicle of the Brussels Monetary Conference embraces a speech by Mr. E. Benjamin Andrews, President of Brown University, which, with much respect for that gentleman, we must call queer. The idea advanced by him that "there is no surer way to lower the American tariff than for Europe and the United States to agree upon a policy favorable to silver as money," implies some political connection between the tariff-reformers and the free-coinage men. There is no such connection. We will not say that these two groups are antagonistic to each other. They are neither allied nor opposed. They have no more affiliations than Knight Templars have with Theosophists. The New York Reform Club is low-tariff and anti-silver. The Farmers' Alliance, as nearly as we can make out, is low-tariff and pro-silver. The Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia, if its organ speaks truly, is high-tariff and pro-silver. If President Andrews has perceived any connection between the two which warrants him in saying that international bimetallism will hasten the lowering of our tariff, he has made a discovery which nobody else has yet proclaimed. Moreover, the assumption that Europe wants to have our tariff lowered is as yet unproved. Most of the Continental countries are sunk to the eyebrows in protectionism, the governing classes in each being a home-market club, whose theory is that a body of consumers at home delivered over to them safely bound is the best possible thing for trade. These classes are in a constant state of alarm lest the home market shall rise in revolt and cast off its chains. Nothing is more likely to bring about such a rebellion than the example of the United States lowering its tariff. While there are undoubtedly many manufacturers on the Continent who would like to have our tariff reduced, we venture to say that not one vote in the Brussels Conference would be gained for bimetallism by a promise to repeal the whole American tariff.

Equally malapropos is President Andrews's assumption that the world has an interest in keeping up the price of silver. Perhaps that is a thesis which we, as a silver-producing nation, are interested in maintaining. If so, it had best be put forward by Senator Jones rather than by President Andrews. Mr. Jones is a silver-producer, and, as a long-winded talker on the silver question, can distance anybody whosoever in this country. He is especially strong in the doctrine that a high price for silver is an important thing in this world. But really this is one of the most pestiferous misconceptions that ever got into the head of a human being. The world has no more interest in high prices for silver than it has in high prices for potatoes. Intelligent members of the community should just let prices, whether of silver, or of gold, or of pig iron, regulate themselves. In fact, they will regulate themselves, however much they may be tinkered at by private persons or by international conferences.

There has been much public interest in the practical working of the new Corrupt-Practices Act in Massachusetts, as the act is by far the best of the few that have been adopted in this country, and as it had its first trial in a Presidential election. Unlike the New York act, it requires sworn returns by campaign committees as well as by candidates. The committees filed their reports on Thursday. The first revelation they make is of a defect in the law which the politicians have been quick to take advantage of. Full accounting is required for all contributions received inside the State. The name of the contributor must be given in each case, and the uses to which the money is put; but for contributions received from outside the State no such specific accounting is required. The result has been that, in the return of both the Democratic and Republican State Committees, nearly half the total of money received is put down as having been received from the National Committee. Thus of the $59,000 which the Republicans spent, $23,000 came from their National Committee, and of the $53,000 which the Democrats spent, $23,000 came from their National Committee. The obvious inference is that heavy contributors in Massachusetts who did not wish to have their names made public with the amount of their contributions, sent those contributions to the National Committee and had them sent through that source to the State Committee. With the exception of this defect, which is not an easy one to remedy, the law seems to have worked very well. It has certainly procured an amount of publicity as to campaign expenditures greater than has ever before been attained in any State. The itemized account of the Republican Committee fills over two columns of the Boston *Herald*, giving in each instance the source of every contribution and the specific use to which it was put.

The failure of Jay Gould to bequeath anything to churches or charities has probably saved some religious bodies from considerable embarrassment. It was confidently expected that his own church at least, and probably his own pastor, would receive handsome legacies, in which case both the church and the pastor would have been put to their trumps in composing excuses for accepting them. Charitable associations, had he made himself the benefactor of any such organizations, would have had less difficulty in pocketing whatever they got, for the bestowal of ill-gotten gains on the poor or helpless has always been looked upon as a proper form of restitution, when the lawful owners are not forthcoming. A religious organization composed of well-to-do people can put in no such excuse. Such a body would have been bound, in the Christian forum, to spend their own last cent on the church before touching Jay Gould's money. But Jay Gould has spared all the casuists a lot of trouble by keeping the little he had for his family. The silence that has settled down on his apologists since the will was published, gives a touch of comedy to the close of his career. They all thought he would furnish by his bequests some sort of answer to his enemies and detractors, but his testament shows, perhaps better than any act of his life, not so much his indifference to popular condemnation on moral grounds, as his unconsciousness of it. We have little doubt that he ascribed the raving of the moralists over him in his lifetime mainly to their having "got left" in the race for wealth. And then we must bear in mind the frightful amount of human baseness with which a successful speculator and millionaire comes in contact in a community in which money is held in such high esteem as in ours. If he had put on paper his experience of men, he would probably have furnished something in the nature of an excuse for ignoring all the local religious and philanthropic activities. Signs of the ease with which he might have justified himself, if he chose, were to be found in the eulogies passed on him after his death for not being "a hypocrite"—that is, for making no pretence of religion or morality. His one bit of weakness in this direction was the present of $10,000 to the Church Extension Society. But the way this was received by the public probably disgusted him with himself, and closed his career as a disseminator of Gospel truth.

There is a very interesting discussion among the clergy as to the efficacy of prayer, which has been precipitated by Evangelist Moody's claim that his prayers saved the steamship *Spree* from sinking. The most striking feature of it is the fact that evangelical ministers are saying precisely what the secular press would be inclined to say if it had commented upon the incident. Undoubtedly what strikes the average man most forcibly, when any such claim is advanced, is the appalling egotism of the man who assumes that he is of so much consequence that shipwreck was prevented by his prayers, while thousands of other vessels went down despite the most earnest prayers of their less important passengers. The clergy themselves are coming to perceive and admit the absurdity of such a position. The Rev. Dr. A. A. Miner of Boston puts the case very neatly when he says:

"It is magnificent assumption on Mr. Moody's part to think he has the power of directing just what the Almighty should do, and that is what his statement amounts to. Prayer had much less to do with saving the *Spree* than the work of the Captain and crew."

Even more impressive are the remarks of the Rev. Dr. Ensign McChesney, a Methodist minister of this city, who was himself a fellow-passenger of Moody's. While expressing his belief in the wisdom of prayer, he dissents entirely from Mr. Moody's position, and says:

"We certainly owed our safety to God. But are we sure that if there had been no prayer-meeting on the sinking *Spree*, the vessel would have sunk? Do we know enough of God's purpose to say that? Have we any information on that point? How about other ships that have been disabled, with no prayer-meeting on board, and yet did not sink? I find no warrant for saying that prayer saved the ship."

The only surprising thing about the conviction of Prof. Smith of Cincinnati for heresy is the size of the vote in his favor—26 to 32 on the closest ballot, and 20 to 36 on the most vital charge. This result will not bring great cheer to the prosecutors of Prof. Briggs. The prosecution in the two cases turns on substantially the same charges and evidence, and it was thought that the Cincinnati Presbytery would lead the way in an overwhelming condemnation of the obnoxious views. The New York Presbytery has always been under violent suspicion of doctrinal laxness, and if the majority was so narrow in orthodox Cincinnati, it might fairly be inferred that there would be no majority at all in New York. But in neither case is it likely that the decision of the lower court will be accepted as final, whatever it be, and "the higher criticism" seems certain to get a frequent airing before Presbyterian tribunals for a year or two yet.

The Briggs prosecutors decline to discuss the question of the truth of his views. His opinions about the reason, they say, may be perfectly sound, and so may be his contention that there are errors in the Bible, and that Moses did not write the Pentateuch or Isaiah all of the book that goes under his name. All they affirm is that these views, whether true or not, are not Presbyterian, and so that one holding them must be put out of that denomination. No one can deny that this is a valid argument. It is precisely on such reasoning that Prof. Briggs will be convicted, if he is convicted. But if such an argument is fatal to him, it will be fatal also, in the long run, to the church that uses it. The prosecution disclaims all intolerance: "We do not ask that men should be restricted as to their methods of research." But they do ask that Presbyterians should be so restricted. Thus their professed tolerance is like the religious liberty granted by the French monarch who said that all his subjects should be free to choose their religion, but that nobody must choose one different from the King's. "This is not a question between scholarship and ignorance," say the prosecution No matter if all the scholars in the world say there are errors in the Bible, the standards of the Church say there are not, and that settles it. No doubt it does in ecclesiastical law, but is the Presbyterian Church prepared to say that if the facts are against it, so much the worse for the facts? Is it going on endowing scholarships to send theological students to Germany, only to cut off their heads when they return? The course of the prosecution will lend support to those who think that the Briggs trial is the Nemesis of the Presbyterian Church, overtaking it in the shape of a logical result of its historic demand for an educated ministry.

Never has the hapless lot of the publisher been set forth more pathetically than by Mr. Heinemann in the last number of the *Athenæum*. He is at present suffering from a most extraordinary combination of hardships and adverse circumstances. First, there is the "manufacture clause" in the American Copyright Act, of which the best that can be said is that it has not harmed the English publisher so much as was feared. Then there are the printers' unions, which have caused wages to be "increased steadily for years past," and in addition the fact that "the public are more fastidious now with regard to print" and are protesting against "the horrible stuff that they used to buy under the good-natured generalization of 'books.'" On top of all has come the authors' union in the shape of Mr. Besant's Author's Society, further to oppress and outrage the publisher. Shocking demands for increased royalties, sometimes reaching as high as 25 per cent., are now frequently made in the Society's name, and all this, combined with the rapacity of booksellers, who insist upon 50 per cent. reduction on list prices, has brought the publishing business to a point where it must "grapple with the danger before it is too late." Mr. Heinemann's remedy is a publishers' union to resist the aggressions of the powerful author. He calls it, to be sure, "a brotherly band," but beneath this velvet name appears the cold iron of a real union, with hard-and-fast rules, secret passwords, walking delegates, and all. Such an organization could doubtless compel the overbearing author to disgorge a part of his swollen gains, and aid the distressed publisher to resume the custom of three meals a day.

A USEFUL REMINDER.

THERE was no more striking or characteristic passage in Mr. Cleveland's Reform Club speech than the following: "We should strive to rid ourselves and our countrymen of the idea that there is anything shabby or disgraceful in economy, whether in public or private life." There is in that sentence the whole of Mr. Cleveland's political creed, and there is to be found in it also the secret of his remarkable popularity. He represents to the plain people of the country the homely virtues of simplicity and economy. Those perplexed spectators of his career who cannot understand his hold upon the American people will find in this attribute of his character full and sufficient explanation of what is to them a mystery. Speaking directly to the people, with the accent of profound conviction, and with the full weight of his personal sincerity and honesty in every phrase, he promises them to do his utmost to bring the conduct of their Government back to that simplicity and economy of its founders which has always been the object of their reverence. In his mouth "Jeffersonian simplicity" is something more than a catchword—it is a pledge and a public creed.

Nothing more clearly marks the moral decadence of the Republican party than the growing inability of its leaders to comprehend the character of the American people. One would have supposed from the acts and utterances of these leaders during the past few years that we were a nation of money-worshippers. Those who possessed not wealth were assumed to be given over to the worship of those who did possess it. The President of the United States openly scoffed at cheapness as something abhorrent and disgraceful. "I cannot," he said, "find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats." The Republican party's latter-day idol and oracle, Mr. McKinley, went even further than this, and declared that "cheap and nasty go together," that the "whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty," that "cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men means a cheap country," that "that is not the kind of country our fathers builded," and "furthermore it is not the kind the sons mean to maintain." Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, the latter-day Republican scholar in politics, declared that the "cry for cheapness is un-American"; the organ of the Republican Protective Tariff League declared that cheapness was a "curse," and Mr. Henry Carey Baird denounced it as the "fetish of the Englishmen," and implored the party to "let us have done with this cheapness and its advocacy."

Acting in obedience to these high authorities, the Republican Congress literally voted to abolish cheapness. They took a great surplus in the Treasury and scattered it to the winds by favoring extravagance and jobbery of every kind. When they were accused of extravagance and were called the "Billion-Dollar Congress," the response from their leaders and from the press of their party was: "Well, what of that? This is a billion-dollar country. We can afford it. We do not need to be economical." Money was flaunted everywhere as the badge of honor. It was made the passport to political distinction. It was accepted as the price of Cabinet offices, of foreign missions, of legislation. The Republic of Franklin was represented at foreign courts as the republic of rich men who could surpass the titled aristocracy of European capitals in the magnificence and luxury of their living. It was assumed that the people of the country liked this display, that they were so enamoured of wealth that they would rejoice to put rich men in charge of their Government, and would abhor cheapness and economy both in public and in private life.

Surely, after all this, the time had come for some one to advocate a return to the simplicity of the fathers. That there should have been in any one's mind a doubt as to the popular answer to such an appeal simply shows how the glitter of wealth had dazzled many eyes. We are a nation of plain people. The overwhelming majority of our citizens find life a constant struggle with poverty. Frugality, economy, and unceasing labor are their daily companions. If we had really become a nation of money-worshippers, a people who were so dazzled by the spectacle of great wealth that we were willing to put men in high office simply because they were rich men, then our character as a people had undergone the most remarkable and the most deplorable transformation witnessed in any land since the closing days of the Roman Republic. But we had not changed. The assumption that we had was at once the most preposterous and the most fatuous any great political party had ever made. The inexplicable part of it was that men who had themselves been comparatively poor men, like President Harrison, should have so mistaken the character of the American people as to suppose for a moment that they could have been so transformed.

Mr. Cleveland, appealing straight to the people, in the plain language which the people recognize as their own, has been heard with joy in every corner of the land. That is the secret of his great popularity. More than any man since Lincoln, he has understood the American people, because he represents in himself the homely virtues which they most highly revere. He appeals to those principles in American character which have made the greatness of the American Republic in the past, and which alone are capable of insuring for it an honorable and lasting future.

STATE AND FEDERAL TAXATION.

IT will be wise for public men who are to deal with the pressing questions connected with national taxation to take into account the great change in popular sentiment bearing upon that subject. The change may be briefly described as one from a state of general ignorance and indifference in regard to Federal taxes, to a state of great uneasiness and sensitiveness about them, which promises to develop into a jealous scrutiny of all burdens imposed upon the taxpayer by the national Government. Such a scrutiny has long been given to taxes laid in the name of the State or municipality, but it is one of the anomalies of our system that the same people who have hurled State governments from power for a slight increase in the tax bills, have seen national expenditures doubled and quadrupled without a protest.

The explanation is to be found, of course, in the fact that national taxation is indirect. It does not bring a definite and personal tax bill to the door of every citizen, with distinct items set down to several accounts. In the language of an orator of the Long Parliament, the general Government "sups in our cup and dips in our dish," but does it so silently, and in a manner so unperceived by the average man, that opportunity has been given the national taxing power for abuses which would not be tolerated for a day if they were clearly understood. Hence has arisen the possibility of such astounding defences of squandering the public resources as have been made by Senator Evarts and others, who have said that certain extravagances and impositions in taxation could not be so very grievous to the people, since they would not amount to more than three cents a day per capita. It is safe to say that no unnecessary State tax of three cents a day, or a month, per capita could be laid without exciting popular indignation against the legislators enacting it.

For ease and certainty of collection, nothing could be more admirable than the system of indirect taxation by which our Government is supported; but for cultivating a spirit of responsibility to constituents on the part of legislators, and, on the part of taxpayers, a close watchfulness over public expenditures, nothing could be more inadequate. This came clearly to view when the committing of impost duties to the general Government was first proposed. One of Hamilton's earliest financial papers is the report which he laid before Congress December 16, 1782, in reply to the refusal of Rhode Island to assent to a national duty on imports. One of the objections which he had to answer was: "That by granting to Congress a power to collect moneys from the commerce of these States, . . . and for the expenditure of which they are not to be accountable to the States, they would become independent of their constituents; and so the proposed impost is repugnant to the liberty of the United States."

Hamilton had to admit that "the principle of this objection is true," and could only argue that it had no proper applica-

tion to the facts in the case. Certainly the history of Federal taxation for the past twenty-five years shows how true the principle is, and how easy it is for Congressmen to become "independent of their constituents." Only some peculiarly flagrant abuse, like the salary-grab of twenty years ago, or the defiant extravagance of Speaker Reed's Congress, has been able to rouse the people to insist upon that "rotation of the members of Congress" in which Hamilton saw the "security intended to the general liberty," and the "constant and effectual check" upon wasteful public expenditure. It is perhaps worth adding, in view of the doctrine of some of our latter-day statesmen who swear by the name of Hamilton, that, in the same report, he met the objection that a duty on imports would bear more heavily upon commercial States than others, by laying down the "general principle" that "every duty on imports is incorporated with the price of the commodity and ultimately paid by the consumer, with a profit on the duty itself as a compensation to the merchant for the advance of his money."

The exceptional conditions which have marked the conduct of our national finance for the past score of years will not much longer prevail. The happy-go-lucky management of the Treasury cannot be continued for any great length of time. When this fact has penetrated the mind of Secretary Charles Foster, as it now has, to judge by his annual report, it may safely be set down as one of those things that are clear "to the dullest intelligence." Nor can Congress hereafter go on letting one committee raise a revenue and a lot of others spend it, with a delightful disregard of the fact whether income and outgo will come anywhere near balancing. Something like the budget known to the finance of all civilized countries but our own, with a fixed and detailed scheme of taxation, and a fixed and detailed scheme of expenditures, must be gently but firmly introduced to our Congressmen. In fact, the era of overflowing revenues which almost take care of themselves has closed, and a new period in the discussion and imposition of national taxes has opened.

We think it certain that the people will insist upon carrying into national finance the practice of the principles which they apply in State finance. They have learned that a Federal tax is just as real a burden as a State tax, and they will more and more demand that the former should be laid with as much care, and expended with as much economy, as the latter. There is now a field for great financiers in our public life such as it has not afforded for a generation. Questions relating to our currency, indeed, have been much debated, and have brought out a high order of talent, as well as an extraordinary amount of quackery; but a thorough student and expounder of the principles of national taxation has not been seen in office in this country for many a day. The time is now ripe for him. All the signs point to a thorough overhauling of our whole system of Federal taxes, and public men should hasten to equip themselves for the work. A fundamental part of such equipment is, as we said at the beginning, a thorough realization of the great change of popular sentiment regarding the entire subject.

RAILWAY POOLING.

THE Inter-State Commerce Commission has forwarded to commercial bodies and prominent men throughout the country a circular letter asking for opinions "whether it is practicable, and if so, advisable, to amend the fifth section of the act to regulate commerce so as to legalize contracts between competing roads"—that is, to legalize railway pooling. These opinions are asked thus generally so as to enable the Commission to form a judgment on the advisability of reporting to Congress that pooling contracts should be made enforceable through the courts. It is deemed by all hopeless to expect the passage of any law making pooling contracts binding on the companies concerned, unless the terms of such contracts, including the rates to be charged, should first receive the approval of the Commission. Granger sentiment would not permit such apparently arbitrary power to be given to the railways without some check. Generally, therefore, the two proposals of legalization and a veto power go together.

Every one conversant with the railway situation must admit that, as matters now are, the railroads need protection more than the general public. By that is meant that transportation charges are now so low that the dividends, and even the fixed charges, of some companies, might be in some danger in a bad-crop year, and at least that the earnings of the ordinary year might not be sufficient to pay for such care of the property and equipment as would insure safety and at the same time allow of those continued improvements demanded by modern progress. Worse still, it is conceded that these low average charges are brought about, not through general and open reductions, but because of abnormally cheap rates granted to the favored few who control large shipments—a principle which, if carried out on all our transportation lines, would end in the creation of a commercial oligarchy. From every point of view, therefore, we are bound to approve of any legitimate means whereby our railways can earn a fair revenue through reasonable tariffs charged on the same basis to all citizens. Pooling has the great merit of striking at the root of the present evil by taking from the weaker roads the motive for rate-cutting, since they thus become entitled to their share of the traffic without resorting to underhand methods of securing it. Pooling is not a panacea for all our transportation ills, but is merely a device to help in keeping those ills within harmless limits, so far as possible.

Under existing conditions, then, legalized pooling would do little harm. The commerce of the country is now moved from producer to distant consumer at only a small margin of profit. If the freight rates were materially advanced, the volume of traffic, no longer profitable to the shipper, would be correspondingly reduced, to the injury of carrier and shipper alike. In short, exorbitant charges on the part of the railways are not commercially possible. As before remarked, if any adjustment is necessary, the cut rates should be raised to the general level. But the proposition to give the Inter-State Commissioners the right to forbid pooling among any group of railways unless the freight rates were approved by them, might before many years result in putting the control of our railway charges into the hands of the Federal authorities.

To such a result there would be very grave objection. Let us suppose such a law to be now in force, and the roads between Chicago and New York city to apply for the pooling permission. The Western farmers, finding wheat yielding them less than 50 cents a bushel, might object to the present trunk-line rate of 15 cents per bushel and demand a rate of 9 cents. If the Commission happened to agree to this demand, a low charge would be forced upon the companies as an alternative to the continuing of the present state of affairs Of course the Commissioners would be conscientious in their judgments as to the rates demanded; but should such power be given to any set of men? Is it not true that railway charges cannot be determined theoretically, any more than the proper volume of currency, or than the price of meat? And must we not rely for fair transportation tariffs upon the workings of commercial forces, if we would have the community fare the best in the long run? And if, under the rate-fixing of the Commission, a railway should have to omit dividends or bond interest, would not the Government become responsible? We must assume that the Commissioners' power would be exercised; otherwise either their oversight would be merely nominal or else from the beginning unnecessary. Against these suggestions it may be argued that, theories aside, a law permitting pooling under the Commission would no doubt work well in practice; and, if proved otherwise, the statute could be repealed. Nevertheless such a law, giving the control of transportation charges indirectly into Federal hands, would be contrary to all our precedents and dangerous in its tendency.

Whence, then, can the needed relief come? A practical proposal would be simply to strike the prohibitory section from the law, leaving the legal status of pooling the same as before 1887. Agreements between railways could then be freely made, though not legally enforceable. Though this plan would not give the railways all

the relief to which they think themselves now entitled, yet it would have some merits. It would enforce pooling to the extent to which the terms and rates might find unanimous consent; it would allow a combination among carriers just so far as combinations in other trades are permissible, putting all businesses in that respect upon an equality, which would be an important consideration; it would allow of enough competition, direct and indirect, in rates or in facilities, to forbid the argument that the commerce of the country had been given over to the railways. The decision of Judge Riner a week ago in Topeka, sustaining railway associations as not contrary to the Anti-Trust Law, has many quotable opinions on the general subject: "While it is true that the public are entitled to adequate facilities and to just and reasonable rates at the hands of these corporations, they are entitled to just that and no more." "The public are not entitled to free and unrestricted competition, but to fair and healthy competition, and I see nothing in this contract which necessarily tends to interfere with that right." The repeal of the section of the law prohibiting railway pooling, but without adding a section legalizing such contracts, would to that extent relieve the present situation, with the further advantage of presenting the subject to the farmer's mind in a way to overcome prejudices which would surely be excited by any bill allowing carriers to enforce seemingly high rates against each other through the courts.

ENGLISH ELECTION CONTESTS.

THE thoroughgoing character of the English Corrupt-Practices Act has been demonstrated in a striking manner by some contests over seats which followed the last Parliamentary election. These contests are decided by the courts, and are conducted like ordinary judicial trials, with counsel on both sides. There seem to have been an unusually large number of them this year, due to the idea possessed by many candidates that a strict observance of the law was not likely to be insisted upon. The result in three of the cases is not calculated to encourage future candidates to make this mistake, for the provisions of the law were enforced by the judges with a rigor which will have a very wholesome influence for many years to come. Students of corrupt-practice legislation for America cannot do better than to consider carefully both these trials and the nature of the law under which they were conducted, for the results show that the prime requisite of all such legislation is minuteness of detail—that is, specific and unmistakable provision for every form of corrupt or undue influence in elections.

The first case which resulted in the unseating of a candidate was that of one Frank James, a Conservative, who had been returned as elected for the town of Walsall. The charges upon which the petition against his election had been based were gross bribery, treating, and general corruption. A great mass of evidence was taken, and while it was shown that a great deal of "treating" had taken place, it was not proved to have been done by the candidate or his agent. The charges of bribery and general corruption were also not sustained. Among the expenditures set down in the sworn statement required by the law was a charge for 6,000 hat badges, or cards, upon which there was a portrait of the candidate, with the words "Vote for James," "We're Bound to Win." Expenditure by a candidate for this purpose is specifically forbidden by the law, which provides in its sixteenth section that "no payment or contract for payment shall, for the purpose of promoting or procuring the election of a candidate at any election, be made on account of bands of music, torches, flags, banners, cockades, ribbons, or other marks of distinction." The offence is declared an "illegal payment," and the penalty, when the guilty person is the candidate, is loss of his seat, and disqualification as a Parliamentary candidate before the same constituency for seven years; and, when his agent is the guilty person, loss of his seat and disqualification during the existing Parliament. The candidate's agent in this case was his son, who pleaded in extenuation of the card expenditure that he did not know that such use was forbidden by the law. The two judges who were conducting the trial decided that such an excuse could not be accepted, holding that "if it was once allowed that a breach of the law, in the sense that there was misconception of the law, was to be treated as inadvertence, the Court did not know where it could fix the limit." They decided, therefore, that the candidate was guilty through his agent, and had therefore lost his seat and was disqualified from being a candidate again for the existing Parliament.

At first glance this looks like a very strict interpretation of the law, and the unseating and disqualification of a candidate for such an apparently trivial offence seems extreme treatment; but this is not the case. Before the law was framed there were enormous abuses in English elections disguised under expenditures for precisely the purposes forbidden in the section which we have quoted. It was necessary to forbid all these in order to keep expenditures within legal limits and to prevent illegal expenses from being disguised under alleged outlays for cards, badges, bands, etc. As the London *Times* says, the "excessive scrupulosity of the law may be justified on grounds of public expediency," and since "one of the main objects of the statute was to keep all election expenses within narrow limits, if there were no prohibition, a great deal of money might be spent on bands, badges, etc."

The decision in the case of the second candidate unseated was on somewhat less technical grounds. Mr. Nathaniel G. Clayton was returned as elected from the Hexam Division of Northumberland by a majority of 82 votes. The petition for unseating him was based upon charges that he had influenced the voters by treating them to numerous picnics, excursions, teas, etc., which had been organized by one Mr. Baty, acting through the local Conservative Association. It was shown by the evidence that Mr. Clayton had paid bills amounting to £326, which Mr. Baty told him the Association had incurred. Mr. Clayton testified that he had paid them without asking what they were for, that at the time of some of the various "treats" he had no thought of being a candidate, and that the payment was made before he was a candidate and before he had engaged Mr. Baty as his election agent. It was shown also that the "treats" were not entirely free, reduced prices being asked for drink, food, and railway fares, and that it was only to pay up the deficiency that the £326 was necessary. Mr. Baty testified that he engineered the treats and paid the bills for the Association and not for Mr. Clayton. Yet the two judges forming the court held that Mr. Clayton constituted Mr. Baty his agent by the act of paying the bills without examining them; that he added to the offence by making similar illegal payments after he had thus recognized him as his agent, and that both the candidate and his agent were guilty of corrupt practices. The penalty for Mr. Clayton was loss of his seat and disqualification as a candidate before the same constituency for seven years, and for his agent a fine of one hundred pounds and five years' disfranchisement.

The third case turned entirely upon the question of religious or spiritual intimidation of voters. Mr. Patrick Fullam had been returned elected as an anti Parnellite candidate in South Meath, Ireland, by a majority of 83 votes. The petition to unseat him was based upon charges that the Catholic Church had used its full spiritual authority to aid in his election. The evidence was overwhelming in support of the charge. It was shown that the priests had gone to extraordinary lengths in Mr. Fullam's behalf—refusing the last sacrament to a dying Parnellite woman whose husband would not vote for Fullam; preaching that opposition to Parnell and Parnellites was opposition to sin, and that a vote for Fullam was a vote for holy religion; that no man who voted for the Parnellite candidate could "get eternal salvation"; that Parnell was the "devil of impurity," and that it was the duty of all good Catholics to support Fullam. The priests exhorted for Fullam openly at mass, and it was charged that they had used the confessional for similar purposes; a charge which they declined to affirm or deny. In a sermon which he had preached, the Bishop of the diocese, Dr. Nulty, declared that nobody

could remain both a Parnellite and a Catholic. In deciding against Fullam, the two judges, one of whom is a Catholic, said that the idea at the bottom of the Bishop's appeal was that "Parnellism was a sin, and on a vote against Parnellism depended the voter's salvation," adding: "The whole organization of the Church was thrown into the contest. Every priest was a canvasser. They canvassed everywhere, at the altar, at the houses, on the roads."

The law provides, in section 2, that any candidate whose election shall be influenced by a threat to inflict temporal or spiritual injury against any voter shall be guilty of undue influence, for which the penalty is loss of seat and disqualification as a candidate for seven years. It would be difficult to find a more flagrant violation of this provision than was afforded in South Meath by the entire Catholic priesthood, acting with the knowledge and consent of Mr. Fullam.

The moral which Americans who are studying the question of corrupt-practice legislation should draw from these cases is, that a law to be effective must be minute and, on that account, voluminous. There has been a pernicious notion at work in all American legislation of the kind that a law to be effective must be short. A long law is denounced as "cumbersome" and "complex"—charges which were made against the ballot-reform laws when they were first broached. What makes the strength of the English Corrupt-Practices Act is its length, and we must imitate that characteristic of it if we wish to secure as thorough a reform here as has been accomplished there. We must have "excessive scrupulosity" in the provisions of the law, or we shall not abolish the corruption at which it is aimed.

THE AUTUMN'S ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, November 28, 1892.

THE opening of the New English Art Club Exhibition—once in the autumn and once in the spring—is now always the signal for the more serious consideration of the present condition and the future prospects of British art. The Academy has long ceased to prove anything except the mediocrity, or worse, of the average Academician and the prevalence of the amateur in Great Britain. The old Grosvenor has closed its doors. The New Gallery is not even true to the neo-Gothic School, who were its first supporters. Of the Institute, of the British Artists (since Whistler's reign), there is nothing to be said except that they persevere bravely in the path of commonplace. It is to the New English Art Club one must turn for whatever vitality and originality still remain among British painters.

This being the case, the Club's latest exhibition just opened is a disappointment. It is not only that the members seem unable to maintain their once high standard, but the few who have always ruled the fortunes of the association begin to reveal a narrowness and a prejudice not unworthy of Burlington House. First they disposed of the Scotch contingent, really the strongest element in the Club; and but one or two of the Glasgow men are to-day counted among the exhibitors. The rule of the Club to reject all but really good work, no matter by whom sent, is excellent in theory, but in practice it has been far less commendable. Artists of genuine ability have found their canvases fired, while the pictures of the little inner circle, good, bad or indifferent, seldom fail to secure the best places on the walls. As a consequence, one man after another has gradually deserted, until this year the exhibition is monopolized chiefly by a small group of so-called London Impressionists and certain others from whose rivalry they probably think they have less to fear.

Unfortunately, it is these very so-called Impressionists who have made the least advance in their art. From the very beginning it was not originality that distinguished them, but rather the desire, here in conservative Great Britain, to break away from Academical traditions by the study of such innovators as Whistler and Degas, Monet and Manet. As yet they have not succeeded in striking a distinct note of their own; on the contrary, they have exaggerated the methods or mannerisms of their masters, until they have now reached the point where their undoubted cleverness threatens to degenerate into caricature or banality.

Another disappointment is the quality of the contributions sent by Mr. Sargent, who has been a member of the Club since the start. Careless of its fame and his own reputation, he exhibits three canvases of mediocre interest and no great technical merit. It is not easy to forget his "Javanese Dancer," which hung in this same exhibition a year ago, and the memory of it makes it all the more difficult to forgive him for showing portraits which the average exhibitor at the Champs-Élysées Salon could have painted as well. The best work in the Gallery comes not from England, but from France: it is a little pastel of a music-hall by Degas, a reproach to the large majority of the contributors who have accepted him as prophet. There are also water-colors by Mr. Brabazon, an artist but too little known, which are masterpieces, not only of impressionism, but of technique; there is no man to-day who understands his medium more perfectly. Another painter, not content to deteriorate into a mere imitator, is Mr. Arthur Tomson, who draws and paints cats with a freshness of observation and feeling for their subtler qualities which not the "Cat-Raphael" himself has equalled. And a small study of a cloud, delightful in modelling and color, will make one watch with interest the career of Mr. Furze, who hitherto has been notable, if at all, simply for his faint echoing in paint of Whistler. This is all that can be said in praise of the latest showing of the New English Art Club.

It is discouraging at this juncture, when the most promising of the younger men appear to have exhausted their resources, to find that the number of poor models given to the great artless public is to be increased by a permanent gallery of bad pictures, relieved by an occasional canvas of genuine excellence. Undaunted by the official and critical rebuff of last year (about which I wrote at the time to the *Nation*), Mr. Tate, a sugar-refiner, has offered to the new Government the gift of his collection of paintings for the nation. Since the Tory Chancellor of the Exchequer declined the present with thanks, the general quality of the collection has not increased in artistic value. But this is a small consideration. Liberals cannot be expected to be of the same mind as Conservatives even in matters of art; the protest against the acceptance of the gift, so loud and vehement last winter, has not been renewed, save in one or two papers—a fact which would be inexplicable were it not that the loudest protests of all came from the Liberal and Radical press; and then, just now, the unemployed are being heard from on every side; and what better chance for the new Government to make itself popular than to say it will provide them with work by pulling down old Millbank prison and allowing Mr. Tate to build—and to pay for—his gallery on the site thus left free? Art has but little chance against politics, and the poor nation, already burdened with Sheepsbanks and other collections of horrors, is soon to become the proud possessor of the Tate pictures. Among them are a few that ought now, or at some future day, to hang in the National Gallery. Mr. Tate owns one or two fine Constables and Cromes; I believe it is only within the last months that he has bought that wonderful "Ophelia," painted by Sir John Millais in the early period when he was still an artist and not a Royal Academician. It is plain, therefore, that Mr. Tate has no deep-rooted objection to good work; but unfortunately he does not know it when he sees it, and the great mass of his treasures are, as art, valueless. Had he bestowed his few masterpieces upon the country, he would have been its benefactor for ever. But he must needs send his name down to posterity with a flourish; the Government must take the whole Tate Gallery or nothing. And is it any marvel that the people, when the Brummagem imitation is thus foisted upon them with official sanction, should continue to mistake it for art? Were a puff of Mr. Tate's sugar handed to every visitor at the door of his gallery, one would not be surprised, for his gift savors somewhat of the advertisement. We shall next hear of the Pears' Soap or the Singer's Sewing Machine National Museum.

The picture and print-dealers have been much abused, by a certain section of the London press, for advertising themselves and their wares by means of monthly exhibitions, to which critics are invited and upon which press notices are showered. But whatever be their crimes, they at least have the grace to show good work, if not always, at least at intervals. To the dealers we owe the few exhibitions of importance which so far have been given this autumn: one, fairly representative, of Hervier's paintings, etchings, and lithographs at the Goupil Gallery; another, containing admirable examples of the Barbizon men and the much-talked-about canvas of De Groux, which at least has the stamp and virtue of individuality, at the Hanover Gallery; while it has been left to a publisher to hold what must be called the show of the season.

Mr. T. Fisher Unwin has just brought over from Paris Vierge's original drawings for 'Pablo de Segovia,' the English edition of which he has published. This is the first time Vierge's work has been seen in London, nor could it be studied to better advantage, for with the drawings are hung the proofs by Gillot, the photo-engraver who reproduced them, and on the table is the book itself, the production of the ordinary printer. The refinement of Vierge's drawing, its subtleties, and his mastery of line made themselves felt even in the sadly reduced and not too well printed process blocks of Bonhoure's French edition. But to all who know his work merely by these blocks, the originals are revelations. In them alone can be realized to the full extent the knowledge with which he draws any and everything whether it be the human figure or the distant

landscape, whether the most elaborate architecture or the chairs and tables of primitive construction; in them alone can be appreciated duly his economy of line and triumph of selection. Not a superfluous touch is in his drawing, not an unnecessary detail included in his composition. And more than this: though he never sacrifices the freedom of his method, though he never suppresses his own strong individuality, he is still master of the art of working for the photo-engraver. He is sure that his every line will "come," that his every black will tell. Comparison with the proofs of Gillot's new blocks proves how little has been lost in the reproduction. For this reason a visit to the exhibition is, to the would-be illustrator, worth months of drawing lessons. Vierge has sent other examples, among them some of his wash drawings, which technically are no less distinguished. But as yet he has done nothing to surpass the 'Pablo' series. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE POST-OFFICE IN POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few weeks ago I noticed in your paper a request for information as to failure of the paper to arrive. Since then it has appeared regularly some time on Friday, but several other deficiencies have come to my notice which I thought might interest you.

On the two successive days before Thanksgiving the mail due at about nine A.M. from New York at Peace Dale, R. I., was carried by to Providence, and only reached Peace Dale late in the afternoon and too late to get off an answer the same day. The mails between this place and Peace Dale have been very irregular. About two-thirds of the time letters mailed there in time for the P.M. mail reach Syracuse at seven the next morning; the other third they come either in the afternoon or the next day.

Similar things I find constantly occurring between Brooklyn and this place. On one occasion I mailed two letters at the Post-office here, with several hours' interval between, to the same address in Brooklyn, with the result that the second was delivered about four hours before the first.

These probably were merely the results of carelessness or incompetence, or both, but a month ago there was an occurrence in the town of Geddes, adjoining Syracuse, which cannot be looked on so charitably. On Friday morning, November 4, there were mailed from Syracuse to voters living in the neighborhood of the Post-office of Solvay in the town of Geddes a large number of pasters for use at election, averaging perhaps three to a voter. So far as I can discover, not one of these reached its destination before Wednesday, November 9—the day after election—though a very large number which were shown to me by employees and tenants of mine to whom they were addressed all bore a postmark showing that they had been received at Solvay at four P. M. November 4. Some of these men said they had called for their mail and had been told there was none; and again, one inquiring for a neighbor was told there was nothing of importance. The day after election the Solvay Postmaster appeared at the office of our works with a huge pile of these pasters (mingled with a few other letters which had apparently been detained with them by mistake), which were addressed to men in our employ, as are three quarters of the population whom he serves. There was a similar batch the next day. He apparently took this way of distributing them as likely to excite less comment than if every box in a country post-office should contain three or four letters at once.

As this Postmaster is a Machine politician and doubtless interested in the *straight* Republican ticket, the apparently necessary inference is plain. There seems to be a fitting opportunity for the official axe.

Yours faithfully, N. T. B.

Syracuse, N. Y., December 6, 1892.

[Our correspondent's letter makes a fit occasion for saying that, in our endeavor to discover the cause of the especial delinquency in the New York Post-office about election time, we were (unofficially) informed that for several weeks an extraordinary number of copies of the *Irish World* were dumped into the office, under orders to give them precedence over all matter of their class. We cannot vouch for the truth of this, but we are quite sure that the Post-office authorities are capable of such courtesies to the "Blaine Irishman."—Ed. Nation.]

THE PENNSYLVANIA BALLOT LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "C. P. R." of Pittsburg, in your issue of November 24, calls attention to certain defects in the Ballot Law now in force in Pennsylvania. Some of his criticisms, indeed, concern matters as to which the law works well enough if not wilfully or negligently misinterpreted, and no law can execute itself in spite of popular ignorance or an intention to violate it. Granting, however, that the law is far from perfect, any one familiar with the history of its passage must object to its being represented as "prepared with a single eye to forcing Republicans and Democrats to vote the straight party ticket." It was "prepared" with the intention of being inferior to that of no other State, and its faults are due to its having had to run the gauntlet of a Quay-controlled Legislature.

A very strong effort will be made at the coming session to correct these faults, and it can hardly fail of some measure of success. If "C. P. R." really wishes to see a better law, he can join the Ballot-Reform Association, or at all events send a contribution to its treasurer, A. N. Chandler, Esq., N. E. corner Fifth and Chestnut Streets, Philadelphia, and he can also see that the influence of the press of Pittsburg is properly exerted.

Charles C. Binney.

Philadelphia, December 5, 1892.

PHOTOGRAPHY VERSUS WOOD-ENGRAVING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I know no action so unwise as that of attempting to argue a point of difference with your critic; and with the critic of 'Old Italian Masters' I have no difference to argue, for "de gustibus," etc. But I think I might be allowed to correct a misapprehension as to my own meaning when it occurs. The blunder as to Louis XIV. I can in no wise account for, and I have not yet a copy of the book to refer to, but it was a blunder which can do no harm, and any schoolboy might have seen it to be one. Your critic does not mention where it occurs, so that I do not know in which number of the magazine to look for it. It may have been carelessly carried over from one of my authorities, where it may have been a blunder. But the inconsistency supposed in the Veronese Tintoretto dates is only in the wrong choice of a word. I said, "The moment was most favorable for his [Veronese's] entry into the capital of the arts," when I should have said "the epoch," meaning not the day of Veronese's arrival (*i. e.*, 1555), but the stage at which the evolution of the arts and the demand for his form of it had attained. Substitute the word "time" or "epoch" (*i. e.*, 1555 to 1563) for that which I used, and you have my meaning. The context would, I should think, indicate this, and your critic uses the word in the same sense—"This was the 'moment' for such work as Mr. Cole's."

But your critic makes a very serious mistake in what he says of the relation of photography to reproduction, and as this does not touch my merits, but those of the entire work of my coadjutor, Mr. Cole, as well as a scientific question, I hope you will not consider as contentious what I have to say. It is not true that by the recent improvement in the photographic reproduction of pictures known as "orthochromatic," the color-values are given with a fidelity "as marvellous in their rendering of tone and color-value as the first photographs were in their rendering of form, and as much beyond any hope of human rivalry." "Orthochromatism" avoids the glaring contrasts which used to be made by photography between the color-values of blues, yellows, and reds, but it has by no means reached the accuracy of rendering them which has been attained by Mr. Cole—it simply gives us a better mean. This is a question of fact on which I speak with positiveness, as an expert, being in the constant habit of using the orthochromatic plates myself, and I have a letter from Mr. Burne-Jones in reference to some of Mr. Cole's renderings, in which he says "they are better [in this respect] than any photographs that ever were made." This is absolutely true: photography gives us a version which is not so glaringly false as that which it used to give, but it does not, by an important space, approach color-values as Cole renders them. This might be apprehended from the fact that, starting with the orthochromatic photograph, he is still obliged on that to make his further corrections for the true values.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, November 29, 1892.

STAINED GLASS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "S. W. W.," after a very great compliment to the writer of the review of Burne-Jones's work in No. 1430 of the *Nation*, proceeds to express the opinion that that writer's desire for stained glass, of a combination of design comparable to that of Burne-Jones with color comparable to that of La Farge, cannot be gratified, "owing to the nature of the elements involved in the production of glass design." May I be permitted a few words by way of reply? I am not ignorant of the difference in method of production between English and American glass, and am, for one, of those to whom it seems "that subtlety of color rather than subtlety of drawing is the more legitimate goal in the production of stained-glass work." What I asked for was not "the intricate, subtle, and beautifully modulated drawing" of Burne-Jones, but something

like his power of *design*—that is, his power of composition and arrangement of line and mass. Surely "S. W. W." would not maintain that if color is to be still the chief object, design may not be improved? My object was to point out the weakest point in the American school of stained glass, and to disturb our (possibly) too great complacency in the results we have attained, by showing wherein we are surpassed by workers who yet do not, in my opinion, understand their material, as such, nearly so well as we do.

I am, very respectfully,

THE REVIEWER.

COUSIN AND NIECE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The word *cousin* is still used as synonymous with *niece* in this part of the country, at least. A letter this day received from a gentleman eighty-six years of age living in the eastern part of Mississippi, is addressed to his *niece*, and is signed, "Your affectionate uncle"; but in the body of the letter he expresses his sorrow for the death of another *niece*, whom he calls his *cousin*. This is not a case of lapse of memory or confusion of mind, for in other letters the same gentleman has often spoken of his *grandniece* as his *cousin*.

CARROLL CUTLER.

TALLADEGA, ALA., December 9, 1892.

Notes.

THE Cupples Co., Boston, will publish immediately 'J. W. von Goethe: His Wit, Wisdom, Poetry,' edited by Newell Dunbar; and 'Inspiration and Truth from the Rt. Rev. Phillips Brooks, D.D., Bishop of Massachusetts,' with a portrait.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn have nearly ready 'The Private Life of the Romans,' a manual for schools and colleges, by Harriet Waters Preston and Louise Dodge; and 'Jason's Quest,' a mythological reader, by D. O. S. Lowell.

'A Plot-Book of Some Elizabethan Plays,' edited by George Pierce Baker, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish by subscription the Quadricentennial Edition of Irving's 'Columbus.' The edition is limited to 401 copies, numbered from 1492 to 1892 inclusive, and is comprised in three royal quarto volumes, very fully illustrated, the illustrations including a number of designs drawn particularly for this work, together with facsimiles of certain curious old plates. The binding is antique vellum. The first number in the series, No. 1492, has been reserved for President Harrison, and the set numbered 1892 has been reserved for President-elect Cleveland.

In our recent report of Mr. Gladstone's Romanes lecture at Oxford, want of space forbade mention of the enthusiastic recognition accorded by the lecturer to a remarkable work now printing at the Clarendon Press, namely, Mr. Hastings Rashdall's book on Medieval Universities, of which advance sheets were placed at Mr. Gladstone's disposal. Mr. Gladstone's memorable lecture has been published by the same press under the title of 'An Academic Sketch,' and it is interesting for those who demur at a certain tendency to depreciate the value of Euripides as compared with his two compeers, Æschylus and Sophocles, to note that the only Greek quotation made by Mr. Gladstone in his Romanes lecture is, like the one line of Greek quoted by Lowell in his Harvard address of 1886, from Euripides. Mr. Gladstone pointed his own definition of a University with a line (201) from the "Bacchanals" of the same tragedian whose "Iphigenia at Aulis" contains the famous verse which, when Mr. Lowell quoted it in the Memorial Hall at Cambridge, seemed at once a record and a consecration of lives which were laid down that our country might still live. Those who have the opportunity of doing so will find a comparison between these two great academic addresses most interesting, and they will, out of gratitude to Mr. J. G. Romanes, the benefactor to whom Mr. Gladstone's lecture is due, rejoice to hear that he is regaining health and strength at Madeira, whither illness has banished him for a time.

Frederick Warne & Co. offer a new edition, in three volumes, "North," "South," and "Midland," of the close-packed 'Abbeys, Castles, and Ancient Halls of England and Wales,' by John Timbs and Alexander Gunn. They have had it revised and brought down to date, and illustrated with four photogravures in each volume. The work is hardly one to be read continuously, but is a serviceable book of reference or supplementary guide-book. The plates are ornamental and the binding tasteful. The device of the French publisher Jouaust is on the title-page of three volumes of the "Exquisite Series" which come to us with the imprint of Estes & Lauriat, Boston. That the manufacture is English may be inferred. Out of so much collaboration there issues a very handsome result—the 'Vicar of Wakefield' in two volumes, 'Paul and Virginia' in one. The form, the print, and the binding (vellum back and half blue-cloth sides) are dainty and irreproachable. Lalauze's etchings come off badly in our copies. As designs they are graceful and scholarly rather than strikingly imaginative; they might have been deemed "exquisite" but for the pressman.

In a neat little volume, entitled 'Outlines of Ancient Egyptian History' (Scribners), Miss Mary Brodrick has performed a service for Auguste Mariette somewhat similar to that which she performed about a year ago for Heinrich Brugsch—with this exception, that in the present case she has acted as translator as well. The work here presented with annotations is the *aperçu* originally prepared for use in the Egyptian schools in Cairo. As an outline it is excellent, and the work of translation has been well done, not so much in the strict sense of that word as in the sense that Miss Brodrick has given in English the meaning and views of the author, while eliminating those opinions now no longer received. Additions have been made at several points and they increase the value of the book. One important subject does not come in for mention at all, however—the pyramid texts. A criticism might be made upon the order of presentation in the present volume. Seventy-five pages are devoted to a sketch of the history down to the Mohammedan invasion, and about as much more to the sources of the history and to the monuments from the successive dynasties. The ground is thus traversed twice. Manifestly a combination of the parts in a single account would have added to the completeness and perspicuity of the presentation. At the same time such a course would have resulted in a book practically new.

A work privately printed in London, entitled 'Some Account of the Huguenot Family of Minet, from their coming out of France at the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1686,' has been edited by William Minet, F.S.A. It is a sumptuous quarto of 240 pages, with admirable portraits and other illustrations, and contains much that is of general interest. The editor has made a skilful use of the scattered memoranda, diaries, and letters in his possession, so as to enable the various members of the family to tell their story, as far as possible, in their own language. The nucleus of the volume is the recently discovered "Relation" of Isaac Minet, which gives an interesting account of his escape from Calais after the Revocation, and his subsequent fortunes in Dover, where he founded a large and very successful mercantile and banking business. In his letters, as well as in those of his grandson, Hughes Minet, which form the major part of the original documents, there are many references to quaint customs of both the family and the business life of the last century. There are also a number of genealogical tables, wills, and inscriptions. But the chief value of the book to the general reader is the additional testimony which it bears to the great integrity, industry, and true manliness of the men whom France in her folly drove into exile. The volume is in every respect the worthy record of a noble race.

One more literature has been placed within the reach of the blind, the Chinese. The enormous difficulty of representing in raised characters a language which has no alphabet proper, but 4,000 symbols representing syllables, and which takes a lifetime for those who see to learn, has at length been overcome. The system employed is by an ingenious reduction of the *sounds*—as distinct from the syllables—to 408. These, it is found, can be learned easily, even by the very young. The inventor is a self-taught genius, the Rev. W. H. Murray, son of a Scotch mechanic, who was prevented from following his father's trade by an accident in which he lost an arm. Becoming an agent of the Bible Society, he showed great facility in learning languages, and was sent by it to carry on its work in China. Here the miserable condition of the blind, of whom there is an unusual number in the empire, attracted his attention, and led him to devote himself to the discovery of a method by which they might be enabled to read. An account of his work has recently been given by Miss C. F. Gordon Cumming in a little book entitled 'Work for the Blind in China' (London: Gilbert & Remington).

A second edition of Jukes-Brown's 'Handbook of Physical Geology' is lately issued (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). As palæontology and historical geology are left for another volume, space is gained for a fairly deliberate treatment of the physical side of the science. The book is essentially English, and it is interesting to note how full a compendium of the subject may be gained from the domain of Great Britain and Ireland alone. Yet the omission of examples from other countries gives too local an aspect to a world-wide science, and in the chapter on physiographical geology the influence of the conservative English school in contrast to the more progressive attitude of American investigators is clearly apparent. The diagrams are hardly as good as the text deserves.

T. B. Smart's 'Bibliography of Matthew Arnold' (London: J. Davy & Sons) will prove valuable for libraries and for private collectors, as well as for the teacher of English literature. It contains, first, a full and accurate description of Arnold's various poetical publications, 39 in all, including reëditions and contributions to periodicals; second, his prose publications, 196 in all, including reëditions, contributions to magazines, and letters to the

press; third, a list of about 300 criticisms and reviews of Arnold's various writings; and, fourth, a synoptical table which is an index to every poem in each of the collected volumes. The whole is conveniently arranged and clearly printed.

Signor Giulio Canestrelli, under-librarian of the Victor Emanuel Library in Rome, has published an accurate Bibliography of Mazzini's Writings, which comprises 558 numbers, Italian and foreign. Only 120 copies of this work have been printed. It is adorned with a facsimile of an inedited letter from Mazzini to Mauro Macchi.

Alexandre Dumas *fils* has just issued a seventh volume of his "Théâtre Complet" (Paris: Lévy: New York: F. W. Christern), containing his three latest plays, "La Princesse de Bagdad," "Denise," and "Francillon." All these have been published separately before, but they appear now with long appendices in which the author discusses their subjects, their success, and their actors—for all were produced at the Théâtre-Français, and M. Dumas is not sparing of his praises to the performers of that unrivalled organization. Two of these plays have been adapted in America, but without success. All turn on points of what we may call, not unfairly, psychologic casuistry. In all, again, questions of sexual morality are discussed on the stage in a manner which playgoers who speak English think unprofitable. The comedy least suited to American taste is "Francillon," which is a marvel of constructive skill; its action is closely knit and extraordinarily powerful in its simplicity; its characters are vigorously etched, and its dialogue is of unfailing brilliance. But it is calculated solely for the meridian of Paris.

Considering the variety and the general superiority of French books of reference, it is curious that there is in French no book exactly corresponding to Mr. Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations.' Many sayings and quotations are traced to their sources in several of the late Édouard Fournier's gossiping and inaccurate books; and something of the kind is attempted also in Larousse's invaluable dictionary. Now M. Roger Alexandre has just published 'Le Musée de la Conversation' (Paris: Bouillon; New York: F. W. Christern), which does not quite fill the vacancy, partly because it is loose and journalistic in method, and partly because it is quite as much a collection of famous sayings as it is of literary quotations. But it is useful and welcome, and the reader of its pages makes more than one amusing discovery. He finds, for example (p. 202), a French origin for Mrs. Glasse's "First catch your hare," and also for the dialogue which accompanies the tune of the "Arkansaw Traveller" (p. 46), and this suggests that the story with its accompanying tune may be derived from some early *voyageur* who had brought it over the ocean with him. It is amusing to see that some absurd person has suggested that Hugo's "Ruy Blas" was plagiarized from Bulwer's "Lady of Lyons." It is amusing also to see that the phrase in Beaumarchais's play about calumny and its results can be traced to Bacon; perhaps it will next be asserted that Bacon wrote Beaumarchais's plays as well as Shakspere's.

Musical literature seems to be a profitable part of the publishing business, if we may judge by the extraordinary activity recently displayed in that branch. Among the books on musical topics which have accumulated on our table within a few weeks are the following, some of which we reserve for more extended discussion. No fewer than three are devoted to Chopin, following upon the heels of Niecks's admirable two-volume biography. 'Frederic Chopin,' by Charles Willeby (Scribners), a volume of 300 pages, will be a good substitute for those who have not leisure to read Niecks's 700 pages. Clayton F. Lummy (Chicago) sends us a little volume containing a translation and arrangement of the sketches of Chopin and the biographic material scattered through George Sand's 'History of My Life' and 'A Winter in Majorca,' the island on which Chopin's immortal "Préludes" were written, amid the most distressing circumstances. A 'Life of Chopin,' with a list of his works, is also published in Brentano's "Petite Library"—a dainty little pocket-piece. From Macmillan we have a book of personal and theatric interest, 'Student and Singer,' being the reminiscences of the eminent English baritone, Charles Santley. Mr. Tretbar of Steinway Hall has issued a new edition of Ehlert's musical essays, 'From the Tone World,' translated by Mrs. Tretbar. These essays are all concerned with modern music, from Mendelssohn to Wagner and Brahms, and if the opinions advanced are not always sound (Ehlert himself outgrew some of them), they are always suggestive. Several new essays have been added to this edition, the best of all being those on Schumann and Chopin. 'The Art of Singing,' by Sinclair Dunn, is just received from T. Fisher Unwin (New York: Putnams). Of technical and scientific interest are 'A Noble Art,' three lectures on the evolution and construction of the piano, by Fanny Morris Smith (G. Schirmer), and 'Sound and Music,' by the Rev. J. A. Zahm (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), a treatise on acoustics and the physical basis of musical harmony. From Brentano we have, finally, 'The World of Music,' three volumes, by Anna, Comtesse de Brémont, on 'Great Composers,' 'Great Singers,' and 'Great Virtuosi'; short, chatty biographic sketches of the most eminent musicians, creative and executive, of the past. These sketches are of unequal value and length, but generally proportioned to the importance of the subject, and the narrative is enlivened by numerous anecdotes, some of which are comparatively unfamiliar. The author's taste is so catholic that she calls the banjo a "fascinating instrument." It is a suggestive fact that of the nineteen "great virtuosi" described, although all are (or were) famous, only four or five were really men of genius.

Columbus reveals anew his sway over the year in the bound volume of *Harper's Young People* for 1892, in which articles and pictures directly concerning his personality, the continued story of the age of the discovery, "Diego Pinzon," and illustrations and letterpress in abundance relating to the World's Fair and the Columbian celebrations in this city, are the most striking feature. For the rest, this periodical has continued to move on in its established lines, furnishing a range in its miscellany of adventure and sports and story and description which ought to yield something for every juvenile taste.

The *Magazine of Art* (Cassell & Co.) puts forth a foreign-art supplement entitled 'European Pictures of the Year [1892].' There are in all perhaps 150 examples, grouped nationally, and among the few instances of statuary is the painter-sculptor's "Pygmalion." These memoranda are well executed and serve to show, so far as the selections are typical, the character of schools. The editor remarks on the dominant influence of the French. The American section is but poorly represented.

The Christmas number of the *Art Journal* (International News Co.) is, as usual, given up to illustrating the work of a single artist, in this case Prof. Hubert Herkomer, whose *sacer vates* is Mr. W. L. Courtney.

Cruikshank is a leading topic in the November *Portfolio* (Macmillan), apropos of the recent gift to the British Museum's Print Room, by the artist's widow, of "a stupendous assemblage of his sketches, 1,141 in number," besides other artistic relics of the great George. A liberal assortment of facsimiles from this store accompanies Mr. F. G. Stephen's letterpress. Mr. Hamerton's contribution is a critique of Vierge's illustrations to 'Pablo of Segovia.'

In the *Fanfulla della Domenica* for November 6 is a note from Signor A. Valgimigli, suggesting a novel interpretation of Dante's famous "Pape Satan, pape Satan, aleppe," which has been in turn regarded as Hebrew, Arabic, Greek, French, or, with more reason, mere gibberish. The new interpretation consists in identifying *pape* and *aleppe*, by the aid of recent English dictionaries, as being respectively good Middle English words for "father" (*i. e.*, priest) and "help." The line then becomes, simply enough, "Father Satan, Father Satan, help!" As it is so highly possible, according to Mr. Gladstone, that Dante studied at Oxford, he must have been acquainted with the current English idioms of the day, though Mr. Gladstone may not be pleased to find Dante's familiarity with English displayed in precisely this form.

At the November meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, Dr. Nansen described his coming expedition across the Polar regions. This he hopes to accomplish by taking advantage of the ocean current running north from Siberia and south by Greenland which was discovered a few years ago, through the drift of some of the wreckage of the *Jeannette*. He has had constructed a steamer, rigged as a three-masted schooner, of some 800 tons burden, with an engine of 160 horse-power and carrying supplies for a crew of twelve men for five or six years. This vessel, named the *Fram* (Forward), has been modelled so as to rise under the pressure of the ice, rather than resist it, with sloping sides and a "plump and rounded" hull. For heating, besides coal, the explorers will carry petroleum, while their cooking will be done by alcohol. A dynamo for electric lighting has also been provided. Nansen's present intention is to start next spring, his first goal being the delta of the Lena River. From thence he will sail north as far as the open water permits, and then "run into the ice at the most favorable spot, and from there trust entirely to the current running across the Polar region." He will carry two large boats, each capable of holding all the crew, in which they could continue their voyage in case the ship were crushed in the ice. "The only difficulty would be to get duly into the current north of Siberia; when this was done they must be carried somewhere northward. Whether they succeeded or not, he felt convinced that this was the way—not a new one—in which the unknown regions would some day be crossed."

The Booksellers' and Stationers' Provident Association of the United States will give under its auspices an Authors' Reading at Chickering Hall on the evening of January 16, 1893. Among the authors who will read from their own works are F. Hopkinson Smith, "A Day at Laguerre's"; Charles Dudley Warner, "A Bear Story," by request; Gen. James Grant Wilson, "An Episode of the War"; Edward

Eggleston, Will Carleton, Marion Harland, Gertrude Atherton, Robert Grant, William H. McElroy, Thomas Nast, and other popular authors. Of the committee having the matter in charge the Chairman is Mr. Charles A. Burkhardt, with E. P. Dutton & Co.; the Treasurer, Mr. John A. Holden, with Thomas Whittaker.

"A. M." writes to us as follows: "A letter in the current number of the *Nation* begins with this sentence: 'Some one has said, and it sounds like Walter Bagehot, that the greatest pain the human mind is capable of is the reception of a new idea.' Doubtless the writer had in mind this sentence, to be found at p. 163 of Bagehot's 'Physics and Politics': 'One of the greatest pains to human nature is the pain of a new idea.'"

—At twenty years of age Jay Gould had already published a history, filling more than 400 pages, of his native county, Delaware, N. Y. In 1875 Sabin, in his 'Bibliotheca Americana,' declared this work "very rare," and added that, while in press, almost the entire edition was destroyed by fire. This loss is oddly spoken of in the very midst of the book itself (p. 226), to wit: "The reader who has glanced at our preface has already been made aware of the almost total destruction of this work by fire." We are reminded of that book of Moses wherein he describes his own death and burial. The author goes on with a lugubrious paragraph concerning his irremediable loss of matter that could not be replaced. In after years, however, he changed his mind, buying up and burning all copies he could discover. Did he induce Allibone to leave it unnoticed in his omnium-gatherum? This juvenile production of Mr. Gould is thus seldom met with, and hence is more provocative of curiosity. A copy which early came into the possession of the Wisconsin State Historical Society has long been notable among its rarities. It contains on the whole nothing to be ashamed of as regards its matter, moral tone, or style. It was a valuable contribution to local history derived from original sources. The writer, in traversing as a surveyor the region of which he treats, had fallen in with many of its oldest and most intelligent inhabitants. Information regarding the rise and progress of the county, pioneer hardships, Indian raids, and industrial interests, was secured with much painstaking and written out in a readable volume, less sophomoric than was to be anticipated, and one which every future writer on the same theme must consult, or he will not do his perfect work. Few local historians, while still in their teens, no matter what their educational advantages, have written so instructive books.

—These remarks are specially true regarding the first half of the volume. Much of the last half, it would seem, was not thought of at first, but was added after the disastrous fire before mentioned, with a view to help out the sale of the work. As padding of this sort may be mentioned about forty pages of obituaries culled from newspapers, and as many more serving to advertise mineral springs, newspapers, academies, banks, etc. Possibly we should class under the same head half of threescore pages concerning Anti-renters. Some of the most sensational sentences describe Mr. Gould the elder with his little son surrounded, in 1844, by Anti-renters who had come to tar and feather the father. The writer says: "We were that son. . . . Oh, the agony of my youthful mind as I expected every moment to behold him a lifeless corpse—fifteen guns poised within a few feet of his head," etc., etc. Mr. Gould's youthful hostility to monopolies was patent and pronounced. British restraints on land-monopoly he shows to have been cunningly eluded by scheming speculators, but the public domain when control passed to the people "was made subservient to the best interests of the State" (p. 247). He lamented, however, that more English landgrants had not been annulled by the State of New York, inasmuch as land-monopolies, centring in single individuals a mighty controlling influence, would give to capitalists the reins of weal and woe, yea, might control the machinery of Government, etc. No more zealous plea can be found than Mr. Gould's for supporting and improving common schools (p. 241). He prints District Libraries in capitals as of preëminent importance. He exults in "the march of improvement consequent on missionary preaching, prior to which society had presented one vast gulf of moral degradation" (p. 228). On this topic he would have expatiated more largely but for the burning of his manuscript. The fact that neither school libraries nor home missions nor any other public objects have received bequests from Mr. Gould, shows

> "The hardening of the heart, that brings
> Irreverence for the dreams of youth."

—The most important fact disclosed in the Thirteenth Annual Report of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women (1891-'92) is an unusual record of growth. In numbers the Harvard "Annex" now ranks fourth among women's colleges, with 258 students; its teaching force comprises over seventy of the Faculty of Harvard College, and, as usual, represents the older professors as well as later additions to the University staff. The tables show that the students were sent by 113 institutions as against 77 the year previous, and that twenty-two graduate students came from such women's colleges as Bryn Mawr, Barnard, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley, and from such coeducational institutions as the State Universities of Kansas, Nebraska, and Wisconsin, Oberlin College, and Boston University. Among the 120 courses offered, there was "a great increase in the particular classes, this growth being specially noticeable in the departments of Greek, Latin, English, German, French, Italian, philosophy, political economy, history, fine arts, mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, botany, physical geography, and geology." In the Annex's pioneer days its students stuck rather closely to the conventional path of Latin, Greek, and mathematics; but a healthy change has come about, and last year there were three times as many students in the English classes as in any others, while the next most popular studies were history, German, Latin, French, Greek, philosophy, and mathematics, in the order named. The steady growth and unostentatious tone of the work of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women lend additional significance to some recent public utterances from within the University. At a parlor meeting called in the interest of the Endowment Fund of the Annex (of the $500,000 needed, but $75,000 has been secured in twelve years), the President of Harvard University made some welcome but unlooked-for confessions as to his attitude towards the Society, whose endeavors he regarded "as the most intelligently directed and the most successful effort for the higher education of women in the United States." Moreover, although speaking only for himself, and not for the governing body of Harvard, President Eliot is reported to have said "that little besides financial considerations seemed to stand in the way of giving the Annex the full privileges of Harvard University."

—The Pennsylvania Tax Conference publishes a report upon the value and taxation of property in that State which has some features of interest. Little assistance upon the subject was obtainable from the United States Census, and the returns to the State officers were very defective. Accordingly, special agents were employed to ransack the offices of the county commissioners, and to make such further investigation as was practicable. In addition to this, a novel expedient was resorted to in ascertaining the amount of property insured, and making this a basis of calculation. In spite of the fact that this was apparently nothing more than "guessing at half and multiplying by two" (for it was necessary to depend upon the conjecture of insurance agents as to the ratio between property insured and property not insured), it is not improbable that evidence of some value may be obtainable from this quarter. It seems that the amount of insurance carried upon property in Pennsylvania is $2,000,000,000, and if this be 40 per cent. of the value of insurable property, such property is worth $5,000,000,000. The data collected at the county offices, however, make this value only $3,000,000,000. Real estate is estimated by the Tax Conference not at its value at forced sale, but at what the owners would sell for if they had offers—a very different thing. According to this estimate, and adding $300,000,000 of exempt property, the real property in the State is worth more than $4,000,000,000, while it is assessed at $2,333,000,000. Its value is about equally divided between land and improvements. The value of farms is put at about $1,000,000,000, substantially the same as reported in the census of 1880. The total amount of property in the State is swollen by adding $1,250,000,000 of "moneyed capital," which consists chiefly of evidences of debt. Upon this principle any two friends can make themselves millionaires by exchanging their promissory notes. A like value is put upon corporate property, and a like criticism to a certain extent applies, as it does to the return of income as property. Upon the whole, we are unable to attach much importance to these valuations of property, and the report upon taxation appears to contain nothing novel.

—Most readers will remember well the great disturbance that arose upon the publication by the Duc de Broglie of the first volume of Talleyrand's long delayed memoirs. Hints as to their contents had been rife for fifty years. Parts of the original manuscript had been shown by Talleyrand to various people, notably to M. de Vitrolles, as he himself relates. There was every reason to expect a disclosure of the secret history of French politics and diplomacy from the time of the Revolution, through the Napoleonic epoch, to and beyond the Restoration. But when at last the book appeared, the eager reader found nothing that he had expected: no disclosures, hardly a gleam of new historical light, no wit from one of the greatest of wits, nothing beyond a decorous and rather dull plea for Talleyrand's consistency as "homme de France." The book fell flat, and would have fared even worse than it did if a controversy had not arisen at once as to the *origines* of the volumes. M. Aulard, professor at the Sorbonne, started the polemic by inquiring where the Talleyrand manuscripts were, and in what condition; and

he pressed the unhappy Duc de Broglie with questions till he was obliged to confess that the only document in his possession was a copy of the 'Mémoires' made by a former possessor of the Talleyrand manuscripts, M. de Bacourt. Where the manuscripts themselves were he did not know. M. Funck-Brentano believed that they had been destroyed. Others doubted if there ever had been more than notes, some of Talleyrand's own making, others dictated to M. de Bacourt. At any rate, the whole credibility of the memoirs was seen to rest upon the trustworthiness of Bacourt. The Duc de Broglie believed this to be unimpeachable, and made much of his "scrupulous delicacy" and "irreproachable literary probity." But to this estimate of Bacourt M. Aulard and the others could by no means agree. He had published, they said, the correspondence of La Marck, in 1851, and that book was one of the worst instances of the shameless mutilation of an author known to literary history. Why might he not have done the same, or worse, in the present case?

—So the affair has stood till just now, when the last volume of the 'Mémoires' has appeared, and M. de Bacourt's copy (itself grossly mutilated) has been deposited in the Bibliothèque Nationale. The historians have again renewed their attacks: M. Aulard in the *Revue Bleue* and M. Jules Flammermont, professor at Lille, in the *Révolution Française*. New documents are brought forward which show such suppressions and falsifications of the La Marck correspondence as to put M. de Bacourt quite outside the number of reputable historians. He cuts down, for example, one letter of Pellenc's (Pellenc was Mirabeau's private secretary) from sixty-seven lines to twelve, cutting out all offensive remarks about Talleyrand, of which there are many, and completely changing the purport of the letter. M. Aulard recites these offences of Bacourt's, and asks the Duc de Broglie if he still has the same confidence in him as before, and still believes it impossible that he should have tampered with the Talleyrand papers. The Duke makes no reply beyond saying in an interview that he has nothing to add to the preface of his first volume. The whole controversy is a capital illustration of the old and new ways of looking at history, and the work and duty of a historian. M. de Broglie belongs to one day and generation; M. Aulard to quite another. Controversy between them is futile; it is the duel between the elephant and the whale.

RECENT POETRY.

THE Spanish satirist Quevedo, visiting the infernal regions and looking through some bars, sees many million figures moving restlessly about, and is told that they are a class of people known on earth as poets, but known there only as fools. It is no wonder if the minds of these poor people are somewhat unsettled, since they have embarked everything in the most uncertain of all possible lotteries. Good poetry ranks unquestionably at the top of all literature, and poor poetry at the bottom. All admit that the poor poetry is incomparably the more abundant; and it is pretty certain that neither the author nor his contemporaries can tell with any great certainty which is which. One must therefore approach any new harvest of song with humility, with charity, and, if possible, with infinite patience.

It certainly seems a pity that Lord Tennyson's fame could not have rested, where it was left by his last volume, on the unsurpassed beauty of "Crossing the Bar," instead of collecting the odds and ends which fill 'The Death of Oenone, Akbar's Dream, and Other Poems' (Macmillan). The contrast between his noble early poem on the same subject and the feebleness of this "Oenone" is almost pitiable; and after the magnificent vigor of William Morris's "Death of Paris" the comparison becomes more appalling. Lord Tennyson's poem is not really above the level of Andrew Lang's 'Helen of Troy,' which now attains its second edition (London: Bell). In the supplementary note to this book there are some interesting details of tradition, mostly from German sources, but Mr. Lang is very rash in inviting comparison between his own languid tale and the fine paper of Paul de St. Victor in 'Hommes et Dieux.' In 'The Professor, and Other Poems,' by the author of 'Moods' (London: Kegan Paul), we have apparently a skit at Tennyson in a poem called "A House of Lords" (p. 145), in which the same voice takes two wholly different views of hereditary rank at an interval of twenty years. For the rest, there is much good and independent thought in the book, without very much of the poetic quality. 'By the Sea, and Other Poems,' by "Fred Henderson" (London: Unwin), is a work far more touched by the muses; the author's sea is the ocean of life, and he writes, with intense feeling and some radical sympathies, of the ills and problems of London. The volume is bravely dedicated "To my friend Frederick Charles, who is now undergoing ten years' penal servitude for his alleged part in what is known as the Walsall Anarchist Conspiracy." It is worth noticing that the book thus heralded has reached its second edition.

'The Brethren of the Cross,' a translation of one of Werner's wild dramas by E. A. M. Lewis (London: Bell), carries us back to the alleged origin of freemasonry in the suppressed mediæval order of Knights Templars, and recalls also the once familiar article of Thomas Carlyle, in which he annihilated Werner less thoroughly, it seems, than he had supposed. Even now the long drama is not very readable, but the notes are interesting if the poem is not. Heine once said of Werner's dramas that they never found much favor from mortals below; and whether the angels liked them much better he had no means of knowing.

London poetry would seem to be in a bad way when it can only be cured of affectation by inoculating it with some other affectation. Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, though handicapped with a most un-English name, writes 'English Poems' (London: Mathews & Lane) complaining that "youngsters blush to write an English song," and protesting that

> "Not of thee this new voice in our ears,
> Music of France that once was of the spheres."

But the book opens with an archaic title-page, it is feebly dedicated to "Sissie Le Gallienne," and its "English" love-making is of this diluted quality (p. 73):

> "O love! love! I fear,
> For the air is too sweet—
> Softly, love—O my dear!
> Yea, too sweet
> On a sudden to meet
> Mortal mouth!
> O my sweet! O my sweet!
> The long drouth.
> And at last, dear, O think!
> The long drink!"

Surely this gives only the impression of some Early English drink which has quite befuddled the lover, and even the brutal doggerel of Mr. Meredith's 'Jump to Glory Jane' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) is welcome in comparison.

To revert again to Mr. Le Gallienne, the *Saturday Review* attributes to him "a deliberate quaintness of style, as of a new Euphues"; but, on the whole, we prefer even the Debonair Verse of the current London fashion to the needle of Sir Piercie Shafton. Yet there must be some genuineness left in the heart of a man who can write thus (p. 45) "To My Wife Mildred":

> "Dear wife, there is no word in all my songs
> But unto thee belongs!
> Though I, indeed, before thy true day came,
> Mistook thy star in many a wandering flame,
> Singing to thee in many another's name
> Before I knew thine everlasting eyes."

The genuine and passionate thrill of Irish poetry is well sustained by Katharine Tynan in her 'Irish Love-Songs' (Cassell), although perhaps a chronological arrangement would be better than that which mingles George Darley's later lyrics with the older bards. It is not strange that she could not forbear the insertion of that high-water mark of modern Irish poetry, Mangan's "My Dark Rosaleen," but it should have been left, on the whole, among the poems of patriotism, where it belongs. She has done well to keep clear of the pseudo-Irish muse of Oscar Wilde; but why omit Lover's graceful and melodious "What will you do, Love?"

Ireland also gives us, in 'The Countess Kathleen, and Various Legends and Lyrics,' by W. B. Yeats (Cassell), one of the most original and powerful of recent poetic volumes, drawing its strength, however, largely from its material—a fragment out of what the author well calls that "huge body of tradition behind her [Ireland] in the depths of time," which gives that island really the advantage over England, since the Arthurian legend, for instance, is cold and limited compared to that wealth of fable and fancy which Aubrey de Vere and others have found so fertile. The theme of "The Countess Kathleen"—witches disguised as merchants, who come, in time of famine, to buy the souls of the poor, and to whom the young Countess sells her own soul finally for the relief of others, saving it in the selling—is nobler than the Faust legend and is nobly handled here. Mr. Yeats was already known by his 'Wanderings of Oisin.'

In the collected poems of Philip Bourke Marston (Boston: Roberts), although there are some poems new to us, there are perhaps none which give any added evidence of clear title to genius. There is everywhere the poetic temperament and most careful execution; but upon all his work is the impress of Rossetti, or, perhaps, only of the local and temporary environment in which both were reared. Mrs. Moulton, the young poet's ever faithful friend, writes a memoir which does honor to them both.

Mr. William Watson, well known to the lovers of Wordsworth, comes before us with two thin volumes, the one of selections, the other original. His 'Lyric Love: an Anthology' (Macmillan), is a pleasing collection, though it marks the editor's limitations. It has most of the stock poems and some others; but there is something almost grotesque in a collection of love lyrics which leaves out Shelley's "One word is too often profaned," Rossetti's "Song of the Bower," and Swinburne's "Madonna Mia." This last poet is indeed ignored altogether. The collection includes no American poem save Saxe Holm's "Three Kisses of Farewell," which is attributed, odd-

ly enough, to an else unknown "Agnes E. Glase." The time is not distant when spurious Saxe Holms sprang up in various directions throughout America; but this is, so far as appears, the first English claimant. Mr. Watson's volume of his own verse, 'Lachrymæ Musarum, and Other Poems' (Macmillan), is a little handicapped by the rather extravagant applauses that heralded his first; and so much of it is given to the praises of other poets that he seems, after these and his "Wordsworth's Grave," like a self-elected laureate of the bards. Yet his eulogies of Shelley and Tennyson and Coleridge are well sung, though his final song of Columbus must take rank with most of the Columbian tributes, thus far, as being rather feeble.

It is pleasant to be able to select from this general condemnation the one official performance of the Columbian year, Miss Harriet Monroe's ode for the dedicatory ceremonies at Chicago. This lady, before known only by her strong drama of "Valeria," has certainly taken at one bound a high position among American poets, both by her "Cantata" for the Chicago Auditorium and her so-called "Commemoration Ode." It is perhaps unfortunate that she permitted herself to employ this title, so distinctly identified with Lowell's great poem; but with Lowell's minor odes—never quite so successful as his masterpiece—she may fearlessly invite comparison. It is certainly another feature of the singular good fortune which has thus far marked our great national enterprise that it has thus found its competent laureate in a wholly unexpected direction. Miss Monroe takes occasion to reprint her 'Valeria, and Other Poems' (Chicago: McClurg), printed for subscribers only, last year, but now regularly published, and including the "Commemoration Ode."

Miss Agnes Replier, like Mr. Watson, has edited 'A Book of Famous Verse' (Houghton), and, which is rather surprising, has included in it American poetry as well, her taste being usually transatlantic. It might, perhaps, have been well to explain on the title-page—since many omit to read prefaces—that it is a collection for children especially. For this purpose it is fairly well chosen and edited, but not always with discretion. The lovely ballad of "The Lass of Lochroyan," for instance, is sadly maimed by omitting the third and fourth verses, which give graceful and tender answers to the plaintive questions in the first two verses; and there is an occasional substitution of English for Scotch readings beyond what is agreeable to the ear. Aytoun's rendering, for instance,

> "He saw his young son in her arms
> Baith tossed abune the tide,"

is far more appropriate than the "both" and "above" here substituted, while much harder Scotch words are left unchanged. The references to Notes 9 and 10 (pp. 71–3) are misplaced. In the classic "Rose Aylmer," which it is not safe to alter by a syllable, Miss Replier gives

> "A night of memories and sighs,"

whereas it was printed in 1846 "and of sighs." In Landor's day, *memories* would have been a dissyllable and perhaps written "mem'ries." In the same way the editor gives us, in Browning's "Home Thoughts, from Abroad,"

> "And whoever wakes in England,"

instead of the original "who," and

> "The fields look rough with hoary dew,"

instead of "are rough." But she cannot here be held to account, as she follows Browning's later emendations, which in this case are certainly no improvement.

Of recent American volumes, notable rather for the interest of their themes than for any inspiration they betray, the showiest is 'Alaskana,' by Prof. Bushrod W. James (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), which has really some value as a guide-book through its abundant illustrations, although its letter-press, in the "Hiawatha" measure, is rather hard reading. In the same way 'Poems of Gun and Rod,' by Ernest McGaffey (Scribner), has value by reason of Mr. H. E. Butler's spirited delineations of birds and fishes. 'Some Rhymes of Ironquill of Kansas' (Chicago: McClurg) is crammed with local coloring; 'Songs from Nahant,' by Anne E. Johnson (Lynn: Nichols), has some modest glimpses of seaside life; and a book called 'Night Etchings,' by A. R. G. (Lippincott), has an irregular poem, "A Bat awakes by the Amazon," which has a touch of real tropical delineation and is such as Lanier might have written. A later volume by the same author and publisher, 'Gleams and Echoes,' shows no increase in real power, while the illustrations, though graceful, afford little assistance. In that portraying the wood-thrush, for instance, we see that shy bird sitting conspicuously on a bare bough in the foreground like a familiar robin. 'Legends of the Netherlands, to which are added some legends of Manhattan Island,' by Gideon J. Tucker, A.M., M.D. (New York: The Author), has a good deal of historical material in the rough, but rather tends to confirm the popular impression that the gods did not make the Dutch-American race poetical.

Among American poems which are in themselves interesting, the first place of course belongs to the enlarged edition of Whittier's 'At Sundown' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), the first edition having been privately printed for the author's friends two years ago. Seven new poems have been added, two of which are addressed respectively to Lowell and Holmes; and there are illustrations, sometimes quite attractive, from designs by Garrett. Mr. Clinton Scollard, in his 'Songs of Sunrise Lands' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), shows the peril attendant on an exceedingly poetic temperament which risks itself fearlessly amid the wealth of Oriental objects. Give a tolerably ready ear, and the "dim kiosk" and the "attared rose" sing themselves very easily, as Bayard Taylor found forty years ago; he sang them quite as well as Mr. Scollard, but the success gave him no immortality. Mr. Arlo Bates, who perhaps has never visited Oriental lands himself, yet puts more positive flavor into his 'Told in the Gate' (Roberts Bros.) simply because he handles his Eastern properties with a stronger grasp and is less fascinated by the bewitchment of the embroidery. But there is something to be said, after all, for the materials which one's home yields, and Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr extracts more vigorous verse from the Ethan Allen legends in the Vermont of her childhood ("The Armorer's Errand" in her 'Poems,' Scribners) than out of the many themes she borrows from foreign lands. This is partly because her natural theme is the daylight, while there are far more gifted poets, like the late Anne Reeve Aldrich ('Songs about Love and Death,' Scribners), whose whole existence dwells, like Emily Dickinson's, in the dim twilight, so that it matters not what the chosen theme may be: the subjective quality is all in all. Who would not guess that the following verses, for instance, were by Emily Dickinson herself (p. 128)?

> A LITTLE PARABLE.
>
> I made the cross myself whose weight
> Was later laid on me.
> This thought is torture as I toil
> Up life's steep Calvary.
>
> To think mine own hands drove the nails!
> I sang a merry song,
> And chose the heaviest wood I had
> To build it firm and strong.
>
> If I had guessed—if I had dreamed
> Its weight was meant for me,
> I should have made a lighter cross
> To bear up Calvary.

A new and enlarged edition of 'Swallow-Flights,' by Mrs. L. C. Moulton (Roberts), takes us to a region quite alien from the gypsy longings of Miss Aldrich, a region of matured art and assured power, within certain limitations. It is almost a pity that the publishers should have followed the English custom, only slowly creeping into our own books, of following up each volume by a few profuse laudations of its predecessor, especially as in this case they are all English, and hence somewhat remote from the real qualities and properties of American verse. When Prof. Minto, in the London *Examiner*, says that "in this little volume there is no trace of the provinciality of tone which has hitherto prevented any American poet from attaining the first rank," this preposterous utterance necessarily creates a prejudice in the unregenerate American mind against the very pleasing poet thus exalted over Emerson and Lowell. For it must never be forgotten how it was thought by critics of the Minto calibre that it was very provincial, and indeed almost vulgar, when Lowell ventured to sing of the bobolink and Emerson of the chickadee, instead of properly repeating the praises of the lark and the nightingale. Fortunately, Mrs. Moulton is better than her critics, and in her very first poem chants, without fear, of mayflowers and of "Plymouth town."

The first instalment of what threatens to prove a formidable harvest of Columbian poetry consists of 'The Song of America and Columbus, or the Story of the New World: A Greeting to Columbus and Columbia,' by Kinahan Cornwallis (New York: *Daily Investigator* Office), and 'Columbus: an Epic Poem, giving an accurate history of the great discovery in rhymed heroic verse,' by Samuel Jefferson, F.R.A.S., F.C.S., author of 'The Epic of the Invincible Armada' (Chicago: Griggs). The two books might seem at first to have their theme in common, but the treatment is as different as are the two representations of the caravel *Santa Maria* which adorn their respective covers. Mr. Jefferson's vessel has two masts, two sails, and no visible sailors; Mr. Cornwallis's has three masts and a bowsprit, six sails, and decks crowded with little men. A similar difference exists in the poetic structure, Mr. Jefferson's work being couched in the most placid description of heroic couplet, such as the once lamented Hayley might have written, while his rival interrupts a similarly measured strain with bursts like this (p. 64):

> "'Twas thus in 1492
> The Old World here espoused the virgin New.
> Here 1492 gave praise
> While 1892 gives bays
> And glorifies that great and grand event.
> All hail, Columbus! thou by Heaven sent;
> The New World shakes immortal hands with thee,
> O great explorer of the Western sea."

On the whole, we prefer the work of Mr. Jefferson, F.R.A.S., F.C.S., both because his epic is the shorter of the two, and because it seems to limit his ambition. Mr. Cornwallis,

on the contrary, proposes to "shake immortal hands" with posterity through a large part of the history of America, promising in the next volume the tales of other early explorers, to be followed by "the stories in detail of the Discovery of the Pacific, the Conquest of Mexico by Cortes, and the Conquest of Peru by Pizarro." His frank suggestion that it will be "an elephantine work" is possibly the only point on which the opinion of his critics is quite sure to coincide with his own.

To the foregoing two may be added a yet larger volume, 'The Quest of Columbus: A Memorial Poem in twelve books,' by Henry Iliowizi (Chicago: Smith). This has no portrait whatever of the *Santa Maria*, but has one of Columbus and one of the poet; it is written in iambic verse, the first half of the volume being in heroic measure, while the latter half, without visible reason, shifts to alternate rhymes. Of this book as of the two others, it may be said that he who can read it may undertake Barlow's once famous 'Columbiad' without fear of slumber.

The 'Poems' of George Pellew (Boston: Clarke) are edited, since the death of that promising and attractive man, by his warm friend Mr. Howells. While his work has the qualities attributed to it by his biographer, it must still be admitted that it shows promise rather than fulfilment. 'Rhymes and Ballads for Girls and Boys,' by Susan Coolidge (Roberts Bros.), is sumptuously printed and illustrated and is very attractive. Both this volume and 'Little Folks' Lyrics,' by Frank Dempster Sherman (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), may be fearlessly commended for children. There is real thought and some power of expression in 'The Cup of Life, and Other Verses,' by Hannah Parker Kimball (Boston: Cupples), but more of both of these qualities in 'A Book of Day Dreams,' by Charles Leonard Moore (Holt). We have not, we think, had occasion to notice the first (privately printed) edition of these really strong and thoughtful poems. The author's earlier volume, 'Poems Antique and Modern,' published in 1883, gave no full promise of his later power, though the verses were facile and finished. In the later work he has chosen a dangerous form of expression—a whole volume of continuous sonnets—whereas it is now the tendency of poets to distribute their sonnets among other forms of verse, for fear of monotony. He has also chosen the most monotonous form of the sonnet, the Shakspearian, with its alternating lines, whereas the present taste is altogether for the more varied Italian and Miltonic arrangement. The thought is also frequently involved and hard to follow, but it is often clear and noble, and is couched in such vigorous lines and fresh, strong phrases as to make these hundred sonnets outweigh many volumes from the tamer muse. We may well close—though it is rather forcing the season—with this profound and jubilant hymn to Spring (sonnet 51):

LII.

The Spring returns! What matters then that War
On the horizon like a beacon burns,
That Death ascends, man's most desirèd star,
That Darkness is his hope? The Spring returns.
Triumphant through the wider-archèd cope
She comes, she comes, unto her tyranny,
And at her coronation are set ope
The prisons of the mind, and man is free!
And beggar-garbed or over-bent with snows,
Each mortal, long defeated, disallowed,
Feeling her touch, grows stronger-limbed and knows
The purple on his shoulders and is proud.
The Spring returns! O madness beyond sense,
Breed in our bones thine own omnipotence!

BROWNELL'S FRENCH ART.

French Art: Classic and Contemporary Painting and Sculpture. By W. C. Brownell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

It is a favorite idea of the literary critics of painting and sculpture that they are the better critics for their very lack of technical knowledge, as they are not biassed by their personal predilection for one sort of technique or one school over another, and are free to judge all artists and all schools without prejudice and from the standpoint of general culture. Singularly enough, this doctrine is seldom applied to the other arts, and we do not often hear it maintained that a critic of music is the better for being no musician, or a critic of literature more able for being no writer. Still, something might be said for the theory if it were true, in fact, that special ignorance prevented special bias. Unfortunately it does not, and no artist in the thick of artistic battles could be more bitterly partisan than some of the critics who look on from the heights of the arena. Let us hasten to add that Mr. Brownell is not of these, and that his book is a most favorable specimen of purely literary art-criticism. He is ingenious, subtle, catholic. Indeed, over-subtlety and over-catholicity are his dangers. His motto is "Tout comprendre c'est tout justifier"; and though he expressly excepts bad drawing from the list of things so justified, he sometimes comes perilously near forgetting even this exception.

The general aim of these essays, most of which are reprinted from *Scribner's Magazine* and the *Century*, seems to be to point out the stream of classic feeling running through all French art, even that which is most revolutionary. Mr. Brownell knows France and Frenchmen wonderfully well, as his admirable 'French Traits' proved; and his judgment of the French spirit in art is worthy of serious consideration. The way in which the French social sense modifies art in the direction of collectivity and tradition, and away from mere personality and idiosyncrasy, so that there is really a "French School" and not merely French painters and sculptors, is shown by him in a very interesting way. His discussion of the nature of style is admirable, and so is his demonstration of the influence of the Institute in producing the general atmosphere of art from which spring the very artists who revolt against the Institute's control.

His characterization of individual artists and their work is also often very ingenious, and he succeeds remarkably well in conveying the total impression receivable by a person of culture and sympathetic mind from the works he discusses. His characterization of Corot is especially felicitous in this way, and so is that of the painters of the eighteenth century. But it is all (Mr. Brownell must pardon us the word) irredeemably literary. He deals entirely with thought, intention, sentiment, never with *painting*. To those who know pictures as very tangible things, with distinct qualities and differences of form and color and method and handling, it is puzzling to find them volatilizing before their eyes and evaporating into a haze of words. Mr. Brownell's style, always diffuse and indirect, becomes sometimes almost unintelligible in the effort to make subtlety and allusiveness supply the place of definite statement or description; and to read what he has to say about Daubigny, for instance, is to doubt the very existence of that robustly real painter. The effort at translation is too great, and one feels as if one had employed one's time with about the same degree of profit as if one had listened to a painter without musical knowledge trying to describe the effect upon his mind of a Beethoven symphony.

Mr. Brownell's abundant catholicity and his desire to comprehend and justify everything lead him very far—for example, in his praise of Dupré and Diaz as, "of modern painters, perhaps the nearest in spirit to the old masters, pictorially speaking"; of Monticelli, whose fondness for constructing nonsense pictures he calls "that curiously elevated detachment from the material and the real"; and of the "dramatic grandeur" of the "lofty landscape of Michel," for whom the dealers seem to be succeeding in making a reputation, while they are unable to insure any real understanding of or delight in Baudry, whose qualities are so entirely artistic that none but artists are likely to recognize them fully for some years to come.

Such are the defects of our author's qualities. A certain lack of discrimination in praise, and a certain "detachment from the real" which gives his appreciations the aspect of criticism in the air, are almost inevitable by the literary critic who is without that technical sense which enables the artist to distinguish between the genuine and the factitious in any style. Mr. Brownell's discussion of realism is an instance, wherein he seems unable to distinguish between the true realistic temper and mere *trompe-l'œil*, and considers Carolus Duran as a "realist to the core" because of a certain ostentation of lifelikeness in coats and gowns, and in spite of the utter absence of that respect for fact which is the essence of realism. But it is in the discussion of purely technical questions that the weakness of the "lay" critic shows itself most sharply, and such discussion cannot always be avoided. No painter would have been likely to make Mr. Brownell's blunder of choosing Schreyer's grotesquely impossible horse-anatomy as a term of comparison for the measurement of Fromentin's confessed insufficiency of technical training; nor would any painter capable of writing fairly good English have so confused the question of actual as against relative values as Mr. Brownell has done. Here he has hit the right idea, but has chosen his example so badly as to throw darkness rather than light on the subject. "Manet's great distinction," he says, "is to have discovered that the sense of reality is achieved with a thousandfold greater intensity by getting as near as possible to the *actual* rather than resting content with the *relative* value of every detail"; and then he takes up Gérôme's "Éminence Grise" as an example of the older method of reliance on comparative value, and asks "what would happen to this house of cards shored up into verisimilitude by mere *correspondence*, if Gérôme had been asked to cut a window in his staircase and admit the light of out-of-doors into his correspondent but artificial scene." One could not well aim more beside the mark than this. It is in just such pictures as this of Gérôme's, where there is *no* "light of out-of-doors" to struggle with, that the *actual* values of things are, and have always been, imitable and imitated. It would have been after the window was cut through that the system of correspondences and relative values would have come into play, and that Gérôme would, as Rembrandt did, have darkened everything else in his picture and lowered its tone far beyond that of nature to give relative brightness to his window. Manet's discovery, in so far as it was a discovery, was, that he got more of the effect of light by keeping the other objects

as high in value as they really were, and then getting the window lighter if he could, or letting it take care of itself if he could not. We say "in so far as it was a discovery," for, not to speak of the primitives who worked naïvely on this principle without knowing it, Veronese and Velasquez showed a comprehension of it, while Van der Meer pushed it to its fullest perfection and is as modern as Manet. Where the same principle is applied to landscape, and the absolute brightness of out-of-doors as compared with the gallery walls is what is searched for, at some expense of the truth of relations of light and shade in the landscape itself, we get modern "Impressionism"; but even here Van der Meer is ahead of the moderns, as witness his wonderful little "View of Delft" in the gallery of The Hague. The real discovery of Manet and Monet is in color, not in value, and it is in securing the effect of light by its *decomposition* that they have taught something to the world; though even here their practice is an advance on what had been done, or an exaggeration of it, rather than a totally new departure. That the juxtaposition of small particles of pure color produces a vibration which gives more the effect of pure light than does white paint itself, has been dimly felt, if not understood, by all true colorists; and it is in virtue of this fact that Monet gets his effects of dazzling sunlight without really going very high in key, and without any of the "chalkiness" that infects so many of the modern attempts at *plein air*. Only Titian got his vibration by glazing and scumbling and kneading his colors with his fingers, while the Impressionists get theirs by the bolder and more direct manner of hatching and dotting.

With Mr. Brownell's chapters on sculpture we have less fault to find, possibly from less special competence on our own part. He seems to us a trifle unjust to Paul Dubois, but, on the other hand, he is refreshingly cordial in his admiration for that great and insufficiently appreciated artist, Frémiet. In the last chapter, on Rodin and Dalou, there is sounded, for the first time in the volume, something like a note of partisanship. Mr. Brownell is strongly under the influence of Rodin's striking artistic personality, and praises him with a vehemence and lack of discrimination which smacks of the advocate. He is so impressed with Rodin's vivid realism, his command of anatomy, and his wonderful sense of structural significance and structural unity, that he fails to see that artist's equally marked lack of the decorative and architectonic sense, his inability to conceive of a *whole*, the absence in him of the power of composition. He imagines a modern irruption of barbarians who should break to pieces the sculpture of to-day as those of old broke the statues of Greece. "Would anything survive mutilation," he asks, "with the serene confidence in its fragmentary but everywhere penetrating interest which seems to pervade the most fractured fraction of a Greek relief on the Athenian acropolis? Yes, there would be the débris of Auguste Rodin's sculpture." The fragments of Rodin's sculpture would undoubtedly be far more satisfactory than the fragments of any other modern, not merely because they are superb fragments, but because they are *now* nothing else. The "Dante Gate" exists only as a mass of fragments—marvellous fragments, many of them, and worthy of the praise that has been lavished upon them; but no one has ever been able to give any idea of the gate as a whole or of its scheme of decorative composition. The various fragments of the group of the "Burghers of Calais" were hailed with delight when shown separately, but suddenly they were pitchforked together anyhow, and it was revealed that the mighty plan of which they were supposed to be a part did not exist, and that the splendid indications were for ever to remain indications only. "When his Dante portal for the new Palais des Arts Décoratifs shall have been finished"—Mr. Brownell prophesies all sorts of things; but will it ever be finished? We have heard that the commission has been definitively abandoned. In any case, it might not be too bold to predict that the gates will never be set up. No one can model a back as M. Rodin can—with such vital force and such grasp of the interdependencies of bone and muscle and attachment, such play of living flesh, such structural perfection; yet Rodin is a curious example of impuissance, and his lifework seems likely to remain a collection of *disjecta membra*. With a little more of that classic temper which Mr. Brownell has so clearly discerned in French art as a whole, and with a little more respect for tradition and a little more capacity for proceeding on known lines, even if these qualities had been balanced by a little less originality and personal force, he might have produced more lastingly satisfactory art.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

How difficult it is to write fairy tales and wonder-books at the present day, in spite of the marvels of science, or perhaps because of them, is clearly shown in some examples before us. Miss Julia Goddard, in her 'Fairy Tales in Other Lands' (Cassell Publishing Co.), instead of endeavoring to invent new plots, frankly borrows the old ones and transfers them to other climes; that is, she has given us a Chinese "Beauty and the Beast," a Scandinavian "Jack the Giant-Killer," an ocean "Sleeping Beauty," etc. Her versions are not without ingenuity and charm, but alas! the innocent naïveté of the genuine fairy tale is lacking, and Miss Goddard has inflexibly eliminated all love-making and marriage. The Beast turns out to be Beauty's uncle, the kiss that awakens the sleeping princess is imprinted on her cheek by her brother, and Cinderella is adopted by the governor at whose ball she lost her slipper. No child was ever scandalized by the way these stories ended in the good old versions, and if it is deemed wise to suppress all mention of matrimony in the nursery, it would be better to exclude fairy tales altogether than to rewrite them as Miss Goddard has done.

Mr. Lockwood's wonder-book, 'Baron Trump's Marvellous Underground Journey' (Lee & Shepard), deals with the adventures of little Baron von Trump and his dog Bulger in an underground journey which they begin by sliding down a narrow pipe in the north of Russia, and end by being ejected by a geyser five hundred miles from their starting point. They, that is, the Baron and his dog, encounter people with transparent hearts, a blind, deaf, and dumb race, who read the works of the poets with their feet by walking over slabs with raised letters, and a cold-blooded nation called Koltykwerps, and end with the land of the Happy Forgetters. These remarkable people live mostly on fish, and dress in silk obtained from moths inhabiting these underground regions. The present volume seems to be the fourth of a series, which leads the critic to infer that the class of children for whom it was written like it, and, if so, nothing further need be said.

It is a relief to turn to Mr. Jacobs's book, 'Indian Fairy Tales' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). His works are always entertaining and valuable, and his series of fairy books grows in interest with each new volume. After giving us English and Celtic tales, Mr. Jacobs goes this year to India, which to many seems the home of the fairy tale. The stories are of a wide range, from fable and droll to the serious story, and from the hoary antiquity of a Buddhist birth tale to a story taken down but yesterday from the mouths of the people. It is the modern collections which will be found most interesting to children, and which, after all, contain most of the fairy stories, as the older collections consist of fable or apologue, lending itself better to moral instruction than the fairy tale pure and simple. The editor has made a judicious selection, and accompanied it as usual by notes which the children's parents will find pleasant and novel reading. Mr. Jacobs gives a history of the collection of Indian tales, and dwells briefly on the subject of their diffusion throughout Europe. He holds, correctly, we think, that the comic folk-tale or droll of Europe may in almost every case be traced to India. In regard to the fairy tale he is more conservative, and thinks that only those stories common to the Indo-European world (from thirty to fifty per cent. of the whole) have come from India—mainly at the time of the crusades, and chiefly by oral transmission. This, it will be seen, is quite a different thing from the exaggerated view held by some that India is the home of all European folk-tales of every class. To the American reader the most interesting of Mr. Jacobs's notes is the one on the Buddhist birth tale of "The Demon with the Matted Hair," in which he sees the prototype of Uncle Remus's "Tar Baby." It was shown some time ago that the central idea of the "Tar Baby" story was found in South Africa, whence it had probably spread to Brazil, the West Indian Islands, and our own South. It is not impossible, of course, that the African version was obtained from Buddhist missionaries, and that "Brer Rabbit" is an incarnation of Buddha. Has the episode of "adhesiveness" in European folk-tales (Grimm No. 64, "The Golden Goose") any connection with the Buddhist story?

In a very graceful and modest preface to 'Uncle Remus and His Friends' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. Joel Chandler Harris closes his memorable series; and certainly when we are shown the old man at the telephone and the phonograph and in an electric car, Uncle Remus begins to have a *fin de siècle* air preliminary to his translation. Yet we marvel afresh at the delineator's art, his extraordinary versatility in narration, and his ever-extending vocabulary and phraseology. In other words, of exhaustion, either on the part of Mr. Harris or of his material, there is no sign in this final volume, which includes some secular negro songs and some episodes illustrative not of the old plantation, but of present Southern problems and perplexities, such as the exquisite "Some Advice to a Colored Brother," "Views on the African Exodus," "Called to Account by the Preacher," and the "William Henry" adventures. It is curious to notice the consciousness, on Mr. Harris's part, of a certain danger to childish morals from much familiarity with his animal fables. He touches on this in his prelude to "Brer Billy Goat's Dinner," and later on he tells a tale ("The Man and his Boots") expressly by

way of deprecating any confusion "'twix' creetur doin's en folks' doin's." "How de name er goodness," he asks "the little boy," "kin folks go on en steal en tell fibs, like de creeturs done, en not git hurted? Dey des can't do it." It will perhaps be surprising if parents do not at least have to trace prankishness and mischievousness to the same exemplars. Another reflection which occurs to us is, that Mr. Harris has added Uncle Remus to the gallery of popular negro types to which belong Topsy and Uncle Tom. Millions are reading of them all—have been reading of the earlier two for forty years. How much has been done by this means towards breaking down the unchristian prejudice against color? How much will that prejudice be strengthened by introducing to the nursery, through Mr. Harris's classic pages, the word "nigger" used opprobriously (as it is in fact) by colored people one towards another?

Mr. A. J. Mounteney Jephson's 'Stories Told in an African Forest by Grown-up Children of Africa' (Appletons) begin and end with animal fables, the first exhibiting the Rabbit in his customary rôle of cunning prevailing over brute strength. The other tales have an 'Arabian Nights' cast, as was befitting, seeing that they issued from the mouths of Mr. Stanley's Mohammedan Zanzibar followers in their camp in the great forest. They have been well chosen and are related with refinement, and the whole book has a very humanizing influence. Mr. Jephson conveys in an artless manner a clear idea of the camp, the perils of the expedition, the dwarfs and other savages, and thus provides matter which parents can read aloud to their children without tedium and with positive enjoyment. Mr. Buckley's illustrations are good and numerous, but fall somewhat short of Mr. Frost's in the Uncle Remus volume.

Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Green Fairy Book' (Longmans) is his third and last, resembling the Blue and the Red in being a levy upon the tales of all countries in old and in expressly new versions, with illustrations of the stock kind by H. J. Ford. The series is now closed, and the variety and prettiness of it make it exceptionally attractive. Mr. Lang intimates another juvenile project for next year.

The 'Short Stories about Animals,' by Gertrude Sellon (Cassell & Co.), are really fables; the animals acting and talking in a moral, instructive way. The book is full of pictures, of which the black-and-white ones are much the best; the large colored plates are flat and lifeless, and out of harmony with the text besides. A "black colt," for instance, is colored light bay, and a pig which is spoken of as "he" is pictured as a mature female.

Many as the books are which show Mrs. Ewing's influence, few will be found to come so near her own spirit as 'Mum Fidgets,' by Constance Milman (D. Appleton & Co.). The absence of "play to the gallery" of grown folks, the careful finish of style, the genuine refinement in thought and expression, remind us forcibly of Mrs. Ewing, while freedom in plan and detail prevents the disagreeable effect that comes from slavish copying of a model.

Another one of the same series, "The Dainty Books," this time 'For Grown-Up Children,' is by Mrs. L. B. Walford, and is not inferior to its companion volume. Four short stories are bound up together, "The Difficulty of a Darling" heading the list—a simple tale of generous giving, and equally unselfish receiving of an unwelcome gift, so well told that we could wish nothing changed but the name.

Three books by well-known authors ask for a word of notice, though they mark no new departure. A robust constitution, we fancy, will be needed by any one who intends to follow Mrs. Laura E. Richards's young heroine through a third volume, for 'Hildegarde's Home' (Estes & Lauriat) shows her as tiresomely vivacious as ever. She runs, jumps, exclaims, and claps her hands almost without relief, except when she is "crying quietly." In 'Scenes in Fairyland,' by J. C. Atkinson (Macmillan & Co.), a certain Miss Mary, with her friend Mr. Greenbeard, visits the fairies under ground. All the appurtenances of the fairy court are described with particularity, while the credit of the book with overwise children is guarded by allowing the surmise that the underground visits were only a series of dreams. John Kendrick Bangs offers another book of the 'Alice in Wonderland' type. 'In Camp with a Tin Soldier' (R. H. Russell & Son) might be welcomed as an amusing bit of nonsense if it were not such a flagrant imitation (and not the first its author has perpetrated) of a book which owed its principal charm to its originality.

In his 'Stories from the Greek Comedians,' Prof. Church continues the series which began with 'The Story of the Iliad,' and condenses for young people most of the remaining plays of Aristophanes, together with specimens of the "New Comedy," the latter, of course, coming through Terence and Plautus. To one acquainted with these plays, the undertaking seems risky and unpromising, yet Mr. Church has performed it with great discretion and success. His style is spirited and idiomatic, and his sketches are capital reading for clever young people, or for older persons once caught in his snare. The "Chautauqua Circle" might do well to look into them; if they do, let them remember that Phylæ (see note, p 233) should be spelled Phyle. The book itself, with its handsome pages and its colored illustrations after Flaxman, reminds one of French work in point of cheapness and good taste.

'The Fortunes of Toby Trafford' (Lee & Shepard), by J. T. Trowbridge, is a vigorously told, thoroughly interesting story of a boy by no means perfect, but an honest, manly, self-reliant young fellow, who, having a good deal to fight against, achieves a well-merited success. There are few exciting incidents, the interest of the story depending wholly upon the way in which Toby defeated the evil designs of his enemies. Most of the subordinate characters are distinctly drawn, and some of them, as the teacher and Mildred, are only less attractive than the hero himself.

'Through the Wilds' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), by Capt. Charles A. J. Farrar, is an account of the tour of four boys through the Rangeley Lakes and the region adjacent, including a part of the White Mountains and the Dixville Notch. From a certain lack of imagination in the author and the particularity with which the daily doings of the party are related, even their meals being frequently mentioned, the book, as a story, is hardly successful. But it will doubtless awaken a strong desire in most readers to visit a most picturesque part of New England. In this case the book would prove useful, as it shows carefully how the various points of interest can best be seen, though, as the tour was taken nine years ago, we are left in some doubt as to whether or not the conditions are still existing. The best fishing and hunting places are indicated and there are some useful hints about camping and cooking in the woods; but the main object of the book is the description of routes. We are surprised that no map of the region is given, as even with an ordinary map at our elbow we found it impossible to trace the boys' course. Some of the illustrations are excellent, while others are execrable.

'Adrift in a Great City' (Macmillan), by M. E. Winchester, is a pathetic story of child-life in England. A boy, the heir of a large property, is carried away through various misfortunes when only five years old, first to an humble lodging in a suburb of Liverpool, and afterwards to a cellar near the docks. In telling of the more than four years spent in the slums, the author uses very skilfully the opportunity of picturing the life of the gutter children. While dwelling necessarily upon the frequent hunger, cold, and general misery chiefly caused by intemperance, to which they are exposed, the author does not hesitate to affirm, we believe truthfully, that there is much real happiness in the life of these children. This part of the story cannot fail to arouse the sympathy of its young readers in the very poor of our great cities, and lead many to a genuine interest in the efforts to aid them. Very touching also, we may add, and true to nature, is the description of the gradual awakening of the old memories in the child's mind, in which music plays a prominent part, and of the final train of circumstances which leads him and his faithful dog back to their old home.

Hezekiah Butterworth has given the title 'In the Boyhood of Lincoln' (D. Appleton & Co.) to "A Tale of the Tunker Schoolmaster and the Times of Black Hawk." He calls it "a true picture in a framework of fiction," but it does not impress us as being a true picture of the boyhood of Lincoln. It has not the accent of reality which we find in the account which Herndon and Lamon give of that boyhood, or even Hay and Nicolay, and this notwithstanding the fact that all that is best in the book, all that is vitally concerned with Lincoln, is lifted bodily from Herndon's book. That idealizing temper which gave us the cherry-tree Washington in Weems's Life and much subsequent biography, almost spoiling the Father of his Country for many of his children, is evidently at work on Lincoln. The most elaborate Life of him yet issued is written in the spirit of the statues of him in New York and Brooklyn, which try to cover up the actual man with tailor's clothes. Mr. Butterworth's representation of Lincoln's mother as "a woman of deep inward experiences and subjective ideas," also as "a mystic," will, perhaps, cause those to smile who are the best informed. The vehicle which Mr. Butterworth has chosen for his narration does not impress us as fortunate. The Tunker schoolmaster is an ineffable bore. Such a life as that of Lincoln cannot, of course, be guarded against the writer of fiction, but it must be one of the greatest who can improve upon the simple facts. The best page in the book is that facing p. 262. It is a picture of Lincoln from a photograph taken in 1858, two years before he marred his countenance with a scrubby beard. It is the same picture that is a frontispiece in vol. i. of the new edition of Herndon's 'Life of Lincoln,' and reproduces very well the photograph that is magnificently interpreted in Krueli's famous series. The illustrations generally are a happy feature of the book. The anticipation of the man's face in the boy's is remarkably well done, and best of all in the picture called "Abraham as a Peace-Maker," which anticipates the man's face as it lighted up with feeling in his public speech, when it was very different from its appearance in repose.

Mr. Charles Carleton Coffin, in his 'Abraham Lincoln' (Harper & Bros.), does not make his appeal avowedly, as heretofore, to young people, and especially to boys; but the manner of his book is the same as that of his former books, and, with the exception of the earlier chapters, is virtually an abridgment of what we have had before in his four quartos on the civil war. It is written in their scrappy manner, with their entire lack of charm of style, but with the advantage of the author's having been conversant with a great many of the persons and events involved. As a war correspondent he saw something of Lincoln, and it was his special good fortune to go down to Richmond when Lincoln visited the conquered city a few weeks before his death. Hence there is frequently an intimacy in the touch which tells for good upon his story. In his account of Lincoln's lite there is little evidence of original research. The tracing of his ancestry to the Lincolns of Hingham, Mass., will not bear the weight of critical investigation. The strength of a chain is in its weakest link, and several of the links of this chain are as weak as possible. In the treatment of Lincoln's boyhood there is the same disinclination to face the hard and cruel facts of the utter sordidness and misery of his environment that we find elsewhere; and especially is his own mother, Nancy Hanks, spoken of in a reverential way which finds little countenance in Lincoln's own disinclination to speak of her at all. One particular of Mr. Coffin's method goes far to give his narrative a pleasurable vivacity—we mean his throwing of a great deal of it into the dialogue form; but this part can, of course, least of all be trusted as a faithful mirror of actual occurrences. On page 294 there is an incorrect account of the origin of Whittier's poem,

> "We wait beneath the furnace blast
> The pangs of transformation."

This was written before Frémont's proclamation, and appeared in the *Independent* in July, 1861. In Whittier's arrangement of his poems it precedes his poem to Frémont, and is referred to no special incident.

Mr. Coffin's book is rich in illustrations. The most admirable are portraits which we have seen before in Mr. Higginson's larger 'History of the United States' and elsewhere. The picture of Lincoln and "Tad," on page 407, is called "Sunday Afternoon"—a pleasing fiction, for the book on Lincoln's knees is evidently not a Bible but a large photograph album. From such pictures as those of Grant and Sheridan to some of the poorest the descent is more considerable than should have been allowed. The frontispiece portrait of Lincoln, which should certainly have been as good as any, is unfortunately one of the very worst.

EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY DIPLOMACY.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol XV., Nos. 1451 to 1544. London: B. F. Stevens.

A PART of the fifteenth volume of this series is taken up with the continuation of the correspondence between Lord Stormont and Lord Weymouth in March, April, and May, 1777, and with other Parisian matters of the same dates; another part with the theft of Arthur Lee's papers at Berlin. That fractious envoy, accompanied by a Mr. Sayre, visited the Prussian capital in the summer of 1777 in the hope of inducing Frederick the Great to assist the struggling Republic of the United States. The proceedings of these Americans were watched with interest by the English authorities, and, on the 9th of May, Hugh Elliot, the Minister of Great Britain at the Prussian court, was warned by Lord Suffolk, the Secretary of State for the Northern Department, to give every proper attention to their conduct and the impression which it might make (1452).

Hugh Elliot was an eager young man, only twenty-five years old, and well connected in England. He now saw his chance to make a bold stroke. By means of a German domestic of his own, he bribed the servant at the inn where the American agent lodged, and, having heard that the latter had long entered in a journal at night the transactions of every day, determined to possess himself of that journal. He was informed that Lee kept it in a writing-case, which was sometimes locked and sometimes not, but that the door of the chamber was always locked when Lee was absent. Elliot's first step was to get false keys made both of the door and of the bureau which contained the writing-case. Then, hearing that both Lee and Sayre were going out of town, where they generally stayed until eleven at night, he sent the German servant to bring off the papers. But strangers were just arrived at the inn, and the man could not get in at the door; he therefore entered the room at the window of the first floor, opened the bureau with his key, and brought the writing-case away out of the window, without being seen except by one of the people who were bribed. This was about four o'clock in the afternoon. Mr. Elliot was at dinner with several English gentlemen when the servant arrived with the stolen papers. The gentlemen were all enjoined to the most sacred secrecy, and set to copying instantly, while Mr. Elliot went about to pay visits and show himself. This he did till eight o'clock in the evening, when he called at the inn on the pretence of visiting Lord Russborough, who was staying there. He found both Lee and Sayre, that moment arrived and with Lord Russborough, and, knowing the papers not to be yet replaced, had no resource but to join them and to endeavor to amuse them with conversation. This he did for nearly two hours, without any introduction or acknowledgment of each other's names, but merely as men happening to meet who spoke the same language. About ten o'clock Mr. Lee got up and said he must go to write, and soon afterwards Elliot heard a violent clamor in the house, of a robbery, the loss of papers, etc. He now drove home, and, finding the most material part of the papers copied, resolved to send back the whole parcel immediately. They were accordingly delivered by Mr. Elliot himself disguised, late that night, to the mistress of the inn, who was in the plot, and who said they were brought by a porter who left them and ran off. Elliot took the precaution of sending away his own servant, who actually had done the stealing, post-haste to Hamburg, outside of Prussian jurisdiction (1468).

The stolen papers appear to have been nineteen in number, and to have included chiefly the not very interesting correspondence of Lee with Frederick's Minister, and some French and Spanish matters. The information conveyed to the British Ministry was not very valuable. The incident is interesting, however, as showing the tone of diplomatic morality of the day. And first for the Englishmen concerned. Here is Hugh Elliot's report to Lord Suffolk of his subsequent proceedings:

"Such strong suspicions had fallen upon a servant of mine who was actually employed in bringing them to me, that I thought it my duty to take a step I had previously resolved upon in case a discovery was likely to be made. I waited upon the Minister, and declared that what had happened had been occasioned by my imprudence in having shown too great inquisitiveness concerning Mr. Lee and Mr. Sayre; that a person employed to give an account of their motions had from over-officiousness committed this unwarrantable action, that though the papers had been sent back as soon as I knew what had been done, yet I felt myself so much to blame that I could not help begging leave to represent to his Prussian Majesty, either in person or through the Minister, that my court had no knowledge of this affair, that I alone was in fault, and that if his Prussian Majesty chose, I was ready to ask my recall, and to submit to any decision he might think proper to give.

"The day after I received for answer that the King could not help looking on what had been done as *fort vif et fort précipité*: that as I had declared my court was totally ignorant of this affair, *il ne la releverait pas*, but advised me to take care that nothing of the kind should happen for the future.

"If I might be allowed to express to your Lordship what appears to me becoming of his Majesty's dignity upon this occasion, I should not hesitate to beg that I might be ordered to tell either the King of Prussia himself or his Minister that although the King of England is sensible of the indulgence shown me by his Prussian Majesty, yet he disapproves of my conduct in this business, and his Majesty offers to nominate another in my place if I have made myself disagreeable to his Prussian Majesty. Whether this will be accepted or not I cannot determine with certainty, tho' I am rather inclined to think it will not. I make no apology to your Lordship for having risked everything when I thought his Majesty's interest so essentially concerned. I knew that by the sacrifice of an individual every publick inconvenience could be prevented; and as I have not scrupled to make that sacrifice when called upon, I flatter myself I have not forfeited your Lordship's protection or my sovereign's approbation.

"Mr. Liston will inform your Lordship, that matters were so arranged as to make it appear that I had not had time to peruse the papers, and will explain in full every circumstance of this affair.

"I am much obliged to Sir Trevor Corry, Mr. Barnier, and Mr. Liston for their assistance in copying the papers. The expence incurred by gaining some, silencing others, and different articles, amounts to five hundred pounds" (1465).

Such was Hugh Elliot's official account, and such was the story he wanted the world to believe. More than twenty years afterwards he made the acquaintance of John Quincy Adams in Dresden, and, after observing that the matter of Lee's papers "was now a circumstance that might with full freedom be talked of as a mere historical occurrence," he solemnly declared that the seizure of Mr. Lee's papers was not made by his orders; that it was entirely the act of an officious servant, who thought to do him a service by it; that when the papers were brought to him he did look them over indeed, and found among them only two of any consequence—one the draft of an unfinished treaty with Spain, and the other a letter from Frederick the Second, or one of his Ministers, promising that if any great Power in Europe would set the example of acknowledging the independence of the United States, he would be the first to follow it. "I am inclined to believe," adds Mr. Adams, "that this account is true, and I was pleased to see the anxiety with which Mr. E—— wished to remove the imputation of having premeditated that act of violence." (J. Q. Adams, 'Letters on Silesia,' p. 257.)

While the story about the officious servant was being put about in Prussia, Mr. Liston,

one of the gentlemen who had copied the papers, was sent to England by a circuitous route with the copies and requested to tell the true story to Mr. Eden, who was brother-in-law of Mr. Elliot, and was a confidential agent of the British Ministry for American affairs. Mr. Eden reported the particulars to Lord Suffolk, who replied on the 14th of July:

"I have ruminated much on Elliot's Adventure—and think it won't end as quietly as he imagines. His secret is in too many hands. I applaud his Zeal, but I don't mightily affect a Dasher; and tho' I wish to encourage the former, I by no means wish to encourage the latter. All steps whatever relative to this strange Business must wait my Return" (1471).

And again Suffolk writes on the 18th of the month:

"I return Elliot's papers which are curious. But, tho' his Zeal & activity merit notice, his Indiscretion has been excessive! and I cannot persuade myself that there is an end of the Business—if he could not have succeeded in his adventure without confiding it and *such Communications as were involved in it*, to such men as Sir Trevor Corry & young Harvey, He certainly might have had Prudence enough to have desisted: I tremble for the future conduct of such a Quixot" (1473).

On the 1st of August his Lordship sent Mr. Elliot a strongly worded letter, a regular official scolding, evidently intended to be shown (1477); but in October he wrote again, and announced to him a gift from the King of £1,000 (twice the amount which Elliot said he had expended), in consideration of his loyal zeal and of his great expenses in the business, and in proof that the exceptionable circumstances thereof were entirely overlooked (1482).

Meanwhile the affair had attracted the notice of other courts. Lee and Sayre had been loud in their outcries and denunciations. The French Minister at the court of Berlin had reported to the Count of Vergennes in Paris and received the comments of the latter on the news:

"The event which you report is worthy of the sensation which it has excited, that of the strongest indignation, whether the act be considered in itself or in relation to the person who promoted it. That a public minister should condescend to have the lock of a bureau picked, in order to get information which he believes it be important to obtain, is an outrage which secrecy and success would not justify. But as Mr. Elliot had acknowledged himself the promoter of the burglarious robbery of the papers of the Americans who are at Berlin, the King of Prussia had no other course to take than to stop the progress of legal proceedings which thenceforth ceased to have an object; but I do not doubt, sir, that His Prussian Majesty has complained of it to the court of London, which can not refuse him complete and authentic satisfaction" (1474).

The King of Prussia was free enough in his own expressions. He wrote to the Count of Maltzan, his Minister to the Court of St. James, as follows:

"POTSDAM, 30 June, 1777. . . . I have received nothing from you by the last regular post. But I cannot refrain from informing you of a singular and bold piece of vivacity and foolishness on the part of the Chevalier Elliot. That minister has gone so far as to have one of his servants carry off the writing-case of Lee, the American, from his bureau at the Corsica Inn, at Berlin, and, when trouble was made about the theft, he not only carried the writing-case back to the American, but he also came himself and acknowledged the theft to my cabinet ministry, with all its accompanying circumstances, and added various bad excuses to color the share he had taken in it. This is indeed what is called a public theft; and if I had cared to make him feel the resentment which the law of nations allows me, and which he deserved in every respect, I should have immediately forbidden his appearance at my court. But as he acknowledged his wrong-doing himself, and as he submitted his person and his fate to my disposal and my generosity, I did not care to push the thing rigorously, and I only let him know by my ministry how irregular and revolting his conduct is.

"Meanwhile, such is the minister that the court where you are has chosen, to reside at mine, and you will judge for yourself what are the feelings that such a trick must cause here, and how we must look on the Chevalier Eliiot. In Bute's school such pupils are formed

'By the very hand of the King.'

Oh! Bute's worthy scholar! Oh! the incomparable man your goddam Elliot is! Truly the English ought to blush with shame at sending such ministers to foreign courts."

Moltke: His Life and Character, sketched in journals, letters, memoirs, a novel, and autobiographical notes. Translated by Mary Herms, with illustrations from drawings by Moltke, portraits, and facsimile letters. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. xi, 332.

THIS volume is uniform with Moltke's 'Franco-Prussian War' and his letters to his mother and other near relatives, though they are not numbered as a series. The purpose of the editor (Moltke's nephew) to let the great soldier speak for himself, is the ruling one in this as well as in the preceding volume, though some documents are introduced which were written by other hands. One's first impulse is to question whether any satisfactory notion of Moltke's personality can be got from a collection of papers such as these; but as we read on, we find that the plan justifies itself, and that his character grows upon us as trait after trait is shown by his own expressions in his own words, and we close the book at last with a strong sense of acquaintance with the man himself.

The dominant characteristic in Moltke's mind was evidently a lucid precision. He will be content with nothing which is not well defined, with no knowledge that is not exact. Vagueness he cannot abide; he insists that his premises shall be solid and definite, and then he works out his conclusions with logical force and certainty. This is apparent in his earliest letters, and it is strikingly so in his latest intellectual effort, his thoughts on life and the future—a brief paper which he had recast and condensed several times, and which was found on his desk after his death. It is pathetic evidence of the strength of his impulse to think clearly, even on matters which most stubbornly resist sharp definition.

The same trait is beautifully shown in the reproductions of his original sketches of scenes in Silesia, in the Danube Valley, and in Turkey. These are all drawn in line, but we look in vain for a hesitating purpose or a doubtful touch. His fingers obeyed a will that was absolute, and were trained to a skill that excluded the possibility of slip between thought and execution. This series of drawings is extremely interesting as pictures, having a great deal of true artistic feeling; but their greatest value is in their illustration of the thoroughness of Moltke's subordination of every phase of his education to the military purpose which dominated his life. He evidently looks upon them as aids to his topographical study of the regions he traversed and part of the military reconnoissance of the kingdoms he visited. They, as well as the text of his journals and letters, show that he was thoroughly alive to natural beauty of scenery, and must have felt deep pleasure in reproducing it in sketches or in words; but it was not for the pleasure that the work was done. Duty was the incentive, though he rejoiced that so much of beauty and of pleasure could be found in the path of duty.

His habits were simple and unostentatious, and, though he knew how to take dignified part in the most important public ceremonies, his eagerness to throw off all trammels and to return to the most informal private life shows itself constantly. His ardent desire for a country home was gratified when he bought his Silesian estate of Creisau, and there the last years of his life were chiefly spent. He eagerly returned to his tree-planting and his farm management whenever he could get away from the duties of army headquarters at Berlin.

The marvel of his life is the tenacious vitality which enabled him to run a great career after he had reached the age when most men retire from active work. He was sixty-six when he directed the campaign against Austria, seventy when he conducted the French war, and still had before him twenty years of constant and fruitful work, till his wonderful organization stopped at last, without sickness or suffering, because the limits of human powers had long been passed. For his military character and genius we must look to the history of Prussia's wars; but in these volumes we come near to the man himself, and learn that true greatness is quite consistent with an almost childlike simplicity and modesty which made Moltke an object of devoted love to all who were close to him.

The World's Metal Monetary Systems. By John Henry Norman. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

UNDER this title Mr. Norman has gathered together in one volume a number of papers contributed to various periodicals during recent years. From his preface the reader is led to anticipate a lucid statement of the present condition of monetary science and an exposition of its recognized truths; but the book is necessarily fragmentary, there is a lack of coherence between its parts, and there is an amount of repetition which is exceedingly wearisome. Moreover, it is essential that a writer who deals with such subjects should be able to state his case clearly, whereas Mr. Norman candidly admits that if his doctrines fail of general acceptance, it can only be because of his lack of perspicuity. And, in truth, his style is obscure, his propositions do not follow each other in any natural sequence, and his constant reference to his other writings, with names of publishers, etc., savors somewhat of Mr. Wanamaker's methods of advertising. It is pleasant, however, to be able to record the fact that Mr. Norman is entirely sound on all fundamental points, and that he gracefully acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Cleveland, Prof. Sumner, and other distinguished Americans for the light they have shed over the dark places of the currency question.

Mr. Norman's claim to originality is based on what he calls his unit-of-weight system. He informs us that in 1888 he sent a memorandum of his views to a number of eminent financial authorities, with an earnest request that they would confute or confirm his doctrines, and that he received but one reply. In face of this somewhat chilling reception he feels that he is under a moral obligation to let the world know the "simplicity, beauty, and power" of the unit-of-weight system. It is recorded of a certain Oxford undergraduate that, having with much labor mastered the theory of the action of the common pump, he endeavored, with very limited success, to ap-

ply this theory to the solution of all the other mathematical problems that fell to his lot. We are reminded of this story by the hopeful earnestness with which Mr. Norman offers his unit-of-weight system as a panacea for the cure of all financial ills. Theories are very useful things, and there is much to be said in favor of this particular theory, but men of business will understand why Mr. Norman's eagerness to explain his views, in season and out of season, has rendered him a *persona non grata* in London bank parlors. Whether he is entitled to the entire credit of originating the unit-of-weight system, or whether he should share it with Soetbeer and others, is not a question of serious importance. As a matter of fact the germ of the idea is as old as the book of Genesis.

But Mr. Norman fails to show that the application of the system to practical exchange operations would be productive of any marked advantages to the world of commerce. Any schoolboy can make exchange calculations with the aid of the elaborate tables now in general use, and it does not appear that Mr. Norman's theory would appreciably facilitate such calculations. He very justly holds that the only scientific way of quoting exchange is by premium or discount on one factor, that factor being the weight of pure gold or silver in the standard coins of different countries; and he looks to America to initiate this reform in commercial methods. But he is evidently not aware that a determined effort was made some twelve years ago to adopt this system of quotation in the New York market, and that it was abandoned as inconvenient after a ten days' trial. In this instance the scientific method did not commend itself to those most largely interested in the matter. Of course the real difficulty in exchange operations is not within the reach of any cambist, and is not touched by Mr. Norman's theory. Its successful solution involves knowledge of credits and of multitudinous operations in merchandise and securities which are not to be found—as chess-players say—"in the books," and which are more complex than the action of the common pump.

Incidentally Mr. Norman has a good deal to say about silver, and what he says is very much to the point. He quotes Ricardo's axiom that the cost of production must ultimately regulate the price of commodities, and he naturally applies it to silver, which is today being produced in different localities at a cost of 25 to 50 cents per ounce, as against a market price, resulting from insane legislation, of 85 cents per ounce. In reply to the bimetallists' argument that the fall in prices of commodities is due to a rise in the value of gold, he asks, very pertinently, why there has not been a similar fall in the prices of gold securities.

At the present moment, when the relation between gold and silver is the one financial question of supreme importance, and when such crass ignorance on the subject has to be combated, we may welcome any book which inculcates such eminently sound views. The defects we have pointed out are unfortunate, but do not seriously impair the value of Mr. Norman's contribution to monetary science.

Neohellenica: An Introduction to Modern Greek in the form of Dialogues, containing specimens of the language from the third century B. C. to the present day. By Prof. Michael Constantinides. Macmillan & Co.

THIS work will be found invaluable to the student of modern as well as of comparative Greek, for it contains excellent examples of transitional epochs of the language from the earliest times down to the present, with an almost word-for-word translation on the same page. The range of subjects and style is very varied, beginning with passages from different versions of the Bible compared, from the Chronicon Paschale, 610 A.D.; Leo Grammaticus, 1013, and so on through the succeeding centuries, with extracts from history, popular songs in the different dialects of the demotic, proverbs, fairy-tales, enigmas, translations from Homer, Dante, Shakspere in the popular language. The dialogues interpolated in these extracts, which distinguish themselves in most books of this class by being so devoid of sense and so hopelessly unfit for common use, are in this case full of information interesting to travellers. Many of the questions a foreigner would inevitably put as to manners and customs, the growth of the language, the metres of modern Greek poetry, the priests, monks, and nuns, and the orthodox faith are answered here. Any one having a fair knowledge of classical Greek could, by the help of Prof. Constantinides' book, thoroughly understand the modern language as it is written by the best writers, although he might still feel puzzled by the circumlocutions and the pretentious style of Athenian newspapers. It is indeed difficult for any foreigner to understand the involved phraseology in which the commonest news is conveyed, or to seize at a glance the meaning of words coined as occasion requires to meet the most modern inventions; and in this no dictionary exists to help him.

A letter of the learned Philippos Johannou upon the modern Greek language, with which this volume begins, explains the difficulties that existed when, recovering from the demoralization of their long servitude, the Greeks, towards the beginning of this century, found it necessary to reconstruct their language so that it should become in common use a national tongue. There were three different opinions as to how this should be accomplished, the first being that the prevalent language of the common people should be adopted, as having spontaneously formed itself. This was objected to as being too restricted in expression for the scientific development of the nation. Others advocated that there should be a return to classical Greek; while the third opinion was that, while the ancient forms of speech were inadequate to meet our modern requirements, and the vernacular too wanting in precision and form, an emendated language, having the spoken tongue, purified of its corruptions, for its basis, should be formed, in accordance with ancient grammatical rules as far as practicable; and this third opinion was shared by the majority of the learned Greeks, although the limiting of this adaptation proved an endless source of discussion among them till the war of independence made them exchange the pen for the sword, which they all used in the common cause.

As soon as the Greeks had gained their independence, the need of an established language was felt still more keenly, and the discussions between those who advocated the adoption of the demotic and those who desired to return to an approximation to ancient Greek rekindled. It was evident to all that the confusion of mixing ancient forms with modern vulgarisms then prevailing could not be tolerated. Johannou's objections to the adoption of the popular tongue are, that the variety of local dialects would create great difficulties; the absence of grammatical form in these and the prevalence of mutilated expressions made it impossible to choose any; and the sanctioning of each in its own province or island would mean giving up a common language. The other alternative, of returning to ancient Greek, he condemns equally. We quote from the translation of his letter:

"The vocabulary of ancient Greek is utterly insufficient to express the innumerable ideas with which the progress of the arts and sciences from ancient times to the present day has enriched the human intellect; there is therefore an absolute necessity for the creation of innumerable new words to express those modern ideas. But in this case the ancient Greek language remains no longer really ancient; it will resemble an antique statue which has been clothed to meet the requirements of modern fashion, or furnished with a gun, a telescope, or a microscope, etc. By the ancient Greek language, then, we are obliged to understand that only its form is here meant —that is to say, its grammar."

He continues to explain how many forms of this grammar have become quite strange to the people, and the syntax absolutely unintelligible; the diffuseness of modern languages being common also to vernacular Greek, which, by means of prepositions, expresses many relations shown by terminations in the ancient tongue, but more usually resolves participles into relative, causal, hypothetical, adversative, and other clauses. "The correct use of the moods of the active and middle voice of verbs, and also of many particles, demands an amount of subtle discrimination which is beyond the power of the mental perception of the common people. The ancient Greek language being of this character, it is impossible to believe that it will ever become intelligible to them, and out of the question that it can become their vernacular." Johannou therefore counsels young men following a higher course of education to study the ancient language for the uses of poetry, and "such works as are composed for the use of the learned." He proposes that some common language should be agreed upon suitable for teaching from the pulpit, for parliamentary debates, for legislation, etc., etc. He insists that this language should not be strange to the mass of the people, but formed from their own spoken language, purified of barbarisms and alien words, and reduced to simple grammatical form.

Thirty years have gone by since Johannou wrote thus concerning the national language. In the meantime, judging from the Athenian newspapers of to-day, the more ambitious opinion, for approaching as much as possible to ancient Greek, has largely prevailed, and Johannou's strenuous injunctions as to the unreasonableness of writing so as not to be understood by the people have been lost sight of. We doubt whether the Athenian hall porter derives as much information as he might do from the newspapers which pass through his hands, though, like all the Greek populace, he has an intense admiration for fine and sonorous language. There still exists a party of learned men who prefer the demotic—among them D. Bikélas, who has translated several of Shakspere's plays very successfully into the vernacular. This would go far to prove that its resources are not so limited as the advocates for a return to ancient forms pretend. Spiridion Tricoupis's 'History of the Greek Revolution' is a work which may be considered a standard example of the demotic language.

Prof. Constantinides gives a selection of klephtic and popular songs in different dialects. We regret that in many instances he has preferred giving us published English metrical

versions more or less exact rather than the word-for-word translations so much more useful to the student.

Selections from the Letters of Geraldine Endsor Jewsbury to Jane Welsh Carlyle. Edited by Mrs. Alexander Ireland. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. xviii, 443.

MRS. CARLYLE was a woman whom it must have been a liberal education to love, and whose bestowal of intimate friendship was the highest kind of credential to the recipient. Miss Jewsbury's best claim to remembrance has thus far been the fact that Mrs. Carlyle called her "my most intimate friend in the world." This distinction was clearly due to Miss Jewsbury's talent for friendship, amounting almost to genius. At her "works" Mrs. Carlyle herself indulged in gentle sarcasm, and now these letters come to furnish new proof that the bond of union was not so much intellectual as emotional. They reveal a woman whose point of view is well shown in her belief that a "passionate sensibility" is the noblest endowment of man, and whose life was so morbidly centred in the affections that one can understand how Mrs. Carlyle's Ann would have been so impressed by her lack of practicality as to say of her, "Miss can write books, but I'm sure it's the only thing she's fit for." This volume has an undoubted right to occupy a corner in the Carlyle literature, though as a whole, and in itself alone, it makes tedious work for one who tries to keep the run of all Miss Jewsbury's lovers and loves, and to get at the few flashes of genuine wit in the prevailing sentiment and commonplace. This tediousness is no doubt heightened by the needless mystification of the editing. The names of persons are almost always left blank, though many of them can be easily identified by reference to Mrs. Carlyle's published letters. This shows that their suppression was not necessary, at least not in all cases, out of motives of delicacy, and surely the reader had a right to be spared the frequent occurrence of passages like the following: "Dr. —— told me at Mrs. ——'s on Wednesday that he wanted to bring Mr. ——, Mr. ——, and M. —— on Saturday. So accordingly, about five o'clock, Mr. —— and another man arrived, whom I affectionately greeted for ——, but it proved to be ——" (p. 219).

Life in Motion; or, Muscle and Nerve. By John Gray McKendrick. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. 200.

THESE pages on the motions of living matter make a really excellent introduction to the study of animal physiology. They are in the form of half-a-dozen lectures, models of simplicity and precision, the conciseness and clearness of which are greatly enhanced by numerous illustrations of the apparatus with which the conclusions were reached and proved. If in original delivery charms of voice and manner were added to present attraction, this course undoubtedly met with a success far beyond the average. From beginning to end electricity is used as a stimulant or an excitant by means of which the motions of life are determined in muscle and nerve. Not much is said regarding its similarity or relationship to what is ordinarily termed the nervous force of the living body, but there is not a little that is highly suggestive of affinity, especially in the culmination, where, among electric eels and other types, certain muscles are shown to be transformed into batteries for the production or use of this agent. Molecular motion is exhibited in chemical mixtures and in crystallization, is made perceptible in vibrations, and its effects are set forth in the phenomena of magnetism. Thus defining his subject and introducing his powerful assistant, still known only through results, the lecturer passes to the discussion of the structure and properties of muscle and nerve—the contractions, elasticity, nourishment, respiration, work, fatigue, latent periods, sounds, heat, etc., of the one, and the cells, fibres, endings, and currents, with their rapidity, energy, duration, or effects, of the other. Approaching reflex action and voluntary motion, the electrical phenomena of muscle are considered, and the batteries of Torpedo, Gymnotus, and different forms are explained; but the author concludes just where he seems to be within reach of the mental features. To the question where the impulses sent inward on the nerves are arranged and transmitted, whether in the spinal cord, the cerebellum, the cerebrum, or the nervous system as a whole, he has no ready reply. In regard to the manifestations in general he remarks:

"All these phenomena are undoubtedly connected with molecular movement. Such movements occur even in the brain itself, and there is little doubt they are also associated with all mental phenomena. It does not follow, however, that mental phenomena are the result of such movements alone. Wider knowledge strengthens the view that behind mental phenomena, and indeed behind all phenomena, there is something more than movements of matter and transformations of energy."

Afloat and Ashore on the Mediterranean. By Lee Meriwether. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

MR. MERIWETHER'S books have a novel interest and a matter-of-fact style, and this, the third of his travel narratives, describing an economic trip along various parts of the northern shores and islands of the Mediterranean, begins with Lisbon, where the author landed. The most original chapters are those which deal with the southwestern Italian coast and its islands, and the Grecian Archipelago, which were visited in a common Neapolitan lateen sail-boat thirty-four feet long. The bicycle was used along the Riviera and in a part of Italy. The Balearic Isles, Corsica, Sardinia, the Adriatic, and Northern Africa excepting Tangier, Ceuta, Alexandria, and Cairo, are neglected. There is much detailed information of permanent value on the management of prisons and convicts in Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Greece. Droll incidents and some romance are not lacking to counterbalance this serious side. The author met with hard luck at Smyrna among Turkish officials, and was compelled to travel from that port to Alexandria as a deck passenger, experiencing *en route* a fifty-hours' fast because of his food being stolen. Many out-of-the-way and quaint places and localities are described. The trip was made on rugged lines, likely to be followed by a limited number; for few are so competent to use, or care to be burdened with, the trusty club and revolver, and it is hardly in the average traveller's philosophy to brave the risks and irritating discomforts of cheap inns.

The book well sustains its interest and is without padding. There are some few exaggerations and pardonable errors. It is Lieut. Kelly, U. S. N., not Dr. Kelly, from whom he quotes yacht descriptions; nor can we quite approve Mr. Meriwether's use of the word "Herculanean" in discussing seriously the work of transforming the poor quarter of Naples. The original illustrations are from "snap-shots," and are placed without relation to the text. During the time of his great misery on the forward deck, crowded in with Orientals and Russian Jews, Mr. Meriwether once "kodaked a kodaker," a first-class passenger, who remarked, "By Jove, if that fellow hasn't stolen a kodak!" There is a competent index.

Some Strange Corners of Our Country. By Charles F. Lummis. The Century Co. 1892.

ALTHOUGH these sketches were primarily intended for the rising generation, yet children of a larger growth may consult them with pleasure and profit. This, however, is but scant praise, for without exaggeration it may be truly said that we know of no volume in which, without the least apparent effort at being instructive, there is packed away, within the same compass, a greater amount of information about the southwestern portion of our country and its people. Divided according to the subjects of which they treat, the sketches will naturally fall into two classes. In one, our author brings before us in somewhat vivid language, but with as little use of superlatives as the case would seem to admit, pictures of the cañon of the Colorado, the petrified forest of Arizona, Montezuma's well, and other notable features in the scenery of that region. In the other, he makes us acquainted with some of the arts, customs, ceremonies, and superstitions of the Pueblo Indians, and adds thereto an account of the self-crucifiers—a degenerate branch of the order of Franciscans, which has been repeatedly excommunicated, and, according to Bandelier, is now on the decline.

As these sketches are all good, it would be invidious in us to make selections among them for special notice, and we content ourselves with calling attention in a general way to those which deal with the social and political organization of the Indians, and which may be said to possess not only the charm of novelty, but also a decided anthropological value. Evidently, they are the fruit of familiar intercourse with these people in the freedom of home life; and as our author was a close observer and not given to hasty generalizations, his conclusions will be found to be in accord with the best results of modern investigation. In some instances they embody a truth that is much more general in its application than the mere statement of an isolated fact would imply, for, when read aright, they suggest the existence of a condition of affairs which was at one time universal in this country and must have been productive of far-reaching consequences. Take, for instance, what is said (pp. 66-74) about the belief in witchcraft and the punishment meted out to those who are supposed to be guilty of the crime, and it would be difficult, in view of the facility of conviction, to overestimate its influence in keeping down the native population. Certainly, if in the Pueblo of Isleta, the inhabitants of which are vouched for as being "the kindest of parents and the best of neighbors," nearly one-half the entire population of 1,100 are believed to be witches, and owe their lives to the proximity of a large body of Americans, it does not require any great effort of the imagination to estimate the loss of life that must have been caused by this delusion when it prevailed among all our tribes, and there was no restraining influence at hand to stay the bloody sacrifice. Even if we admit

that the number of the suspected in other parts of the country was relatively but a fraction of those in Isleta, it will at once be seen what a potent factor this belief must have been in confining the aboriginal population to the narrow limits within which it was found when the whites first landed upon these shores. Probably no other cause, unless we except intertribal warfare, contributed as much to this result. This is one of the trains of thought to which our author's statements on this subject give rise, but it is by no means the only one. There still remains food for reflection in the idea that, so far as this particular phase of superstition is concerned, there is not much room for choice between our witch-killing ancestors of two hundred years ago and their Indian neighbors.

In conclusion, our author points out the routes by which these scenes may be reached, together with the cost of the journeys; and, in view of the ease with which such visits can now be made, he expresses the hope that Americans will be induced to familiarize themselves with the wonders of their own country, before going abroad to look upon "scenery that is far inferior."

Schoolboy Days in Russia. By A. Laurie. Translated by Laura E. Kendall. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

THE popularity of everything Russian has called into existence a mass of worthless books which profess to enlighten and amuse the public. It is only the undiscriminating public, which has entirely neglected its previous opportunities for authentic information on the most rudimentary facts in Russian life, that will be taken in for a moment by André Laurie's 'Schoolboy Days in Russia.' It is perfectly evident from the beginning that the author has never set foot in Russia. He is merely putting into marketable form, in response to a supposed demand for the wares, what he imagines he has read or heard. The result is one of the worst hodge-podges which have been inflicted on the suffering public for a long time. The story itself is trivial, hardly worth the telling, but is told, nevertheless, with tolerable smoothness in the original, and well translated. The original language, which is French, is not mentioned, but is left to be inferred from the author's name. We touch lightly on the incidents of the story, merely for the sake of setting forth the most glaring of the many absurdities.

The son of a country doctor is gifted with great musical talent. In his boyhood the only outlet for this talent is singing in the village church, under the tuition of the village pope. He "practises with the pope on the eve of every great church festival." As a matter of fact, that is the very last time in the year when he could practise, since the church services on the eves of festivals are renowned for being frequently more elaborate and beautiful than even the services on the morning of the feast, with special music, some of which is sung only once a year. In the course of the description of village life, much space is devoted to the annual fair. The pope's son, wearing his father's boots, *with spurs*, gets thrown from a horse. This is the second great sensation of the volume, and it certainly can lay claim to its title, by virtue of these unprecedented spurs. After a while, the hero is transported to Moscow, where we are speedily treated to two of the "strongest situations" of the book. They differ from the other situations chiefly by the reinforced grotesqueness of their absurdity. In the country, whence hero Dmitri has just come, the common beverage is *kvass*, a sort of very small beer brewed from black rye-bread. It would take a Pacific Ocean of it to make any one intoxicated. Nevertheless, there is a grand tragic scene in which Dmitri gets thoroughly drunk on his second glass. He says that he has never seen kvass before—though he has consorted with nobody but peasants all his life—makes the customary remorseful appeals to the memory of his dead father, and throws in some gratuitous information as to the adulteration of this specimen of "ardent spirits." As he had named his father's horse "Vodka" in his infancy, one would suppose he understood that that, and not kvass, is the equivalent of brandy.

On his first Sunday in Moscow the other tremendous crisis occurs. He has observed children "gliding swiftly along the streets on their skates," instead of walking. One could as easily skate along the clean sidewalks and the mealy snow streets of New York! Accordingly, he gets out his skates, buckles them on, and sets out for an exploration. He sees whole families of wealthy people walking sedately to church, followed by a tall footman carrying their prayer-books. Wealthy, even moderately well-to-do Russians, do not walk to church; and not one Russian in a million ever uses a "prayer-book." They are too well trained and educated in the church service to need them, even the peasants who cannot read being perfectly familiar with it, and independent of books. Presently he comes to the Red Square and catches sight of St. Vasily. "The massive doors stood open. The worshippers were in their places, and the rich tones of the great organ already filled the nave." Evidently, the congregation were seated in their pews, and the view through the doors down the nave was quite unobstructed. Any one who has ever been in Moscow will recollect that St. Vasily consists of a conglomeration of eleven tiny churches, in two stories, the nine upper entangled in a perfect labyrinth of narrow corridors approached by two sets of steep stairs, so that there could be no view through the massive doors, supposing that the massive doors existed anywhere but in the imagination of the author, to which we are indebted also for the pews and the organ. No Russian church ever has an organ; neither are the choristers ever placed in a gallery. Having thus cut away the foundation of the "powerful" scene which follows, based on the organ, we may leave it, merely remarking that there are no trills and runs in the beautiful music of the Russian Church, and that solos are so very rare, especially in the morning liturgy, as to be practically non-existent.

After this ridiculous error, the rest of the book is not worth our attention, as the whole of it is built up on the musical education given to the heaven-born genius by the celebrated Hungarian organist with the mongrel Bohemian-Polish name, who has played at St. Vasily for thirty years, and has been honored even with the Czar as an auditor.

The Breech-Loader, and How to Use It. By W. W. Greener. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

IF, as the author states in his introduction, he writes for "that numerous class of sportsmen who delight in a day's shooting, but have neither the time nor the means to make the sport a life's study," and if "the book is not written for experts," he has hardly accomplished his purpose. It is undoubtedly difficult for a man thoroughly conversant with his subject to put himself in the position of the uninitiated, and Mr. Greener somewhat confuses, with insufficiently explained details, the reader who knows little about a gun except that it suits him, and who cares less for its mechanism, provided it works satisfactorily.

The portion of the book treating of the *use* of the breech-loader is much more interesting than that which describes its mechanism. The author has wisely spent little space in attempting to teach any one how to shoot, and confines himself largely to the use of the gun as contrasted with its abuse. His remarks on the proper cleansing and oiling of guns, and on the care requisite for avoiding accidents, are good and give the work a value. He also makes some excellent suggestions for young or would-be sportsmen in the hunting-field, such as: "Smartness of manner is considered very bad form," and "A young man is not supposed to be an unerring shot nor expected to tell good stories."

As a whole, the book has many faults. It is somewhat discursive, repetitious, and fragmentary in its composition, but its most obvious defect is that it gives, justly or unjustly, the impression of being an advertisement of the "Greener gun."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Myron. Creation of the Bible. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Adams, Rev. C. J. Where is my Dog? or, Is Man Alone Immortal? Fowler & Wells. $1.
Advanced Building Construction: A Manual for Students. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Ahrenberg, J., et Fernande de Lysle. Les Illuminés: Scènes de la vie des Hihulites en Finlande. Paris: H. Simonis Empis.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. The Pansy. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
An Englishman in Paris. M. J. Ivers & Co. 50 cents.
Austin, Alfred. Fortunatus the Pessimist. Macmillan. $1.75.
Babyland for 1892. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Bangs, J. K. In Camp with a Tin Soldier. R. H. Russell & Son.
Bent, J. T. The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Bethune, J. G. The "F" Cipher. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Birkheimer, W. E. Military Government and Martial Law. Washington: J. J. Chapman. $5.
Black, W. Lady Silverdale's Sweetheart, and Other Tales. Harpers.
Blaikie, J., and Thomson, W. A Text-Book of Geometrical Deductions. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Bonnassieux, Pierre. Les Grandes Compagnies de Commerce. Etude pour servir à l'histoire de la Colonisation. Paris: Plon.
Bourinot, J. G. Historical and Descriptive Account of the Island of Cape Breton. Montreal: W. Foster Brown & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Bunner, H. C. Rowen: "Second Crop" Songs. Scribners. $1.25.
Caine, R. H. Love Songs of English Poets. 1500–1800. Appletons.
Chapin, F. H. The Land of the Cliff-Dwellers. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $2.25.
Clare, Austin. Another Man's Burden: A Tale of Love and Duty. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Dudley, Sarah. Strangers Yet. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Dufour, Rev. Alphonse. A French Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Dumas, A. The Son of Porthos. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
European Pictures of the Year. Cassell. $1.
Field, Eugene. With Trumpet and Drum. Scribners. $1.
Fletcher, Margaret. Sketches of Life and Character in Hungary. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Fowler, J. K. Echoes of Old Country Life. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Gates, Rev. C. F. A Christian Business Man: Biography of Deacon C. F. Gates. Boston: Congregational Publishing Co. $1.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. 2 vols. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.50.
Goodell, Prof. T. D. Greek Lessons. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Hamerton, P. G. Man in Art. Macmillan. $30.
Harlow, L. K. The World's Best Hymns. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Harper, Mrs. Frances E. W. Iola Leroy; or, Shadows Uplifted. Philadelphia: Garrigues Bros. $1.
Harper's Young People, 1892. Harpers.

Harris, J. C. Uncle Remus and his Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Heliman, Frances. Lyrics and Ballads of Heine and Other German Poets. Putnams. $1.50.
Hertwig, Prof. Oscar. Text-Book of the Embryology of Man and Mammals. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Hewitt, W. A Graduated Course of Simple Manual Training Exercises for Educating the Hand and Eye. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Hopkinson, J. Original Papers on Dynamo-Machinery and Allied Subjects. W. J. Johnston & Co. $1.
House, E. H. The Midnight Warning, and Other Stories. Harpers.
Howard, Gen. O. O. General Taylor. [Great Commanders.] Appletons.
Hughes, Mrs. Reginald. Sybil Trevyllian. Ward & Drummond. $1.50.
Hughson, S. C. The Best Letters of Shelley. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Hume, Fergus. Aladdin in London. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hunter, Sir W. W. A Brief History of the Indian Peoples. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Huss, Prof. H. C. O. Hugo's La Chute. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Hutchinson, Rev. H. N. Extinct Monsters. Appletons.
Jackson, Helen H. Poems. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. $3.
Jagemann, Prof. H. C. G. Materials for German Prose Composition. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Jefferies, Richard. The Toilers of the Field. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Jephson, A. J. M. Stories Told in an African Forest by Grown-up Children of Africa. Appletons.
Johnson, Virginia W. Genoa the Superb. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Keeley, R. M., Jr., and Davis, G. G. In Arctic Seas: The Voyage of the *Kite* with the Peary Expedition. Philadelphia: R. C. Hartranft.
Lee, A. S. The Chemical Basis of the Animal Body. Appendix to Foster's Physiology. Macmillan. $1.75.
Life and Times of Frederick Douglass written by Himself. New revised ed. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $2.50.
Lindau, Paul. Hanging Moss. Appletons.
Manning, E. F. The Coming of Father Christmas. Frederick Warne & Co. $2.
Marshall, Mrs. Emma. In the Service of Rachel Lady Russell. Macmillan. $1.50.
Merwin, H. C. Road, Track and Stable: Chapters about Horses and their Treatment. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.
Milman, Constance. Mum Fidgets, and the Two Richards. Appletons.
Milton, J. Paradise Lost. New American ed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Minchin, Prof. G. M. Hydrostatics and Elementary Hydrokinetics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Minto, W. Autobiographical Notes of the Life of William Bell Scott. 2 vols. Harpers.
Molesworth, Mrs. The Man with the Pan-Pipes, and Other Stories. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.
Molloy, J. F. An Excellent Knave. National Book Co.
Morley, H. Spenser and his Time. [English Writers, vol. ix.] Cassell. $1.50.
Munkittrick, R. K. The Moon Prince, and Other Nabobs. Harpers.
Newth, G. S. Chemical Lecture Experiments. Non-Metallic Elements. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
O'Reilly, Mrs. Joan and Jerry. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Palgrave, Prof. F. T. Amenophis, and Other Poems, Sacred and Secular. Macmillan. $1.25.
Parkes, Sir Henry. Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Paull, Minnie E. Ruby and Ruthy. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.
Pearce, A. J. Longman's School Mensuration. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Poyser, A. W. Magnetism and Electricity: A Manual for Advanced Classes. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Putnam, M. Louise. The Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Quilter, H. Preferences in Art, Life and Literature. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $9.
Schreiber, W. L. Manuel de l'Amateur de la Gravure sur Bois et sur Métal au XVe Siècle. 2 vols. Berlin: Albert Cohn.
Sharp, G. Villemain's Souvenirs des Cent Jours. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Some Rhymes of Ironquill of Kansas. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sprague, Rev. F. M. Socialism from Genesis to Revelation. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.75.
Stanley, Rev. A. P. Historical Memorials of Canterbury. 2d American from the 11th London ed. Randolph. $6.50.
Step, Edward. By Sea-shore, Wood and Moorland. Illustrated. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Stephen, Sir J. F. Horæ Sabbaticæ. Third Series. Macmillan. $1.50.
Stevens, Alice F. Thoughts from Modern Authors. Boston: Greenough, Adams & Cushing. $1.
Summary of English History from the Earliest Times. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Swan, H. Travellers' Colloquial Italian. Brentanos. 75 cents.
Sweet, H. A Short Historical English Grammar. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thomas, Miss Phœbe E. Tables of Rulers and Genealogies. Cincinnati: The Author.
Thompson, J. P. British New Guinea. London: George Philip & Son; New York: Macmillan.
Thomson, J. The Seasons. 4 vols. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $4.
Timbs, John. Abbeys and Castles of England and Wales. New and revised ed. 3 vols. Frederick Warne & Co. $7.50.
Trowbridge, J. T. The Fortunes of Toby Trafford. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Tunstall, J. O. Household Nursing. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Watson, William. Lyric Love: An Anthology. Macmillan. $1.
Wedding Bells: A Marriage Record Book. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Whitney, Maj. A. C. Life on the Circuit with Lincoln. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Wieser, Laura. Chopin: Sketches from George Sand's History of My Life and a Winter in Majorca. Chicago: C. F. Lummy.
Wilkins, Miss M. E. Jane Field. Harpers.
Williams, Prof. S. G. The History of Modern Education. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Wilson, Olivia L. At the Sign of the White Swan: A Tale of Old Pennsylvania. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.

Readers of the FORUM *will remember Dr. Weir Mitchell's recent enthusiastic article on the privately printed sonnets of* MR. CHARLES LEONARD MOORE. *Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have pleasure in announcing that they have arranged to publish Mr. Moore's works as follows:*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 22, 1892.

The Week.

A VERY anomalous situation in the American money market was brought to something of a crisis in the closing days of last week. The coincidence of the International Monetary Conference with our unseasonable gold exports had carried to an acute stage the uneasiness over our currency situation. Both the American and British delegates at Brussels had, by their speeches and proposed remedies, deepened the impression that the "silver situation" had become exceedingly grave. Europe, taking alarm, had proceeded with redoubled energy to withdraw from America all of its maturing credits, and the slackness of our export trade had enabled it to obtain payment, not in commercial bills, but in gold. Over seven millions had already gone out since the middle of November, and the Treasury reserve had again begun to shrink. Probably, too, the London operators had expressed their own forebodings in renewed sales of stocks in our market. Yet, in the face of this unpleasant outlook, two factors rarely witnessed under such circumstances had continued to govern the Wall Street market: low rates for money and rising prices for stocks. For the second of these there were various causes, more or less legitimate, all of which had been utilized by a combination of clever speculators to force a "boom" in the Stock Exchange's industrial securities. But the easy money market was a plain anomaly. It was generally conceded that, although the quoted figures of sterling exchange justified gold shipments, circumstances were such as to give to the entire sterling movement an abnormal character. For such a situation, the corrective is naturally to be looked for in the local money market. High rates for money will delay, if not absolutely stop, a gold movement of this kind, simply because when one foreign banker is withdrawing his American credits, another, attracted by the inducements of the loan market, will adopt precisely the reverse policy, and, by borrowing in London to lend in New York, will to a greater or less extent regulate the machinery of the sterling market.

It is undoubtedly our steady output of new silver notes, at the rate of $3,000,000 a month, which has prevented this machinery from working. In other words, Gresham's law was beginning to operate in its usual subtle manner; our gold coin going out largely because of our continuous issue of silver currency. The brief monetary convulsion of last week was plainly the effort of the market to restore the normal equilibrium. In less than two days much of this purpose was accomplished. Money was bid up to 25 per cent.; stocks broke from 2 to 4 points, and immediately upon the establishment of a higher loaning rate foreign money appeared for use in our money market, and the gold-export movement had its first check. In view of the flurry which attended the large exports on Monday, it is impossible to say how far these new conditions will continue to keep our market in proper shape. The unpleasant fact is, that the cause of the whole trouble, our output of silver currency, continues unchecked, and cannot be checked except by the absolute repeal of the Law of 1890.

The latest Treasury statement of imports and exports of merchandise continues the story of steady decline in the value of the latter and of increase in that of the former. The exports first began to fall behind last year's record in July, when the decline amounted to $4,267,000; in August it was nearly $8,000,000, in September about $20,000,000, in October $15,000,000, and now come the November returns showing a falling off of $13,000,000. This makes a relative loss for the five months of the fiscal year of nearly $60,000,000. Doubtless a part of this decline is due to the low prices of some staple exports, but the falling off in the foreign demand is the main cause. Imports, on the other hand, have shown a gain, month by month; the total thus far in the fiscal year footing up about $48,000,000 more than in the corresponding period in 1891. This increase, with the consequent enlargement of duties paid, has undoubtedly kept the Treasury from falling into even a more critical situation than that in which it now finds itself.

The most important item of news connected with the Brussels Conference was a statement made by Sir Charles Rivers Wilson on the 6th of December, which somehow failed to reach the American press. We find it in the London *Times* of the 7th. Sir Charles said:

> "In the first place, I desire to explain to the Conference the attitude of her Majesty's Government upon the monetary question. The invitation of the United States in its original form contemplated the meeting of a conference to examine the possibility of establishing by international agreement a fixed relation between the values of the two precious metals. Her Majesty's Government did not find it possible to accept an invitation conveyed in terms which might give rise to a misunderstanding, by implying that the Government had some doubt as to the maintenance of the monetary system which has been in force in Great Britain since 1816."

He went on to say that when the American invitation for a conference was changed in form so as "to consider what measures, if any, could be adopted for the purpose of increasing the use of silver as currency," then her Majesty's Government felt that it could participate in the Conference; "but," he continued, "we are not authorized either by speech or by vote to bind our Government to any particular course of action." So it appears that England had ruled out bimetallism, so far as she was concerned, before she agreed to come to the Conference at all. Germany and Austria ruled it out, so far as they were concerned, immediately after the Conference began. Now, what is to be said of all the rubbish cabled to this side of the water implying that Great Britain was acting an underhand part in the Conference by putting forward Germany and Austria to deal a blow at bimetallism which, on account of her Indian possessions and Mr. Chaplin's Agricultural League, she dared not strike herself?

Mr. Gustav H. Schwab of this city, speaking in behalf of various transatlantic steamship companies before the joint Committee on Immigration at Washington on Friday, made it very plain that these companies are willing to coöperate heartily in all efforts to prevent cholera and other infectious diseases from being brought to this country by immigrants. He said that the companies would be willing to put their European agents under heavy bonds, and hold them responsible for the strict performance of their duty, if the work of examining the health of intending immigrants were intrusted to them. They would also welcome the assistance and supervision of United States agents in this work, and, so far as his particular company, the North German Lloyd, was concerned, it would be willing to erect buildings and enclosures for absolutely segregating immigrants in case cholera should break out in a dozen European ports. Mr. Schwab was of the opinion that a foreign quarantine was the only feasible method, and in this, as in his other views, he is in substantial agreement with Dr. Andrew H. Smith, whose plan is to restrict immigration to four or five foreign ports, and subject all intending immigrants to thorough medical examination.

Senator George's speech on December 14 on the Anti-Option Bill was perhaps the most curious performance of its kind heard in the Senate since the retirement of the eccentric Blair. Prices on the New York Cotton Exchange had been advancing for some time prior to the revival of the Anti-Option Bill, but had reached their highest point and receded about the time that Mr. Washburn's measure again came up for discussion. This, Senator George gravely affirms, represents the attempt of dealers in cotton futures "to force the Senate to cease the performance of a great constitutional duty." This being a rather serious charge to be made in the Federal

Legislature against a responsible body of business men, inquiry must naturally have arisen as to the Senator's authority. He supplied it, announcing seriously that "he saw" the statement "in one of the New York papers," name not mentioned. The further question perhaps arising as to whether "one of the New York papers" might not conceivably have been mistaken, Mr. George further undertook to furnish logical demonstration that it was not. "To show that the fall in cotton was purely fictitious, purely in the spirit of bravado," the Senator triumphantly continued, "I call attention to the fact that while cotton has gone down in New York, corn and provisions have gone up in Chicago." It is not easy to deal seriously with such puerilities as these. But Senator George's speech is worth examining as a fine illustration of the average anti-optionist's mental processes. It will be observed that his fundamental assumption is, that if cotton prices advance it is due to the natural operation of trade, whereas if they decline, the wicked dealer in futures is alone responsible; and this captivating style of argument is in fact at the bottom of the whole agitation. The Senator's own innocent little syllogism sums up fairly the whole chain of reasoning: Corn has gone up; cotton has simultaneously gone down; therefore the price of cotton was artificially and maliciously depressed.

We are glad to see that a special meeting of the Chamber of Commerce is shortly to be held to discuss the operation of the McKinley Administrative Act. It is only necessary to bring out the facts regarding the working of this measure to leave it without a defender. It was admitted by Senator Allison when it was framed that one of its features, the section relating to extra charges for the boxes and other receptacles in which goods are imported, amounted to an increase of from 5 to 8 per cent. in the tariff above the rates in the McKinley Tariff Act. It is estimated by Mr. D. A. Wells that the method in which the Administrative Act has been interpreted and applied has resulted in another additional increase of from 5 to 10 per cent. Its repeal should be one of the first acts of the Fifty-third Congress.

It is worthy of note that the business of making a Cabinet for President Cleveland has been revived, for the first time since his return from his vacation, at a point so far removed from this city as Albany. No effort of the kind has been made here, neither has the pilgrimage of hungry Democratic statesmen, which Mr. Cleveland's farewell address arrested so suddenly, been resumed except in the most limited and cautious manner. His house is no longer besieged, and the newspapers are able to put into very brief space all the gossip which their reporters can collect about the callers at his office and his intentions in regard to them. All this calm after the storm furnishes a very instructive commentary upon the most effective method for dealing with the national disease of office-seeking. No quarantine is needed. Mere notification that the man who begs for office will be put on a black-list and thus have his prospects greatly damaged if not hopelessly blasted, is sufficient, especially when accompanied with a threat by the besieged to "shut up his house and go away for the winter" in case the black-list prove an ineffective protection.

It is admitted by the friends of Mr. Murphy that his election to the Senate is not so "sure a thing" as it was thought to be a few weeks ago. Various reasons are given for the change in the situation, including the hostility of Boss McLaughlin of Brooklyn, but the real reason is, we believe, a fear of consequences to the Machine itself. Mr. Murphy's unfitness for the position is so notorious that his election will serve to emphasize the belief, already very strong throughout the Democratic party in the State, that the time has arrived for the party to rid itself of the burden of an organization which so thoroughly misrepresents it. This reflex action of Mr. Murphy's election is what the Machine leaders are afraid of. Their apprehensions are aggravated by the undisguised eagerness of many eminent "anti-snappers" for Mr. Murphy's election in spite of all opposition. These opponents of the Hill Machine are confident that the Democrats throughout the State are in no temper to stand further assaults upon their intelligence and character by the Hill-Murphy-Sheehan combination.

The interest in the Senatorial contest in New Jersey has only been intensified by the recent declaration of Gov.-elect Werts and Senator McPherson in favor of gratifying Gov. Abbett's ambition; and the intensity of the feeling manifests itself in the form of a determination that Abbettism shall not be prolonged by the Governor's success. There is only mild surprise that the Governor-elect should so early signify his submission to the State boss, for his opposition to the Governor was distrusted during the campaign, as was proved by the distance he ran behind the Presidential ticket. Of Mr. McPherson better things were hoped, and it was believed that if he had not been caught in the Quarantine prison, a distinctly anti-Abbett candidate would have been nominated at Trenton. He is already learning, however, that it is easier to make promises than to fulfil them. Some of his warmest supporters, like State Senator Winton of Bergen County, have declared that he "cannot deliver his goods." The last Senatorial election in New Jersey proved that caucus dictation cannot be depended on at Trenton. It is given out that Abbett, in the Senate, will be a strong Cleveland man (even if of recent conversion), and it is hoped in this way to silence the opposition to him. But that opposition will not down. The people are against him, and many of the people's representatives can, it is believed, be depended on to carry out the popular desire. Abbett, it is understood, stands ready to favor the pardon of the Hudson County ballot-box-stuffers in order to gain the Hudson County vote. But if he does this, he will only give another indication of his political morality.

The action of the Bar Association in reopening the Maynard case and passing resolutions to be sent to Gov. Flower protesting against his reappointment is highly commendable. The resolutions declare that though the Legislature refused to impeach Judge Maynard, the reasons assigned for his removal in the Bar Association's memorial of last year "still exist and constitute disqualifications for his appointment to a new vacancy" created by the advancement of Judge Andrews to the position of Chief Judge, and that such an appointment, in the opinion of the Association, would be "eminently unfit." There is a moral vigor about this protest which is decidedly refreshing. Whatever intentions the Governor may have had in this matter, he is hardly capable of disregarding an appeal of this character. What constitutes its strength is the fact that Judge Maynard has never made anything which can be truthfully called a defence against the charges which the Association not merely preferred against him, but proved.

Some of the items in the sworn returns of election expenditures made under the Massachusetts Corrupt Practices Act, show the wisdom of the strongly prohibitive provisions of the English act. Thus, the Republican Club of Massachusetts, in a total expenditure of $11,000, puts down $2,000 under the single item of "flags," and the Republican Club of New Bedford, in a total expenditure of $652, assigns $575 of it to "campaign uniforms and torches." The English Act prohibits any expenditure whatever by a candidate or his agent "on account of bands of music, torches, flags, banners, cockades, ribbons, or other marks of distinction," and a member of Parliament has been unseated recently because he paid for 6,000 cards with his portrait, which the voters put in their hats. The English voters are permitted to pay for all the cards, bands, torches, etc., that they please, but the candidate must not pay a penny for such purpose. The reason for the prohibition was that in England, before the act went into effect, there were excessive expenditures for these purposes, and under pretence of such expenditures many illicit uses of money were disguised. The Massachusetts reports show a similar condition

of affairs. In fact, the first sworn returns under the law show that the persons making them have sought in every way to "get round the law"—that is, to comply with its provisions to the least degree consistent with safety from punishment. This is the tendency of political workers and candidates everywhere, and it should always be taken into account in drafting restrictive or prohibitive laws. The first object of every politician in examining such laws is not to ascertain the best way of observing and enforcing it, but the best way of "beating it."

Votes on Constitutional amendments are apt to be surprising, but one of the oddest developments in this line on record is the extent of the opposition recently shown in Massachusetts to one of the most obviously just changes that could be proposed. In the old days the State used to impose property qualifications upon officials and voters, but all of them were abolished long ago except the requirement that the Governor should be seized of a freehold estate to the value of £1,000. After Mr. Russell was elected two years ago, somebody looked up this forgotten provision and notified him in time to permit his legal inauguration, as the ownership of his home had previously stood in his wife's name. He immediately recommended to the Legislature an amendment to the Constitution doing away with the antiquated clause of that instrument. No opposition was shown in the Legislature, and no opposition was anticipated among the voters, but the returns show that, while 141,321 declared in favor of it, 68,045 were against it. The amendment is therefore adopted, but why a third of those who expressed themselves at all opposed it, is a mystery. Can it be that a lot of those "ignorant Republicans," of whom the Boston *Journal* has had so much to say in connection with the secret ballot, became confused and voted no when they meant to vote yes?

Whatever may be the final result of the trial of Prof. Briggs, the progress of it has certainly given him a secure reputation with the public for the keenness of his mind and the courage of his bearing. Whenever he gets the floor, the hunted heretic takes up the chase on his own account, and gives the prosecutors themselves the air of being on trial for monstrous opinions. His bold striking through the mask of the prosecution last week, to arraign, with effective sarcasm, the theologian who really wrote what was presented in another man's name, was doubtless much enjoyed by those who were cognizant of that open secret. His assaults upon the Biblical knowledge and interpretations of his opponents bring to mind what was said of Selden in the Westminster Assembly itself:

"And sometimes when they had cited a text of Scripture to prove their assertions, he would tell them, 'Perhaps in your little pocket Bibles with gilt leaves the translation may be thus, but the Greek or the Hebrew signifies thus and thus'; and so would totally silence them."

In fact, the accused professor and the hard-headed and learned Selden exhibit more than one point of likeness. Another chronicler of the Westminster debates says of Selden what might be said of Dr. Briggs in the Presbytery: "He was a thorn in their sides, for he was able to run them all down with his Greeke and antiquities."

Chancellor Caprivi, in his late speech in defence of the Army Bill before the Reichstag, replying to those who wanted him to attack France at once, and put an end to the suspense which occasioned the burden of these present enormous armaments, showed that such an attack, even if it ended in victory, would simply lay the foundation for future wars. Germany does not want any more territory or any more colonies. Moreover, the invasion of France in 1870 was child's play compared to what an invasion would be to-day. In 1870 seventeen German corps d'armée had to deal with only eight French corps, and where there was only the fortress of Metz to bar the way in 1870, there are to-day at least three other fortresses — Verdun, Toul, and Épinal—which are as strong as Metz and Strasbourg then were. All of these would have to be masked before an advance on Paris could be made. Moreover, after the fortresses had been disposed of, a large army of reserve such as France did not possess in 1870 would have to be encountered, and after it was beaten the Paris which would then be besieged would be no longer the Paris of 1870, but "a fortress the like of which the world has never seen—a fortress surrounded by fifty-six forts on a line eighty miles long." To take the place by famine with what remained of the German army after the prodigious losses which the previous operations would cause, would, he says, take too long, and "other means would have to be tried," but what these means would be he does not explain. There could not be a better answer to those who think the suspense and burden of great armaments can be got rid of by attacking somebody, than this is. The war of 1870 was precipitated in Germany and joyously accepted in France by the dislike of both countries to "suspense." Their relations had become "strained." The feeling that they would have to fight some day, and might better fight at once, led Bismarck to hatch an excuse for war and Ollivier to accept his challenge with "gaieté de cœur." Both of them told the world that they were fighting for a prolonged peace. We see what the result was. The causes of war between the two countries were doubled or trebled, and their mutual hostility greatly intensified, and Germany, which was victorious, has had to make just as much preparation for fighting again as France, which was defeated. Another crop of politicians has since sprung up, like Caprivi, to repeat the old story of 1870, that the only way to have cordial relations with neighbors is to be in a constant state of preparation to give them a good drubbing. We have an increasing number of them among ourselves, as was shown in the Chilian trouble last winter, when they maintained, even in 1892 in America, that true national dignity and self-respect can only be maintained by "licking" somebody or showing ability and willingness to "lick" somebody.

There is little doubt, however, that the German armaments are doing immense service to the democracies of the world by showing that, no matter how powerful you are, or how successful you are, war can only in rare cases be made the instrument of lasting peace. A successful war of independence may do so, like ours, or the war of the Spanish republics, or a war of complete subjugation like the Russian conquest of Poland; but a war between equals, ending in a peace of exhaustion, usually leaves behind ten causes for renewing the struggle for the one which led to its beginning. Napoleon's differences with Bismarck were a mere trifle compared to those which now divide the French and German people. A few years more of peace and patience, and both Napoleon and Bismarck would have disappeared from the scene. Now the French nation in arms is maddened not only by the military humiliation of 1870, but by the loss of Metz and Alsace and Lorraine, and it would probably cost the Germans as much to restore them as it costs the French to go without them. Not one word, however, does the Chancellor's speech contain of any prospect of any end to the present system of military competition. He does not hold out any prospect whatever of peace based on mutual good will, or of any cessation of the really horrible spectacle which the Parliaments of these two great nations now present every year on the production of the military estimates of their respective war ministers, when each compares the killing or ravaging capacity of his forces to those of the other, and asks to have his power of mischief increased and made more permanent. What makes this spectacle all the more wonderful is that the classes on which the burden of this barbarism falls are now in both countries voters as well as taxpayers, and do not as yet demand either that an end shall be put to the system now, or that its end shall be brought into sight by some sort of human compromise or negotiation. Caprivi's whole speech is worthier of a pugilistic champion eager to keep "the belt" than a Christian statesman addressing the representatives of an industrial nation.

END OF THE SILVER CONFERENCE.

THE only agreement that the Brussels Conference came to on any subject was an agreement to adjourn till next May, and there is even considerable doubt whether the delegates will reassemble at that time, or at any time. The reasons given for taking a recess instead of adjourning *sine die* are extremely puerile. It is said that time is needed to consult the several governments represented, as though there were no telegraphic communication. It is said that the delegates need time to digest the information presented to them, as though they were novices who could not without hard study appreciate the nuggets of wisdom laid before them. It is said that time is needed especially to study the Rothschild proposition, although Mr. Rothschild himself had withdrawn it after his colleagues had declined to support it.

It is to be hoped that the Conference will follow the example of the Conference of 1881 and simply pass out of sight and hearing, for it is based upon humbug. It was initiated in order to save the silver-producing States to the Republican party. The European States accepted the invitation as a matter of courtesy merely, with an inward contempt for the whole proceeding and with an expressed reservation of their own liberty of action, whatever the Conference might recommend. Our delegates knew that the only thing that had a chance of being ratified at home was international bimetallism. They knew that all agreements for merely buying silver for a few years would be rejected with equal scorn by the bimetallists and the monometallists. They dared not call for a vote in the Conference on international bimetallism because they knew it would be rejected, probably by the unanimous vote of the European delegates. They dared not call for a vote on any lesser scheme because they knew it would be rejected at home. So they retreated under the guise of taking a recess.

There is very little likelihood of the Conference reassembling in May. The question, therefore, for us is, what shall be done with the Sherman Law of 1890? This ill-starred measure hangs like a nightmare on the money market and all the other markets of the country, and actually curtails instead of increasing the supply of money. The natural supply consists of all the money in the world that is seeking investment, for which this country still furnishes the greatest opportunities. To all such investors the Silver Bill is a terror. Not only is the inflow of money cut off, but an outflow has started. This is seen in the exportation of gold at the present time—the time of year when we are usually importing that metal. And what do we get as an offset to the natural increment of the money supply? Some bits of Government paper which might better be issued on Government credit solely, since they rest on nothing else. A pile of silver bullion that is not used, and cannot be, is worse than useless, because it requires care and watching and cartage and places to hold it. Moreover, the buying of the stuff takes out of our foreign commerce an article of export, while the accumulation of the Treasury hoard alarms all other buyers, and causes them to cut down their purchases as much as possible. Time and space would fail us to tell all the misery and mischief that this law entails.

Senator Sherman himself says that he desires to have the Act of 1890 repealed. He is quoted in an interview in the *Sun* to the following effect:

"I am in favor myself of repealing the Act of 1890. The fact is that silver is going the way of the other metals, probably, such as nickel, copper, and iron. The methods now used to cheapen the production of silver diminish its value as a standard of coin, such as it held when it represented a large percentage of labor. We had copper once for coin, but its fall in value was inevitable upon the cheapening of its production and the quantity produced. Nickel, once $1.30 a pound, has fallen to 30 cents. Pig iron is worth about $13 a ton, and steel rails, once $100, are now $30 a ton, or nearly a cent and a half a pound. . . ."

"Will not the effect be to depreciate our silver notes?"

"No. I took care in that act to limit the issue of the silver notes to the gold value of the silver bullion when purchased. All we could lose would be the depreciation of the price of silver below that gold value at which we purchased the bullion. The Bland Bill provided for the coinage of silver in the proportion of 16 to 1, not regarding the gold value of the silver. Having given the experiment a full trial of purchasing silver at the gold quotations for it, I think we need go no further with it."

The platform of the Democratic party calls for the repeal of the Sherman Law, and the party must live up to the platform or be buried in its ruins. It is time to begin, too. The Republicans may or may not help to get this paralyzing act off the statute book. They may refuse to relieve the incoming Administration of an obvious financial embarrassment, but there is danger to them in such a policy. Already leading organs of the party, which have hitherto been indifferent to the silver issue or incredulous of the perils attending the present national policy, are demanding the repeal of that law. Business men are demanding it even more emphatically. It is time for all the opponents of that deplorable measure to unite in a resolute, unremitting war against it. They ought to put it before every other occupation of a public sort, and make it the supreme object of their lives to abolish it, just as people worked against slavery forty years ago.

UNITED STATES PENSION BONDS.

THE great pension debauch that is now in progress called for $134,583,052 last year. For the year ending June 30, 1893, the Secretary of the Treasury estimates the pension demand at $158,000,000, and for the following year at $166,000,000. It is entirely safe to assume that each of these estimates is at least from $10,000,000 to $15,000,000 short of the reality. In other words, the incoming Administration will find itself burdened with nearly $350,000,000 of pension obligations during the first two years of its term. This will be the handicap placed upon any measure of tariff reform that may be prepared, to execute the verdict which the people rendered at the recent election.

Even this, we apprehend, does not represent the whole truth, since we find in one of the Republican morning newspapers the following statement, which is important enough to be quoted in full, viz.:

"It is of interest in this connection to know the fact, not before published, that there are now on the completed files of the Pension Bureau the names of almost 200,000 veterans, or their widows, the proof of whose claims is finished, and who could be added to the pension rolls within a week. These names have been upon the completed files for months, and their number grows daily. The question of placing them upon the pension rolls at once was the subject of a special Cabinet meeting the other day. This information was brought out through a visit made by Representative Doan of Ohio to Assistant Secretary Bussey to-day. Gen. Doan called upon Bussey to protest against the present order of Secretary Noble prohibiting the Commissioner of Pensions from giving to members of Congress, or anybody else, the status of pension claims. Incidentally, Gen. Doan stated to Gen. Bussey that, in his opinion, a grave political error was being committed by the present administration of the Interior Department, in not allowing at once the pension claims upon the completed files.

"Gen. Bussey stated to Gen. Doan that the reason for the delayed final action upon this vast body of completed cases of qualified pensioners was the lack of funds in the Treasury. He stated that if these cases had been finally acted upon and certificates issued as rapidly as the cases had in fact been made complete, *the Treasury would months ago have been bankrupt*. Gen. Bussey then added that the subject had been carefully considered at a special meeting of the Cabinet recently, and that after prolonged discussion no conclusion had been reached. All this will be of great interest to an army of expectant beneficiaries of the pension laws, and will also become known for the first time to members of the Ways and Means Committee when they read this despatch."

The total number of names on the pension rolls when these are added will be 1,046,893, and this will be, as the *Sun* shows in an interesting table, more names than were ever on the army rolls at one time, and 200,000 more than were ever present for duty at one time. These facts certainly add new terrors to war, and ought to be a warning to remotest posterity to endure almost anything rather than draw the sword, even against a South American republic. If we had had a war with Chili last year, the pensions growing out of it would have risen to millions, and the widows of the Chilian war veterans would have lasted well into the twenty-first century.

The present Secretary of the Treasury estimates that there will be a surplus of $2,000,000 of revenue at the end of the present fiscal year, which, added to the balance in the Treasury, will leave a little more than $20,000,000 on hand in addition to the fund held for the redemption of greenbacks. He says, however, that this greenback redemption fund should be increased 20 per cent. on account of the increase of Treasury notes, which are virtually new greenbacks, being legal-tender notes issued against silver bullion. Twenty

per cent. added to the greenback-redemption fund would absorb the entire estimated surplus at the end of the present fiscal year, and if there should be a pension deficiency (as is usual) there would be a bankrupt Treasury without more ado. Senator Sherman, who is a good authority in such matters and has had abundant experience, says that the Treasury ought always to have a working balance of $30,000,000. Not even the shadow of a working balance can be discerned in the foregoing figures.

What is to be done in a case of this kind? Evidently an emergency fund must be provided to meet these demands and to enable the new Administration to turn around and provide a plan of taxation adequate to the needs of the Government. Some people say, enact an income tax. But even if this were agreed to, it could not be put in working order under two years. The machinery of the old income tax required more than that time to get in a state of efficiency. Moreover, an income-tax bill will meet with bitter opposition in Congress, and there is no certainty that it could be passed at all. It could not be made an Administration measure without some previous discussion on the stump, and nobody can say what the result of such a discussion might be. Probably the abstract justice of an income tax would be of small importance in the councils of either party in determining whether it should be enacted or not.

But neither that tax nor any other new tax can be made available in time for the present emergency. The only other way is to make provision for borrowing, if the worst comes to the worst. Congress ought to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to borrow $200,000,000 on Pension Bonds bearing 2 to 3 per cent. interest and payable at the option of the Government. It may not be necessary to issue any of these bonds. It is to be hoped that the sanguine predictions of the retiring Secretary may be realized, and that the end of the fiscal year may find the Treasury with a working balance sufficient for its needs. But we do not look for any such halcyon days in the near future. We cannot shut our eyes to the renewed exportation of gold, which the best judges consider indicative of distrust in our financial future. The ability of the Treasury to maintain gold payments and its ability to meet current expenses are dovetailed together and cannot be separated. The outlook is not reassuring, but fortunately the credit of the country is good. Its ability to tide over a crisis is abundant and superabundant. Authority to issue bonds of the character described ought to be granted. Whether they are called pension bonds or not is unimportant, but everybody can see that that phrase would properly describe them.

MORE FOREIGN JOY AT REPUBLICAN DEFEAT.

ONE of the few sources of consolation left to the Republicans after the rout of November 8 was the ability to point to "great European rejoicing" over their defeat. It was apparently a solid comfort to them to feel that they were repudiated and held in contempt in other countries as well as their own. But it is a little singular that they have kept so silent about the way the election of Mr. Cleveland has given delight to all South America. Yet one can see that the latter phenomenon is not easy to explain on strict Republican principles. Europe exults, of course, because it now sees a chance of ruining our country under a deluge of cheap goods. But the Spanish American republics are not manufacturing nations. Moreover, they have been taken under the special protection of the Republican party, have been assured of our willingness to aid them in fighting all Europe, and have been thoroughly instructed in the great doctrine of "America for Americans." Why should they hail the defeat of the party that has done all this for them?

The fact that they do hail it was clearly indicated by the despatches following the election, and has been established beyond all question as the South American mails have arrived. For example, the *Rio News* of November 15 said:

> "The native press has been very complimentary to Mr. Cleveland upon his election to the Presidency of the United States. The fact seems to be that South America was always nervous over President Harrison's foreign policy, and expects Mr. Cleveland's Secretary will show less inclination to have a finger in every pie."

This is an especially significant admission, as the editor of the *News* is an American, and had steadily defended and praised the Republican policy in his paper. The general tone of the South American press is well summed up in the *Revista Ilustrada*, a journal devoted to South American interests, which says: "The electoral victory of Mr. Cleveland, and of the principles of justice at home and abroad which that austere statesman represents, has been received with great satisfaction from the Rio Grande to the La Plata."

Certainly this joy at Democratic success does not spring from an historic sympathy with the Democratic party on the part of South America. On the contrary, Spanish-American sympathies had been all the other way for two generations. Through all the years that Democratic policy was identified with slavery and involved the constant threat of annexation, or filibusterism, or conquest, for the sake of extending and more securely establishing slave rule, it distinctly repelled and alarmed South American sentiment. It was with the Republican party throughout the war and up to 1881 that all the hopes of the Spanish-American countries were bound up. Then came the initiation of the Republican policy of meddling and bullying, which was for a time held in check after Mr. Blaine's dismissal from Arthur's Cabinet, but which broke out again in the most offensive form with his return to the Department of State four years ago. Since then our attitude to South America has been that of thrusting our advice and protection where it was neither asked nor needed, of masking the most wretched personal and mercenary motives under the pretence of benevolent schemes for putting an end to war on this hemisphere, and, at the same time, of threatening to make war upon a weak and inoffensive nation so as to sustain a falling party by giving it a fictitious reputation for great patriotism.

It is the prospect that this trickery and overbearing and cowardly treatment will now come to an end, which accounts for the joy expressed by the organs of South American opinion over the Democratic victory. Some Spanish-American countries have peculiar reasons for gratification. Chili has no cause for sorrow at seeing Mr. Harrison left to fume and threaten in his law office. Colombia and Venezuela will shed no tears over the fate of the man who tried to club them into reciprocity. Hayti will not mourn at the humiliation of the Administration that attempted to humiliate her, and steal away her territory, by the process publicly described by the American Minister to Hayti, Frederick Douglass. But above and beyond all these particular reasons is the general conviction that a domineering policy, which was a constant threat to the peaceful and independent development of the republics of South America, is no longer popular or possible in the United States.

It will be no small part of Mr. Cleveland's success in rehabilitating the Democratic party, if he is able permanently to restore it to favor in South America. Surely the work will not be difficult. All that will be necessary will be to observe the same decency and deference in our relations with Spanish America that we practise in regard to the rest of the world. The republics to the south of us ask no especial favors of our Government either in trade or diplomacy. Certainly they have a right to protest against unfair discrimination. One of the first acts of Mr. Cleveland's Administration should be to recall President Harrison's proclamation laying discriminating duties on the imports of Venezuela, Colombia, and Hayti. He ought to do it on grounds of common sense, so as to get rid of the absurdity of punishing those countries by putting extra taxes on American citizens. Especially ought he to do it as a measure of international justice, and as a means of showing the world that we do not mean to get trade by the methods of a highwayman.

PROGRESS OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

THE adoption of the McKinley tariff in this country and of a corresponding measure in France, while causing irritation everywhere, aroused especially grave apprehen-

sions in Belgium. That country is pre eminently a workshop. It imports a large part of the food consumed by its inhabitants, the value of the grain alone imported in 1889 being 250,000,000 francs; and it also imports a very large part of the materials used in its factories. It is distinguished for manufactures of metals, but it possesses neither iron nor zinc ores, and its textile manufactures employ to a large extent substances of foreign production. With a population of but 6,000,000, the country evidently depends for its prosperity upon the exportation of the goods which it manufactures; and the reactionary policy of France and the United States produced in the entire business community, including the working-classes, something very like a panic,

Under these circumstances the Belgian Government was moved to undertake an investigation of the industrial conditions of the country, with a view to ascertaining its ability to cope with the hostile duties imposed upon its products, and the results of this investigation have been set forth by M. Armand Julin in some recent numbers of the *Réforme Sociale*. The industrial capacity of Belgium is not a matter of especial interest to American readers, and we need not review the results of the investigation in their bearing upon this question. But it so happens that in the country of Quetelet a considerable body of statistics of genuine scientific value has long been in existence, and that this investigation was carried on by men competent, through their abilities and training, to deal with statistical problems. In consequence we have a research that is instructive in many respects to the whole world, and which in its methods might well be universally copied. It is to be regretted that the management of our Bureau of Labor Statistics is so generally committed to an inferior class of politicians as to make it only an impertinence to commend M. Julin's articles to them as embodying a model of statistical research. To invite the attention of Mr. Peck, the New York Commissioner who recently had greatness thrust upon him, to a statistical inquiry in the French language, would probably be regarded by the public as a malicious and cruel suggestion.

The scientific manner in which this inquiry was conducted is indicated by the fact that its scope, in the first place, was carefully limited to the rate of wages, the price of provisions, and the "budgets" of working people, at or within definite periods. Then, in determining these facts, the assistance of the "conseils de l'industrie et du travail," which represent the principal industries of the country and are established in the principal centres of trade, was obtained, and this information was further checked by being submitted to the workmen themselves. Thus the returns of wages were verified by the scrutiny of both workmen and employers, and were accepted only when declared correct by both. Wages, moreover, were not expressed in averages, but were given for particular occupations and branches of occupations and with regard to the age and the sex of the workers. Thus, in the case of mines, twenty-five classes of workmen were recognized as engaged below the surface, while above ground thirty-six other classes were distinguished. In this way much light was thrown upon the comparative wages of men and women, the rates prevailing in different industries, etc., but the fact of especial interest disclosed was the general increase of wages and their purchasing power.

Taking the city of Brussels and comparing the results obtained in 1891 with those obtained by Quetelet in 1846, it appears that there has been a practically universal rise in the rate of wages, which may be expressed as follows: With the exception of the glove-makers, there were extremely few workmen in Brussels who earned in 1846 more than 2 fr. 50c. per diem; and if the total wages earned in the twenty-four trades represented in the tables were divided by the number of workmen, the average wages would be scarcely over two francs a day. But in 1891 the number of workmen earning less than four francs a day was very small, and although the rate of remuneration in the different trades varied extremely, the average wages could not fall much below 4 francs 50c.

Before concluding that the lot of the Belgian workman had been so greatly ameliorated, it was necessary to determine the comparative purchasing power of money wages. For this purpose it was not regarded as sufficient to learn the average price of bread, but the actual "hygienic ration" or quantity of food of standard kinds and qualities consumed, with its prices, was also ascertained. There is considerable divergence of opinion among physiologists as to the amount of albumen required by the ordinary workingman, but for the purposes of comparison this is immaterial. Assuming that 483 kilogrammes of wheat bread contained a year's supply of albumen, it was found that this quantity would have cost in 1846 at Brussels 178 francs 78 c., while the same quantity could have been purchased there in 1891 for 164 francs 24 c. Thus, while the labor of from 85 to 95 days would have been needed in 1846 in most cases to buy this quantity of bread, in hardly any case in 1891 would the labor of more than 45 days have been required for this purpose, while on the average less than 40 days' labor would have sufficed.

But as man does not live by bread alone, recourse to the "budgets" of workmen was had, for which the necessary data were found in 1886 and 1853. We cannot review the somewhat intricate methods employed in determining these budgets, but, selecting the case of a miner at Wasmès, and a budget consisting of 100 kilos of wheat bread, 50 of potatoes, 10 of beef, 30 of milk, 7 of butter, and 2 of coffee, we find that in 1891, with wages of 4 francs 37c per day, 19 34 days' work would be needed to purchase the above quantities of the given articles. In 1886 wages for the same work were 3 francs 10c. per day, and 25.21 days' work would have been requisite to accomplish the same result. In 1853 wages were but 2 francs 40c., and in order to earn enough to make the above purchases the workman would have been compelled to work 33.67 days. In this case, if the purchasing power of wages is represented by 100 in 1853, it had risen in 1886 to 125.12, and to 142.56 in 1891.

The most important lesson to be derived in this country from this investigation is the necessity of scientific methods in collecting and dealing with statistics. Such an investigation is only possible where a series of statistical observations has taken place which serve as a basis for comparisons. Such a census as ours of 1890 not only is bad in itself, but renders it almost impossible to make use of the comparative method, because it introduces into the series a term of unknown value. To the European observer, however, the lesson derived by M. Julin which will seem the most important is, that the claims of the Socialists as to the increasing misery of the working classes are unfounded. It is obvious that the "iron law" which so disquieted the soul of Karl Marx has no existence, and if we regard Belgium as a typical modern State, the evidence is conclusive that the poor are growing richer and not poorer.

THE FRENCH CORRUPTION.

THE one man in France who comes out of the Panama scandal covered with glory is M. Leroy-Beaulieu, who now fills his paper with wrathful "I told you sos." For five years he has never ceased to warn the French public against the Panama Canal as an investment, and he would probably have succeeded in saving the "small people" (*les petites gens*) who went into it, a vast sum of money if the Government had not interfered in 1888 to help Lesseps, when he first began to get into deep water. In that fatal year it not only gave him a "satisfecit," but it allowed the company to start a lottery for the sale of its bonds, and, more still, sent out an engineer to examine the works. When he made his report, it neither published it nor suppressed it, but did the worst possible thing—let it get out piecemeal, so that it was possible for insiders to use its revelations in speculation on the Bourse. From that moment the company became the prey of the members of the Chamber and of the press. M. Leroy Beaulieu estimates at $2,000,000 the amount spent on the Legislature and on the newspapers, and the official revelations confirm this estimate. The Company got about

$2,500,000 from the *petites gens*—the small investors—and this was nearly all swallowed up in various forms of advertising and blackmail. For as soon as it was found that the Company was in distress, and had secrets to keep, all the poor men in the Chambers and all the struggling Parisian newspapers saw in it a chance to retrieve their fortunes or provide for their old age. Newspapers were actually started to "strike" it, as we say, and some died as soon as they got fifty or even twenty-five francs out of it. No periodical was too insignificant to get something to make it "shut up."

This process can hardly be understood by us here without remembering the indifference of the French public to accurate news. Beyond the *Temps* and *République Française*, and perhaps the *Débats*, no French newspapers spend any money or take any pains to get reliable news of important events at home or abroad. The expenditure of the best ones for such purposes is what we should consider very trifling. Nor do they fill up the space which really important intelligence should occupy, with the scandals and crimes of low life, as our little papers do, because there is, under the French law, great risk in intrusions on privacy. They simply gossip, in the style of our "Loungers" and "Listeners," about everything or nothing in particular. News they are not expected to furnish, and, as machinery for collecting news forms by far the largest item of expense in the establishment of a newspaper, "petits journaux" are started in Paris by any two young fellows with fluent pens who can get a printer and paper maker to trust them for a week. They are often started without any expectation of living longer than a week, in order to "get even" with somebody, or to "strike" a theatrical manager who has refused their plays, or an editor who has rejected their contributions, or a financial enterprise, or simply to give editors and publishers specimens of their writing powers.

If it be asked what makes them formidable to anybody, or, in other words, how they get any sale, the answer is that the Parisian public does not buy newspapers to get information out of them, but to be amused, and there is always a vague expectation that a newly started "petit journal" will be for a while at least more piquant and entertaining than those already in existence. Paradoxical as it may seem, however, the French public, although buying its newspapers simply for amusement, is the most open minded public in the world to rumors it sees in print. Its general credulity as displayed in times of great public excitement has been made too well known by the history of its various political revolutions. It is this credulity, combined with the great suspiciousness which nearly always goes with credulity, that furnishes so many "spies" to the Parisian population during either foreign wars or domestic broils In the interesting collection of "Récits" of personal experience of actual combatants in the war of 1870, published a few years ago, there is an account of a female spy being brought in, firmly bound in a cart, and guarded by *twelve* men of the Francs-Tireurs—a spectacle which would have excited shouts of derision in any other army in the world, but which the narrator passes without note or comment, as if it were the most natural thing in the world. It is on this credulity that the projector of the blackmailing journals calculates. The "Flâneur" who makes up the gossip of the Boulevards, has only to put in an "on dit" here and there about a financial enterprise to set all the concierges, and little shopkeepers, and governesses, and porters, and *bonnes* frantic with terror, and the Panama Company had to rely largely for its funds on these classes.

The participation of Members of Parliament in the plunder of the Company—the odd man in the equally divided committee which sat on the lottery scheme, actually bargained with the directors until he got 200,000 francs for his vote—is more easily explicable than the power of the small newspapers. That legislators are "weak and yield easily," and grow more and more so, in the presence of rich men and corporations, is a phenomenon with which all democratic countries nowadays are becoming very familiar. We know a good deal about it in this country, but they are getting to know more and more about it in others with similar institutions. The French Parliament, all the best observers say, after every election contains a larger and larger number of needy men, who go to Paris with the expectation of making something out of their new position—if not actual cash, a chance of a "good thing" in the way of investment or speculation. Every French Parliament, too, finds itself, as do all modern parliaments, surrounded by men eager to acquire legal rights and privileges which only the Legislature can bestow, out of which they expect to make great sums. The process of reasoning by which the poor legislator, to whom even $1,000 is a fabulous sum, reaches the conclusion that there can be no wrong in making these applicants share with him a small portion of their expected profits, and thus enable him to pay off a mortgage, or give a daughter a little dowry, or provide for an aged mother, or set a son up in business, is one of the easiest in which the human understanding can engage, and there is a great deal of human understanding in these days engaged in it. The non-payment of members in England is one of the chief defences against this view of a legislator's rights, in that country, but this obstacle will probably not last long, and the poor men will get a chance to meet the men with the money-bags in the gate, as they meet them at Albany.

POETRY IN ITALY.

PISA, November 20, 1892.

THE times are not propitious to poetry. There are perhaps the usual number of aspirants to the favors of the muse, but their successes are few and of little worth. The public is indifferent and gets but indifferent verse. Not that the two facts are connected as cause and effect: in matters of art, demand can only secure the supply of such as there is to give; it cannot convert mediocrity into genius. No conceivable circumstances could change the value of the productions of Sir Edwin Arnold, for instance, or of François Coppée, or Giuseppe Giacosa. The utmost that could be accomplished—were there, by any possibility, a sudden outcry for poetry—would be that a few, who might otherwise be politicians, or financiers, or book agents, or temperance lecturers, would be led to confide their metrical indiscretions to the public. In view of such an event, few will maintain that the present state of things is as bad as it might be, though it is discouraging work just now to talk about poetry in most of the countries of Europe.

Still, one might claim that Italy is better off than the rest of the world. She has one real poet, who is such in the sense in which Rossini was a musician in the later years of his life, and one, still producing, who is probably second to no other in Europe. Both live in Bologna and are attached to the University there, the former as librarian, the latter as professor of Greek—a fact which gave occasion to a recent little volume entitled 'I Poeti Bolognesi.' The author, a clever young poet himself, the better to justify his title, perhaps, rounded out his book by a notice of Panzacchi, a poet, so to speak, like another, though not lacking in grace as a writer of lyrics. These, with an occasional ode or cantata, constitute, at least in verse, his literary baggage.

As for the other two of the Bolognese poets, they are, if not the only ones, at least the best worth considering of all in Italy. Together they mark an epoch and each has in a way made a school. That of Stecchetti did not long outlive the period of his popularity. The preface of his first volume bears the date of February, 1877. Its effect was immediate: a storm of mingled applause and blame was raised, in which it was difficult for the voice of reason to make itself heard. It is perhaps not often that friends and foes are both so much in the right, but Stecchetti justified some of the worst that was said of him, as well as most of the best; the victory, fortunately for him, has remained with his friends in the semi-silence that has closed about his fame.

The preface, by Dr. Olindo Guerrini of the University of Bologna, to the little volume of 'Postuma' of Lorenzo Stecchetti was the biography of the author, a young man who adored Byron, Heine, and De Musset, who lived wildly, loved far too much in the unwise way, and finally died of consumption, leaving the verses therewith published by his friend. These, with a grace and charm all their own, suggested by turns the several models the young man had chosen, but in them Heine and Musset had become so decidedly *fin de siècle* that it is no wonder that good people and goody people cried aloud against them. Of course, the goody people cried the loudest, and so, when the secret was out, when it was known that Lorenzo Stecchetti never existed, and that the real author was a reputable citizen, holding well an honorable position, Dr. Guerrini published a second volume, 'Polemica,'

and still a third, 'Nova Polemica,' half filled with verse similar in character to that in the first, and half with a preface in which he slew many Philistines; but not as did Samson. His weapon was a blade of keenest and brightest steel; in other words, a clear exposition of the revolt against outworn forms and beliefs, against frauds and hypocrisy, which his poetry represented. Sometimes the defence was better than the offender deserved; that is, the revolt committed in the fervor of youth had been carried so far as to shock legitimate susceptibilities, and was not to be excused by any amount of righteous indignation against hypocrites and prudes. Thus much allowed, few will deny that the poetry to which the name of Stecchetti still clings, has many most admirable qualities. The contrast of sadness and mockery is as exhilarating as the similar contradiction in Heine; the elegance that reminds one of De Musset has the advantage of being in a language more favorable to poetic expression than is the French. Moreover, there is something very winning in the nature of the poet which is visible in his verse and lends to it a singular attractiveness. It is impossible not to regret that the author of works so graceful and melodious has not given us more of the same sort. The case is that described in De Musset's lines:

"Il existe, en un mot, chez les trois quarts des hommes,
Un poète mort jeune, à qui l'homme survit."

Only, when the poet is of the value of Stecchetti, it is his duty to live as long as the man who houses him.

The other poet, Giosuè Carducci, has always been a combatant. Nature had furnished him abundantly from the outset both with the disposition and with the talents for warfare, and the use he has made of them has been such that he may already apply to himself the half confession, half excuse that Heine made of like misdeeds in the *Nachwort* to his 'Romancero': "I grant you, I have scratched many, bitten many, and was no lamb. But, trust me for it, your vaunted lambs of meekness would demean themselves less piously if they only had the teeth and the claws of the tiger." Carducci has from the beginning made free use of teeth and claws. Consequently, aside from considerations to be mentioned hereafter, it is probably as much to avenge their wounds as because they neither liked nor understood it, that his poetry was for years subject to assaults from the critics. Nowadays everybody pretends to admire it and know it by heart, but there are reasons why, at the beginning, even had the author been a lamb of meekness, his verse should have been received with difficulty. It may be owned at once that much of it is far from easy reading, and, until one is sure that an author is worth so much trouble, it is distinctly against his work that it should be hard of comprehension. Moreover, not only is the style against the reader, but many of the early poems bristled with classical allusions to such an extent that they are "Greek" indeed to any but the specialist of antiquity. I can scarcely give a better example of this than that given in the little book already named. It is the beginning of an ode to Phœbus Apollo:

"Della quadriga eterea
Agitator sovrano,
Sferza i focosi alipedi,
Bellissimo Titano.

"Te pur, dell' ugna indocile
Stancando il balzo eoo,
Chimaro in van ne' vigili
Nitrite Eto e Piroo,

"Quando la bella Orcamide
Ti palpitò su 'l core,
E gli achemenii talami
Chiuse ridendo Amore."

Carducci was good, however, for something else than sports with the mythological dictionary, and in later work he amply repays all the trouble one may bestow on surmounting the difficulties occasioned by his extreme compression and his Latin, rather than Italian, constructions. Even the earlier volumes, 'Juvenilia' and 'Levia Gravia,' are full of the surprises that are still one of the charms of the poet. Such an ode as that instanced just now may be sandwiched between a page of patriotism, where wrath and scorn of the unworthy help to heat the words of devotion, and, on the other side, an idyll sculpturesque in its simplicity. The only thing common to all is the manner of writing. Of no one is it truer that the style is the man. His favorite poets—the ancients, together with Dante and Petrarch—have combined with his own nature to form a style that, from the beginning, was classic in its purity, conciseness, and force. The word sculpturesque, used just now, indicates of what sort is its beauty. Perhaps no other poet living has an equal power of condensation, and of producing with few words a concrete image. The means used are simple even to austerity, but from them the form emerges vigorous, clearly defined, and with a still grace that suggests Hellenic work.

It is a curious fact in the development of the poet that, with the advance of years, his manner becomes more and more classic at the same time that the exact contrary is true of his matter. It was in his early days that he gave us such odes as that to Phœbus Apollo, to Diana Trivia, and the like. In the 'Odi Barbare,' written without rhyme and in Horatian metres—principally sapphics and alcaics—the verse is as nearly Latin as anything in a modern language could well be, while the subjects are chiefly of to-day. These metres are largely used in the expression of the aspirations and reminiscences of Italian patriotism, but, after all, there is no lack of harmony between the thoughts and their setting. Patriotism in Carducci is of the antique Roman stamp. There is no trace in it of modern sentimentalism; it is fierce, proud, sometimes even arrogant, as is also his democracy, or what Italian democrats used to take for such. The classic metres are no affectation: they are the expression of the author's nature, which, in more respects than one, is that of an ancient. In religion, for instance, he often seems less a modern sceptic, or rationalist, than a pantheistic pagan. In the beautiful ode to the springs of Clitumnus, he records the flight of the ancient deities at the advent of Christianity in words that recall Milton in the "Hymn to the Nativity"; only, for him the victory of the Galilean is a calamity:

"—— una strana compagnia, fra i bianchi
templi spogliati e i colonnati infranti,
procedè lenta, in neri sacchi avolta,
litaniando;

e sovra i campi del lavoro umano
sonanti e i clivi memori d'impero
fece deserto, ed il deserto disse
regno di Dio,"

and so on with growing bitterness. Christianity had turned men away from industry, had denied human nature, and, making of humility a virtue, had made it abject. Elsewhere he wrathfully apostrophises the "Secoletto vil che cristianeggia."

His complaint against Christianity, however, is not only that of a Greek but also of a modern. Perhaps nothing that the poet ever wrote has created more hubbub than the "Hymn to Satan," written in 1863, but given to the public several years later. Satan for him is nothing but nature and reason as against superstition and dogma. Protestants will be less likely to be frightened by this hymn, as they will find among the soldiers of Satan Savonarola and Martin Luther; but among Church people in Italy the scandal was immense. At the same time it was seized upon with avidity by the anti-clerical party, and at once raised the author to fame—a fame for a poet not of the purest sort. The performance was not to be classed with the noblest work of Carducci. He himself characterized it later as a "birbonata utile"—a rascally trick though useful—referring to its execution rather than to its intention; but to the noisier part of his friends it was a political weapon—its poetic value was a secondary question, with which they had little to do. It has been a misfortune, in a way, to Carducci that, during most of his career, the anti-clericals and democrats have insisted on identifying him with themselves. I say *in a way*, because the battles waged over much of his poetry have been anything but literary contests. He writes a series of sonnets glorifying the French Revolution, or he commemorates deeds of Garibaldi or Mazzini, and straightway the entire radical press rings with praises of the performance; he dedicates an ode to the Queen of Italy, and the same press abuses him as a traitor. Of course, the Government prints take in each case the opposite view, and with equal reason. Meanwhile the poet keeps on his way, singing of what to him is beautiful or noble, without being turned aside by praise or blame; but with his warm, even violent, nature (he speaks himself of "il petto ov' odio e amor mai non s' addorme"), it is no wonder that he becomes more and more scornful of his kind, and that so many of his prefaces are masterpieces of contemptuous sarcasm.

Whatever now may be said of his politics, the question of the value of his poetry was settled long ago. Nobody now ventures to dispute Carducci's position as the one really great poet living in Italy, and for myself I am disposed to maintain that, now that Tennyson is gone, the Anglo-Saxon world has not a poet equal to Carducci. The house of Zanichelli in Bologna is engaged in publishing a complete edition of his works, which, however, as long as the author lives and produces, can scarcely be definitive. All the verse published up to 1872, at least all of it which Carducci has thought worth preservation, had been previously included in three volumes, 'Juvenilia,' 'Levia Gravia,' and 'Giambi ed Epodi.' Posterior to these are three series of 'Odi Barbare,' comprising much of his noblest work, several odes recently published separately, and the volume 'Rime Nuove,' the very flower of all that the author has written in rhyme. The 'Odi Barbare' can probably be best appreciated by those who have well studied Horace and loved him; they will generally find that these odes, like their ancient models, yield their full flavor only to him who returns to them again and again. But sooner or later they can scarcely fail to acknowledge that such odes as that "Alle Fonti di Clitumno," that dedicated to the Queen of Italy with the title "Il Liuto e la Lira," that "In Morte di Napoleone Eugenio," or "Miramar" or "Scoglio di Quarto," not to mention many others, are worthy to be ranked among the highest achievements of modern poetry. As to the 'Rime Nuove,' one finds there so many gems that I will not try to enumerate them. One single sonnet, a favorite with all who know the book, entitled "Il Bove," may serve to give a notion, to those

who have yet to make acquaintance with the poet, of the pleasure his books have in store for them:

T'amo, o pio bove; e mite un sentimento
Di vigore e di pace a 'l cor m' infondi,
O che solenne come un monumento
Tu guardi i campi liberi e fecondi,

O che a 'l giogo inchinandoti contento
L' agil opra de l' uom grave secondi:
Ei t' esorta e ti punge, e tu co'l lento
Giro de' pazienti occhi rispondi.

Da la larga narice umida e nera
Fuma il tuo spirto, e come un inno lieto
Il mugghio ne 'l sereno aer si perde;

E de 'l grave occhio glauco entro l' austera
Dolcezza si rispecchia ampio e quieto
Il divino del pian silenzio verde.

S. K.

MS. CHARTS IN THE PUBLIC RECORD OFFICE.

LONDON, November 28, 1892.

IT would require long years of research to enable one fully to realize the extent of the accumulations at the Public Record Office. Students can, it is true, get a bird's-eye view of the stores of this hive of historical documents from Mr. Scargill-Bird's valuable 'Handbook to the Records'; but how many people are aware of the wealth of maps and charts, printed and in manuscript, preserved in that institution? It does, indeed, seem a pity that these cartographical treasures are not better known, for, as the utmost facility is given to the inquirer by the staff of the Department, research in this direction is a mere matter of looking over the 'Index' and then asking to see what you may deem worthy of inspection. The maps and charts relate to all parts of the world and are preserved in volumes and in cases. They are grouped in some forty-six divisions. Of these the most interesting to Americans will be: 10, book lettered New England; 11, book lettered New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; 12, book lettered Maryland and Virginia; 13, book lettered North and South Carolina and Georgia; 14, book lettered East and West Florida; and 28, book lettered English Plantations.

The 'Index' was compiled by a member of the staff of the old State Paper Office, which was afterwards absorbed into the Public Record Office. The author of it was a brother of Mark Lemon, for some years the editor of *Punch*. This is his admonition to those who might from time to time refer to the 'Index':

"Gentle Reader: The following catalogue is only in draft, and has not even been read over: it must therefore be consulted with all its faults. But if you find any—mend them.

"R. LEMON.

"S. P. O., March, 1854."

Some of the maps noted in the 'Index' were missing at the time the 'Index' was made. It is unfortunate that among the maps not to be found should be the original of Warner's survey of the Rappahannock and Potomac, which was "attested by the Commissioners on the part of the Crown and Lord Fairfax." Those conversant with the history of New York may be able to determine the date of the "Ancient Chart of the Port of New York and Map of the Country." The River Hudson is called "Hudson's River." Staten Island is noted as "Statin Isle and Richmond County." On the island "Old Town" and "New Town" are marked off. As, however, trees are represented in various parts, the island cannot have been thickly peopled. Opposite to "Amboy" on the Jersey shore is a spot noted as "Ferry." There is another "Ferry" opposite to "Hendriks" on "Nassaw or Long Island."

As regards the land granted to the Palatines on the Hudson River, of which there is a map, referred to in Col. Hunter's letter of the 8d October, 1710, it may be well to note that papers relating to the settlement of Palatines in New York are preserved in the British Museum, with a letter signed James du Pré (11) (*Harleian*, 7021–28). In the same grand storehouse of historical treasures will be found "A Journal of the Dividing Line drawn between the Colonies of Virginia and North Carolina, begun March 5, 1728, per Colonel [William] Byrd and others." It forms a small quarto (28,620). The collection abounds in maps of various parts of Canada.

The following list contains most, but not all, of the manuscript (as distinct from the numerous printed) maps and charts of places now comprised within the United States of America preserved in the Public Record Office. It cannot but prove interesting to the students of the cartography of the United States.

D. D.

Albany—Plan of the town and lands, W. R[omer]..... 11, 26
Albany—Plans of the forts.....11, 24, 25
Albany—Plan of lands near, 1698..... 11, 27
America—Map of the new Western States of.....Case 36, 5
America, North—Old map of part of (about 1720, very curious)..... 7, 18
America, North—A map of the Southern Indian District of North America, compiled under the direction of John Stuart, Esq., Superintendent of Indian Affairs. By Joseph Purcell. 1775?.....Case 36, 11
America, North—A new map of the Southern District of North America, compiled for Lieutenant-Colonel Brown, Superintendent of Indian Affairs. By Joseph Purcell, 1781. This is a most elaborate and beautifully executed work.....Case 36, 12
Beaufort—South Carolina, 1721..... 13, 32
Beaufort—Town, Plan of..... 13, 46
Carolina, North and South, and the Bahama Islands, describing the position of the Indian Tribes and the numbers in each Tribe. About 1712?..... 7, 26
Carolina—Compiled description of the Province, in 3 parts. Edward Crisp. (In a very decayed condition)..... 13, 44
Carolina, North and South..... 13, 30
Carolina, North and South, and Louisiana —Describing the country, battles with the Spaniards, Indians, etc. About 1788?..... 7, 27
Carolina, North—Map of the Boundary Line between North and South Carolina. Wm. Gray..... 13, 20
Carolina, North—2 Plans of the Boundary Line between North and South Carolina, attested by the Surveyors. 1764..... 13, 49
Carolina, North—2 Plans of Earl Granville's Boundary Line, about 1765. Transmitted in Mr. Tryon's letter, January 27, 1766..... 13, 52
Carolina, South, Georgia, and Florida—Map of 1738, transmitted with Gov. Bull's letters, May 25, 1738..... 14, 21
Carolina, South—Map of Boundary Line between South Carolina and the Cherokee Indians. G. Wilkinson, 1766. With the names of the Cherokee chiefs..... 13, 53
Castle Island, in Boston Bay—Plan of Fortifications, 1695..... 10, 33
Castle Island, with plan of Castle William, 1705..... 10, 53
Castle Island—Sectional view of the above. 10, 54
Castle William, Boston—Iconographical plans of J. Redknap, 1705; attested by J. Dudley.....10, 35, 36
Catawba Indians—Survey of their lands. S. Wyly, 1764..... 13, 48
Cattanboes, or Nassau Town—Plan of, and adjacent rivers..... 13, 36
Charlestown (S. Carolina)—Iconographical Plan of John Herbert. 1721..... 13, 8
Charlestown—Plan of projected Fortifications. Wm. de Brahm, 1742, after.. 13, 9
Charlestown—Copy of Brahm's plan for fortifying. 1757..... 13, 47
Charlottenbourg (Georgia)—3 plans of.. 13, 27
Cherokee Country—Map of, with Indian Towns, the warriors and forces. George Hunter. Received from Jas. Crokatt, agent, May 27, 1752..... 13, 5
Connecticut—Describing the ancient boundaries of the Colony. Transmitted with the letter Sept. 14, 1720..... 10, 51
Connecticut River—From its source to the boundary line, which divides the Province of New Hampshire and Massachusetts Bay. In ten sheets, with one Index Plan showing the whole course of the River. Holland & Grant.....Case 38, No. 32
Creek Nation—A Draught of the, with original sketches of their houses, implements, costume, &c. Wm. Bonor, 1757..... 13, 13
Crown Point—Plan of the Fort, received with Governor Wentworth's letter, May 9, 1744..... 11, 17
Crown Point—In Sir H. Moore's letter [No. 31], December 16, 1768..... 11, 49
Erie, Lake—Outline of the shores of Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan.....Case 38, No. 54
Erie, Lake—Survey of the south shore, commencing at the Narrows at Fort Erie, and ending at the Entrance of Detroit River. H. Ford, E. E. McNiff. 1789.....Case 38, No. 55
Falmouth (Maine) Fort..... 10, 19
Five Nations—Map of Col. Romer's journey to..... 11, 20
Five Nations—Map of their country. 1724. Engraved and MS..... 11, 17
Florida, East—Map of..... 14, 24a
Florida, East—Translation of Spanish Map of, John Gordons..... 24, 24
Florida, East—Spanish Map of part of the Coast..... 14, 16
Florida, East—Spanish Map of Part of Inland..... 14, 17
Florida, East—Sketch of Coast, from St. Augustine to Bay of Musquitos..... 14, 34
Florida, East—Large Survey and Chart of Part of E. Coast of E. Florida: from St. Mary's Inlet, North to Mount Halifax, South; showing the ascertained boundary between E. Florida and the Creek Indians.....Case 39, No. 8
Florida, East—A Survey on the Largest Scale, in two portions, of the E. Coast of E. Florida, from the Musquito Inlet, North, to Cape Sable, the most Southern Point of the Promontory, by Van Gerard de Brahm, Surveyor General...Case 39, No. 9, 10
Florida, West—French map of..... 14, 57
Florida, West—Large map of, extending from Appalachicola River to the banks of the Mississippi as high as Jago River, with a long MS. description of its soil, climate, extent, and natural productions, by Bernard Romans.....Case 39, No. 11
Florida, West—Part of, from Pascagoula Bay and River to the River Amit, beyond Lake Maurepas: with specification of lands granted on the Amit.....Case 39, No. 12
Florida, West—Boundary line of the lands ceded to His Majesty by the Chactau Indians: from the North boundary of West Florida, on the Jago River, to the River Pescagoula: on two sheets: by Joseph Purcell, 1779.....Case 39, Nos. 13, 14
Fort Rosalia (W. Florida)..... 14, 56
Fort St. George (New York)—Plan of the Battery. John Dies..... 11, 15
Fort William and Mary, on the Piscataqua River—View of it. 1699..... 10, 42
Frederica, and Savannah (Georgia)—Plans and sections of the fortifications. Brahm. Received with Gov. Reynolds's letter, January 5, 1756..... 13, 14
Georgia—Part of the land petitioned for by Sir William Keith and others. Transmitted with the Duke of Newcastle's letter, August 3, 1731..... 12, 13
Georgia—Boundary line with the Creek Indians. Samuel Savery, 1769. This shows the situation of the great swamp called by the Indians "*Ekanphonoka*, or *the Terrible Ground*. The Indians, from an ancient tradition, have a notion that it is inhabited by a race of immortals which they call *Estè Mèsh-ko*, or Invisible People, of whom they tell many marvellous and absurd stories."..... 13, 53
Georgia—Map of the inhabited part of, Brahm..... 13, 15
Georgia and Florida: With the site of one of the tribes of Apalachee Indians..... 13, 12
Hudson's River—A New Mappe of Part of. Col. W. Romer, 1700..... 11, 34
Iberville River—Actual Survey from the Falls of, Journeaux, 1771..... 14, 68
There are various other charts of this river.
Indian Country, West of Albany, New York, ceded to King William III.—Map of Samuel Clowes. 1701..... 11, 21
Indian Country—Sketch of, North of New York..... 11, 28
Indian Country—Indian Grant to Sir Wm. Johnson. 1766..... 11, 43
Indian Nations,—Map by an Indian Chief. Presented to Francis Nicholson, Governor of S. Carolina. Mounted on coarse canvas..... 7, 25
Duplicate of above..... 13, 37
King George's Fort (S. Carolina), with the colors of the Swiss Company. 1742..... 13, 38
King George's Fort (S. Carolina), with the colors of the Swiss Company, 1742..... 13, 45
Maine—Map and description of the "Pineries" in the Province of Maine. Scammell, October 8, 1772.....Case 40, No. 53
Marble Head, Fort—Plans of, 1705 (?) . 10, 39 and 40
Maryland—Ancient Map of the Province, on vellum, colored..... 12, 12
Maryland—Boundary line between Maryland and Pennsylvania. J. Smither... 12, 19
Massachusetts Bay—Ancient map of, by Capt. Cyprian Southack. Printed in Boston in 1717, *with numerous MS. additions* and notes..... 7, 16
Massachusetts Bay—Boundary line with New Hampshire. Ric. Hazzen, 1741.. 10, 16

Massachusetts—Map of the Northern English Colonies, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the mouth of the River Hudson, showing numerous ancient boundary lines of various Colonies. Done at the request of Wm. Shirley, Esq., Governor of Massachusetts, by Charles Morris. Case 40, No. 58
Michigan, Erie, and Huron Lakes—Survey of, with part of Ohio River. 1765.... 11, 39
Michigan, Erie, and Huron Lakes—Plan of the "Streyts" between the two lakes 11, 47
Minisink and Wawayanda Patents—Plans of. In Governor Colden's letter, April 13, 1765.... 11, 36
Mississippi River—Survey of, from the River Jasons to the Ibberville. Durnford, 1771. With schedule of grants made, Proprietors' names, number of acres granted, etc.... Case 41, No. 2 and 14, 70
There are various other MS. charts of the Mississippi including one by Des Barres in 1779 (Case 41. No. 1.)
Mitchilimackanack (New York) Fort—Plan of.... 11, 47
Mobile Harbour.... 14, 10
Mobile—Plan of Town and Harbour.... 14, 11
Mobile—Plan of the Fort. Pitman.... 14, 12
Mobile River—Map of its course.... 14, 59
Mobile and Alabama Rivers—Schedule of grants made, specifying the Proprietors, number of acres granted, etc., 1771.... 14, 68
Mobile—Field Survey of River Mobile and part of Rivers Alabama and Lerisa, with the different settlers' lands marked thereon, from the Town of Mobile to the Boundary Line of the Chactaw Indians. Durnford.... B. T. Vol. 14, No. 69
Mobile—Very extensive survey of the Bay and River Mobile, with list and references to the lands granted, the Proprietors' names, etc.... Case 41, No. 3
Mohawks River—Plans of lands granted to various parties. A. Colden. 1765.. 11, 38
Monongahela River—Plan of Fort Duquesne, and Plan of the field of battle and encampment of the troops, July, 1755.... 24, 56
Newbern (North Carolina)—Plan and elevation of the Governor's house.... 13, 54
New England—Plan of part of the Province, including Connecticut, Rhode Island, and the boundaries of the County of New Cambridge. 1697.... 10, 30
New England—Plan of the Province of. Received from Col. Dunbar, with his letter, May 2, 1730.... 10, 31
New England—Plan of the sea coast from Ogunkett River to Cape Elizabeth, including the Bays of Wells, Suco, and Black Point. James Grant.... Case 41, 8
New England—Plan of part of the coasts of New Hampshire and Massachusetts, from Little River Rocks to Cape Town. Grant and Wheeler.... Case 41, No. 9
New Hampshire—Part of, between the Rivers. Jas. Jeffry, May 2, 1720.... 10, 23, 25
New Hampshire—Plan of the Rivers and Boundary Lines. Geo. Mitchell, 1737.. 10, 26
New Hampshire—Showing the boundary line with Massachusetts Bay. Bryant, 1741.... 10, 5
New Hampshire—Map of the Merrimack River. E. Mitchell. Enclosed in Gov. Wentworth's letter, March 6, 1741-'42. 10, 10
New Hampshire—Shewing the Townships granted by Massachusetts Bay. Mitchell, 1745.... 10, 4
New Hampshire and Massachusetts—Outline maps of, with descriptive references 10, 18
There are other MS. maps of New Hampshire.
New Jersey—Ancient map of part of.... 11, 18
Newport (Rhode Island)—Town and Harbour.... 10, 14
Newport (Rhode Island)—Plan of Fortifications. Harrison, 1755.... 10, 15
New York—Ancient chart of the part of, and map of the Country.... 11, 18
New York—Ancient map of, dedicated to the Earl of Bellamont, by Augr. Graham (1698?), showing the most important grants of land.... 11, 19
New York—2 Maps of divisional lines between New York and Massachusetts, by W. Alexander, 1754.... 11, 13, 14
New York—Map of the Provinces of New York, part of New England, and New France.—Francis Pfister, 1759.. Case 41, No. 34
New York—Four sheets, Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12, of a very extensive survey of the Province of New York. Probably a portion of the map formerly in Vol. II., then consisting of 12 sheets.... Case 41, No. 35
New York—Exhibiting the boundary line established at Fort Stanwix, 1768.... 9, 11
New York—Plan and survey of lands granted in the Province.... 11, 48
Niagara River—Sketch of from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario.... Case 42, No. 1
Ohio—Map of lands belonging to Ohio Company. G. Mercer.... 12, 5
Ohio—Map of lands belonging to Ohio Company. G. Mercer.... 12, 6
Palatines—Lands granted to, on the Hudson River. Referred to in Col. Hunter's letter, October 3, 1710.... 11, 23
Penaquoid Fort (Maine)—Plan of. 1699. 10, 48
Penaquoid Fort (Maine)—Plans by Red knap, 1705. Attested by J. Dudley... 10, 47
Pennsylvania—Map of part of the Province of, west of the River Susquehanna..... 11, 20
Pensacola—Plan of the new Town of, and Country adjacent, with gardens, allotments, etc. Durnford.... 14, 42
Pensacola—Schedule of the lands surveyed and granted, stating the proprietors' names, number of acres, etc., 1771.... 14, 55
Pensacola—Map of the Road from Pensacola in West Florida to St. Augustine in East Florida, with numerous MS. Observations. Jos. Purcell, 1778.... Case 42, No. 33
There are several other plans of Pensacola in MS.
Pistacataqua River (New Hampshire)—View of Forts on, 1699.... 10, 41, 42
Pistacataqua River—Survey of, by J. B.... 10, 52
Pistacataqua River—Map of, 1738.... 10, 55
Pistacataqua River—Map and Plan of Harbor and adjacent country.... Case 42, 35
Port Royal (South Carolina)—Plan of Gascoigne.... 13, 7
Rhode Island—Plan of, with the Boundary Line of Connecticut Colony. John Mumford, 1720. Attested by Gov. Cranston.... 10, 29
Rhode Island, including the Boundary Dispute with Massachusetts Bay. Jos. Conant, 1736. Attested under the Colony Seal of Connecticut.... 10, 36
Rhode Island—Survey of the Colony, made for the Commissioners for settling the Boundary Line with the Province of Massachusetts. Helme and Chandler, Sept., 1741. Attested by the Commissioners.... Papers, Bundle, 492
St. Augustine—Map with description. 1763.... 14, 20
St. Augustine and its environs, showing the allotments and names of proprietors. Moncrief, 1765.... 14, 41
St. Augustine—Sketch of City and Obviations.... 14, 2
St. Augustine—Plan of the City, Harbor, and Fortifications.... 14, 83
St. Augustine—Plan of King's Ground at. 14, 7
San Ildefonso—Mapa del Puerto de San Francisco en Nuevo Monterrey... Case 43, No. 15
Salem Fort—Plan of. J. Redknap, 1705.. 10, 13
Virginia—Map of boundary line between Virginia and North Carolina. W. Mayo, 1728.... 12, 2
Virginia—Map of boundary line with Carolina, 1728. Transmitted with Mr. Lorick's letter, Decr. 12. 1728.... 12, 10
Virginia—Map of boundary line with Carolina. Transmitted in Mr. Byrd's letter of June 27, 1729.... 12, 10
Virginia—Map of the Northern Neck, W. Mayo, 1737. In Major Gooch's letter of August 19, 1737.... 12, 8
Virginia—Northern Neck, Jefferson and Brooke, 1746. Attested. Transmitted with Sir Wm. Gooch's letter, June 10, 1747.... 12, 16
Virginia—Map of boundary line with N. Carolina. Original Commissioners, 1728. 13, 1
Virginia—General Map of the known and inhabited parts of.... 12, 15
Virginia—A true and accurate survey of the Rivers Rappahanock and Potomack. John Warren. Original. Attested by the Commissioners on the part of the Crown and Lord Fairfax. N. B. *Missing*.... 12, 14
Virginia—Map of part of, with the boundary lines of lands ceded by the Indians.... 12, 17
Virginia—Boundary between Virginia and the Cherokee Indians. J. Donelson, 1771. Transmitted by Lord Dunmore, March, 1772 (?) No. 7.... 12, 11

Correspondence.

ONE THING NEEDFUL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article upon the English Corrupt Practices Act, comparing it with that of Massachusetts, you state "that the prime requisite of all such legislation is minuteness of detail—that is, specific and unmistakable provision for every form of corrupt or undue influence in elections." If you will pardon me, there is one thing still more important, and that is some provision for putting the law in force. In its total failure to do this the Massachusetts Act is so extraordinary that it is difficult to understand how such clear-headed men of business as those whose names are attached could have been satisfied with it.

It began by stating that candidates for nomination or for election must not do certain things, but nowhere is there the slightest hint that the doing such things will invalidate their election. All that the offender incurs is the remote risk of having to pay a fine of not more than one thousand dollars—a penalty ludicrously inadequate, even if it were imposed, to check any candidate who really sought office for corrupt purposes. The English penalty is much more logical and effective: that he who uses money in elections shall lose his election and his money too.

The act then proceeds to state that no money shall be expended except through a political committee, which must have a treasurer, and that such treasurer shall within thirty days file a statement of receipts and expenses with his town or city clerk. For failure to do this, which—at all events morally speaking—is much the least of the two, the penalty is much more formidable. The offender is to be punished by a fine of not exceeding a thousand dollars *or* (as if it were an equivalent) by imprisonment for not more than one year.

The astonishing part is that not one word is said by whom or how the punishment is to be enforced. It is true that if any treasurer of the hundreds of political committees throughout the State fails to make his statement, the Supreme Judicial Court and the Superior Court are given full equity powers to compel him to do so, presumably by threats of the penalty; but this seems by implication to cut off his liability for the original offence. It is not risking much to predict that nobody will ever be fined or imprisoned under that act.

There is something touching in the simplicity with which, when our citizens see wrong things done, they combine to get a law passed that they shall not be done any more, apparently with the idea that with a law-abiding people nothing more is necessary. In 1890 a law was passed that every lobbyist should make a return of his expenses. Certain guileless and conscientious persons did this, but it is notorious that a large number of other persons did not; yet nobody has molested or pursued them. When the old Roman jurists said "There is no law without a penalty," they had not had experience of Massachusetts, or indeed of any State in the Union, in all of which plenty of such laws flourish in full vigor.

It is the perfectly natural result of putting all power in the hands of legislatures which are not responsible for and care nothing about executive administration. In our insane dread of executive power, we have so emasculated and strangled it that there is not enough left for the ordinary requirements of government, and even those who hold executive office dare not raise their voices in criticism of their masters in the Legislature. It is impossible to believe, however, that, with the spirit of the American people, there will not be found sooner or later some man with the courage to tell them the exact truth; and when he does, he may meet with a response which will astonish a good many people.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, December 16, 1892.

THE PRICE OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read in your paper of December 1 your editorial entitled "Repeal the Silver-Purchase Act" with much interest. You say:

"Our Government is now buying 54,000,000 ounces per year of one of the products of the country—an article of merchandise which would otherwise be exported and would enter into our balance of trade with the world. At eighty-five cents per ounce this represents

$46,000,000 per annum. Our balance of foreign trade is $46,000,000 less than it would otherwise be, and this vacuum must be filled with gold or something equally good."

If the above is true, then it follows that Europe would buy 54,000,000 ounces of silver from us at eighty-five cents per ounce even if the United States Government bought none. That is about the best news we "Western silver cranks" have heard for a long time. Being an editorial statement of the *Nation*, it must be true, but we should feel better about it if you would kindly give your reasons for such important and positive statements. Will you kindly enlighten us on the subject?

Yours truly, J. J. HAGERMAN.

COLORADO SPRINGS, COL., Dec. 12, 1892.

[We presume that nobody misunderstood the purport of the paragraph quoted by Mr. Hagerman, which was that the buying of silver bullion by the Government intercepts one of the products of American industry on its way to a foreign market, and so renders the exportation of gold, or its equivalent, necessary. We did not commit ourselves to the belief that silver would sell at eighty-five cents per ounce if the Government's purchases were stopped. It might sell for less, or it might sell for more. Mr. Louis H. Ehrich of Colorado Springs, in a valuable publication, has advanced reasons for thinking that our Government's purchases of silver have really curtailed the aggregate demand for that metal in the world, and lowered the price by alarming other nations, who know perfectly well that such purchases must stop some time, and who apprehend that unloading will follow. Consequently they cut down their own purchases to the lowest notch, and substitute other things for silver wherever they can. The movement of Austria-Hungary to the gold basis was powerfully stimulated by the apprehension of American unloading of silver. Austria determined to unload first, and now India is hoping that she may be able to follow suit for the same reason. But it is a matter of conjecture whether the price would fall or not if the Sherman Law were repealed, and we are not committed either way.—ED. NATION.]

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE ASSURED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the Hayward will, printed in the *Nation* (No. 1429), Mr. Henry F. Waters writes to me as follows:

"It is certainly (apart from its great value for the light it throws upon the American family) the greatest discovery that has been made since I found that memorandum upon which my theory of the solution of the Washington problem (*i. e.*, as to the English connections) was chiefly founded.

"That theory undertook two tasks: first, to identify the Virginians, John and Lawrence Washington, with the eldest sons of Lawrence and Amphillis Washington, named in the will of Andrew Knowling of Tring; secondly, to identify Lawrence, the husband of Amphillis and father of the Virginians, with Lawrence, the Fellow of Brasenose College and Rector of Purleigh. When the theory was published we did not know that there was any evidence existing to show that the parson of Purleigh was married. Probably (as it appears) Col. Chester knew; but, if so, his knowledge died with him. Then Mr. Conway, looking up documents referred to in Chester's MSS., came upon evidence which established the fact that Lawrence Washington of Purleigh had a wife living as late as the latter part of September, 1649. Afterwards Miss Walford found the burial of Mr. Lawrence Washington at Maldon (the date being 21st of January, 1652). This was undoubtedly the burial of Lawrence of Purleigh, who had been holding a poor and miserable living a few miles from Maldon, to which there was no parsonage attached. He was, therefore, in all probability, making Maldon his headquarters. With these new facts it seemed evident that nothing really stood in the way of eventually establishing a complete parallelism between the two. On the one side we had Lawrence, the husband of Amphillis, undoubtedly M. A., in all probability a clergyman, married probably in 1633 (if we may judge from the age of his eldest son), deceased between 1650 and 1655; on the other side, Lawrence of Purleigh, M. A., a clergyman, married probably in 1633, when he gave up his Fellowship, and dead in 1652.

"In addition, I was able to prove an interesting connection between Lawrence of Purleigh and his family and Tring and Middle Claydon, the homes of Amphillis and her brother. Then the negative testimony was of tremendous value. Not another Lawrence, with all our searching, could be found, except the Purleigh man, who could meet the conditions; and now more than three years have elapsed, and we can still make the same assertion. M. A.'s do not grow on every bush. The records of Oxford have been ransacked, and we can pronounce it impossible to find there another Lawrence Washington, M. A. (other than the parson of Purleigh); and those at Cambridge have been so well examined that we can declare it altogether improbable that one will be found there. And nowhere else can we look for that other Lawrence Washington, M. A. In fact, there was no other—so you may imagine I felt quite sure that whatever evidence should turn up would be in confirmation of my theory, or certainly not opposed to it.

"Take the case of that sister of the two brothers in Virginia. We did not know what her name was until the will of her brother John was brought to light. According to my theory, she must have borne one of three names—Elizabeth, Margaret, or Martha. If any other, then the worse for my theory. We learned from that will that she was Martha, who, according to my theory, was the youngest sister of John, and he, as the youthful head of an orphaned family, would be likely to assist his youngest sister. Then came your discovery of that letter written in 1699 by John Washington of Stafford Co., referring to an Aunt Howard. Of course, this must be that Martha whom we have been discussing. Now comes your last discovery, showing us that this Aunt Howard (or Hayward, for they are one and the same) was that Martha Washington, the youngest sister of the two Virginians. And she mentions sisters in England. Here would be another danger to my theory if that had been a weak one. That theory demanded that Martha's sisters should be two in number, and named Elizabeth and Margaret. Note the obliging way in which Mrs. Howard says 'my *eldest* sister, Elizabeth' and 'my *other* sister, Margaret,' and the married name of the eldest caps the climax. The naming of Mrs. Elizabeth Rumbold clinches the matter. It is the keystone of the arch we have been building, securely binding the two sides together. When we find Mrs. Mewce, the known sister of Lawrence of Purleigh, calling Mrs. Rumbold 'niece,' and Martha Howard, the sister of John and Lawrence of Virginia, calling her 'sister,' we can no longer doubt the descent of our Washington from Lawrence Washington, the Rector of Purleigh."

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, December 13, 1892.

MRS. GLASSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last *Nation* (p. 450) mention is made of "a French origin for Mrs. Glasse's 'First catch your hare.'"

One may read in Bracton, 'De Legibus' something over six centuries ago, at folio 191, where he is speaking of the necessity of possession in certain cases: "Et vulgariter dicitur quod primo oportet cervum capere, et postea 'cum captus fuerit' illum excoriare"—*i. e.*, "It is the common saying that you must first catch your buck and then, *afterwards*, skin him."

As to Mrs. Glasse, what is it exactly that she says, and where? In examining what purported to be her cookery-book once, I came to the conclusion that the saying attributed to her was merely a take-off of her stock remark in beginning the recipes: "*Take* a cup of flour," "*Take* an egg," etc.

Is this so? J. B. T.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 16, 1892.

[Dr. Murray, in his 'New Dictionary,' under *case* (v.), 'to strip of the case or skin; to skin,' quotes Mrs. Glasse's 'Cookery' (1796), vi. 126: "Take a full grown hare and let it hang four or five days before you case it."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

NEW matter and new pictures have been added to Mrs. Margaret Sidney's 'Old Concord: Her Highways and Byways,' for the second edition just published by D. Lothrop Co., Boston. It is a pretty book and appeals to the historical sense, the love of the picturesque, and to pure sentiment in eve measure. Not much can be said by way of praise of reprints of Herman Melville's 'Moby Dick' and 'White Jacket' (U. S. Book Co.). The print at least is large. The Harpers add 'Lady Silverdale's Sweetheart, and Other Tales' to their uniform edition of William Black's novels; and Charles E. Merrill & Co. extend their Brantwood Edition of Ruskin with two volumes, 'Aratra Pentelici' and the Edinburgh (1853) 'Lectures on Architecture and Painting.' Mr. Norton's prefaces to this series continue to furnish the reader with just *aperçus* of Ruskin's erratic genius, and a wholesome admonition to read with a critical understanding.

From the J. B. Millet Co., Boston, we have the first four numbers of 'Famous Composers and Their Works,' edited by Prof. J. K. Paine, Mr. Theodore Thomas, and Karl Klauser. This work when completed will contain articles by twenty-five European and American critics on all the famous composers of the past and present, with articles on music in America, Russia, etc., together with representative pieces or songs by each composer, selected by Mr. Thomas, and hundreds of portraits, facsimiles, etc., selected by Mr. Klauser. It is almost an *édition de luxe*, and will form a cyclopædia of music written by specialists, with all unimportant names omitted.

The first part of an 'Illustrated History of Norwegian Literature,' by Henrik Jäger, the well-known biographer of Ibsen, has recently been published by H. Bigler of Christiania. The work when completed will be in two volumes, the present issue forming the introduction to the second, including writers since 1814. The literary treatment by the author will be supplemented by the discussion of technical works by various specialists in theology, philology, medicine, etc. An added interest is given to this publication from the fact of its being the first serious attempt to treat Norwegian literature in its entirety. If it attain the excellence of the author's study

of Ibsen, it is to be hoped that it may shortly appear in an English dress.

The 'Grande Encyclopédie' in course of publication by H. Lamirault & Cie., Paris, has arrived at the United States (États-Unis), and upon this very full article the competent pen of A. Moireau has been employed. The historical summary is brought down to the eve of the late election, with its opposing issues—"on one side, the McKinley Bill and excessive protection; on the other, a moderate lowering of duties and an economic administration."

The first part of Mr. Bernard Quaritch's 'Contributions towards a Dictionary of English Book-Collectors,' as also of some foreign collectors whose libraries have been incorporated in English collections or whose books are chiefly met with in England, dealt, it may be remembered, with Cranmer and B. Firkheimer. Parts II. and III. have since appeared, with eight and five collectors noticed respectively, beginning with Mary, Queen of Scots. Among the deceased, Henry Huth (1815-1878) is the most modern, and he is honored with a very attractive etched portrait. Mrs. John Rylands is deservedly admitted, by reason of her public-spirited purchase for Manchester of the Althorp Library in August last, as well as for her own private collection, which has cost her about $100,000. There is also a brief notice of Benjamin Heath Malkin (1769-1842), whose translation of 'Gil Blas' has been fraudulently attributed to Smollett, as was lately set forth in these columns. He was a graduate of Harrow and of Trinity College, Cambridge, became head master of the Free Grammar-school at Bury St. Edmunds, "and acquired a certain small literary reputation as an author," by the translation aforesaid and by his 'Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales.' His library sold for nearly $18,000. Horne Tooke is yet another name on Mr. Quaritch's list, and George John Earl Spencer, of whom a steel portrait after Thomas Phillips is reproduced. Other embellishments of these two parts are a binding of Mary Stuart's, and the first and last pages of the Mentz Psalter of 1459, from Mr. Quaritch's vellum copy.

'The Book-Lover's Almanac for the Year 1893,' of Duprat & Co., is a Franco-American production, the major part of the text having been prepared by M. Henri Pène du Bois, and the sketchy full-page designs in color being by Henriot, while the De Vinne Press has manufactured the little volume. The result is attractive enough, and the contents are neither ancient nor unreadable. One of the illustrations represents the contest in Boston last April for Poe's 'Tamerlane,' which fetched $1,850—"the dearest book of the century," the editor calls it, and Henriot dubs the auction-room "Poe's Pantheon," in contrast with his humble home. Other views are of Sotheby's, the Hôtel Drouot, the Grolier Club, etc.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the second issue of what has now become an "annual of the learned world," *Minerva*, published at Strassburg by Karl J. Trübner, under the editorial direction of Dr. R. Kukula and K. Trübner. This invaluable compendium begins with a survey of the constitution of universities in Europe and India; and then follows in alphabetical geographical order a list of universities, technical schools, scientific institutions, libraries, etc., the world over, with the personnel, which is all caught up in a *Personal-register*, or index of persons, at the end. Assistance has been freely rendered by scholars on this side of the water. The little book is beautifully printed, and though it contains 827 pages, besides 80 of advertisements, it is not inconveniently bulky. A strong etching of Theodor Mommsen initiates a series of illustrations in the years to come.

Mention of two belated volumes will close our account with the juvenile publications of the season. In 'Christmas Every Day, and Other Stories' (Harpers) Mr. W. D. Howells gathers together some of his children's stories already printed. The book contains much that is bright and original, but the free range it gives to some ill-behaved children mars it seriously. For rather young children is 'The Three Grandmothers, or Rainy Day Stories,' by Mrs. Sarah E. Heald (Philadelphia: Sunshine Publishing Co.). The grandmothers are at their best when they relate incidents of family history, like the concealing of a British officer in Revolutionary times, a little girl's saving of the burning house, etc. Some of the stories about pet animals will find a welcome, too.

For a number of years past, Prof. Forel of Morges, Switzerland, has contributed a series of articles to the scientific journals of his country on the natural history of Lake Geneva in all its aspects. The result of his extended study now appears in a treatise, 'Le Léman, monographie limnologique,' in three volumes, of which the first is now before us (Lausanne; Rouge). An excellent map of the lake is included. The universities on our Great Lakes have here a model for the work of some of their professors. With us, as in Switzerland, the origin of lake basins has excited much discussion, and Forel's contribution to the settlement of the question in favor of the warping of preëxistent valleys deserves careful study.

Messrs. Margerie and Schrader have contributed to the Annual of the French Alpine Club an excellent summary of the structure of the Pyrenees, from which several interesting conclusions are drawn. The most important of these concerns the occurrence of an upward divergence in the planes of folding and fracture from the axis of the range, known as the fan-structure, similar to that observed in the Alps, but here indicated by different structural details. The essay is accompanied by a well-executed geological map, and by a full reference to the geological literature of the region.

Two papers of more than usual importance in the December number of the *American Journal of Science*, by Mr. C. D. Walcott of the United States Geological Survey, and Prof. G. H. Williams of Johns Hopkins University, merit attention from the serious changes of interpretation that they call for in the understanding of the rocks of South Mountain, between the Susquehanna and Potomac Rivers, from that previously given them by the Pennsylvania geologists. The first point, brought out by Walcott, concerns the relative attitude of the several members in the rock series; he maintaining that the normal order of superposition has been frequently reversed by thrust-plane faults. The occurrence of such inversions of structure, first brought prominently to the attention of geologists in the Scotch Highlands, and since then in various other regions, as in Alabama by Hayes and others, does not seem to have been sufficiently considered in the Pennsylvania reports; hence the need of their correction when the inversions are discovered.

The second point, announced by Williams, concerns the origin of certain rock masses, heretofore regarded as sedimentary, but now clearly shown to be volcanic. Ancient lava flows, probably of an age similar to that of the lavas in the Lake Superior copper region, with a plentiful amygdaloidal and brecciated structure, are detected in great volume; in part altered chemically, in part altered also mechanically, so as to take the appearance of slates, under which name they have generally been described in the Pennsylvania reports. The reason why their true nature has not previously been recognized is in part the relative neglect of petrographic methods by the members of the Pennsylvania Survey, and in part the influence of the theoretical views of Hunt, by whom these rocks were classed as altered sediments. A third item that certainly deserves mention in connection with these papers, is found in a footnote by Prof. Williams, to the effect that many of the facts announced by him have been collected by Miss Florence Bascom, a student at the Johns Hopkins University, whose thesis, now in preparation, will go far toward furnishing detailed proof of the general conclusions here set forth in brief form. In short, the results obtained by two generations of geologists in a region to which much attention has been directed, are now reversed by the introduction of modern methods by a woman.

The Scientific Alliance of New York, an advisory union of the seven principal scientific societies in this city, invites contributions toward a fund for carrying out its objects, and, to begin with, towards publishing the addresses delivered last month in exposition of the plans of the Alliance. Subscriptions may be sent to Prof. N. L. Britton, Columbia College.

The Association of Officers of Colleges in New England voted, at Williams College last month, to recommend the introduction in New England grammar-schools (1) of elementary natural history in the earlier years, to be taught practically rather than by books; (2) of elementary physics in the later years, to be taught by the experimental or laboratory method; (3) of elementary algebra at an age not later than twelve; and (4) of elementary plane geometry at an age not later than thirteen. Also, the offering of opportunity to study French, or German, or Latin, or any two of these languages from and after the age of ten, and "increased attention in all classroom exercises in every study to the correct and facile use of the English language." These reforms are to be made possible by reducing the time allotted to arithmetic, geography, and English grammar.

In a paper recently read before the German Historical Society of this city and the Pionier-Verein of Philadelphia, on the "Sources of German-American History," Mr. J. G. Rosengarten described the surpassing wealth of manuscripts and books in the library of the late George Bancroft. He gave a particular account of this material, derived from German archives, journals of the German regiments and their officers and men serving in this country during the war of Independence, together with a great collection of original and unprinted State papers, particularly those of Frederick the Great and other German and foreign sovereigns, both those favorable to the American struggle for independence, and those whose troops were hired to Great Britain to fight with the English Army against the colonies. He urged an appeal to Congress to purchase the library for its intrinsic value and as a memorial of its late owner. Mr. Rosengarten further suggested that the German-American historical societies should join in procuring complete and descriptive catalogues of the manuscripts in the German Archives at Berlin, Marburg, Cassel, etc., many of which have never been printed, relating to the part taken by Germans serving in America during the Revolutionary War.

Capt. F. D. Lugard, the recent Administrator of Uganda, modestly calls his interesting address before the Scottish Geographical Society, published in its magazine for December, "Characteristics of African Travel." It is full of bright and picturesque descriptions of people, scenery, and incidents of his three years' life in East Africa. The most striking of these was the parade of the remnant of Emin Pasha's troops on the plain above Lake Albert in the summer of 1891. After long negotiations they had been prevailed upon to enter the British Company's service, provided the Khedive gave his consent. These Sudanese, with their families and followers, 8,200 in number, were stationed by Capt. Lugard in five forts built to protect Uganda from the raids of the King of Unyoro. The Wa-ganda are described as a "singularly intelligent people, excessively eager for knowledge of all kinds, whether it be of reading and writing, of religion, or of useful artisan trades. Those few who have had an opportunity of learning any trade have become most superior workmen. They will construct you a new stock to a rifle which you will hardly detect from that made by a London gun-maker." Very remarkable is the difference at times between two tribes living close together. On the eastern shore of Lake Victoria you pass at a single step from open plains and grain-fields, inhabited by absolutely nude savages, to a country of dense, endless banana groves, and plantations of potatoes and cassava. Here the people are clothed, men and women alike, "in the beautiful soft *mbugu*, made from the bark of various figs."

The commercial importance of Uganda was made the subject of an address before the London Chamber of Commerce by Capt. Lugard. He rates it very high, not, of course, in the immediate future, but on the completion of the railway from the coast to the Victoria Nyanza. Ivory, of which there are "vast preserves" about the sources of the Nile, would at first be the principal article of export. After this he apparently places coffee, which is indigenous in Uganda, and, even in the wild state in which it is now found, produces a berry of good flavor. Large areas of black porous soil, especially adapted to the growing of cotton, abounds, and as the Sudanese whom he ad settled in the country had brought with them cottonseed, "by this time he had no doubt they had extensively planted it." There were also tracts suitable for the cultivation of wheat and other cereals, as well as tobacco and vines, while the forests abounded in rubber and many kinds of trees producing gums. The natives also are beginning to demand European wares, the last request to him of the principal chief being "that he would send up white donkeys and opera glasses, for which they would pay any price, while stationery, utensils, etc., would be eagerly bought." He closed with an earnest appeal for the retention of the country, chiefly on the moral ground that England was pledged to this by the treaties which he had made with the natives in her name.

We have received the first number of the monthly *American Athenæum*, devoted to literature, the arts, and sciences (New York: Mitchell's), a quarto sheet of 32 pages, of rather heterogeneous contents; George Augustus Sala furnishing "Gossip of the Month," M. Fène du Bois an article on Renan, etc. Also, the first number of the monthly *Good Citizen*, "the only official organ of the Columbian College of Good Citizenship," "a new organization with its principal office located at Columbus, O.," and whose motto is "Education, Fraternity, and Fidelity." Also, the first number of *Childhood* (New York: A. L. Chatterton & Co.), "a monthly magazine of all that concerns the welfare of the child," edited by Dr. George William Winterburn and Florence Hall. Prospectuses are before us of *American Young People*, having "for its prime object the education of the youth of the nation in the principles of patriotism and true citizenship," to be published next month in Chicago; and of *Modern Art*, another Western enterprise, for which subscriptions may be sent to J. M. Bowles, Indianapolis, Ind. This journal will be, in its periodic issue, of the four seasons, limited at present to 300 copies, will be handsomely printed with one illustration to each number, and the "leaves will not be wired, but stitched by hand to open flat."

We have received from Franz Hanfstaengl (Munich and New York) a set of remarque-proofs on Japan paper of photo-engravings of Dutch and old German masterpieces at the scale of the original, and a few isochromatic reproductions of modern German paintings, such as the famous "Blind Girl" of Bruno Figlhein, the leader of the new school in Munich. The five masterpieces are Rembrandt's two best corporation pictures, "The Lesson in Anatomy" and "The Syndics of the Clothing Guild," Paul Potter's "Young Bull," Franz Hals's "Banqueting Officers of the Yeomanry," and, slightly reduced in scale, Dürer's Munich portrait of himself. All these, if in different degrees, are admirably effective reproductions, which approach the quality of etchings. From the same publisher we have received a copy of C. W. Allers's large album of Capri drawings. As a delineator of life in Capri, Allers is the direct successor of the younger Kaulbach. His series of sixty-two typical scenes and persons on the island are of mixed quality. Many of the pictures are humorous, after the manner of the Henschel drawings, though the humor is often ponderous. Among the nine colored landscapes the best is a street corner in Capri, with a bright red poster on the wall. The others show but an indifferent grasp of color, and cannot compare with some of the beautiful landscapes of Kaulbach. The portraits are the best part of the book.

—The December *Atlantic* affords its readers a selection from Lowell's early letters, written to Mr. W. J. Stillman, which gives a foretaste of the quality of his correspondence, and excites interest in it. The period which these few examples illustrate is that of the first series of public lectures delivered in Boston, and of Lowell's stay abroad while preparing to enter on his duties as a professor at Harvard. They disclose his habit of work, its rapidity, spontaneity, and irregularity; but, better than that, they show how fully and freely he put his whole individuality in play in writing to his friends, so that the letters as a whole may be looked to as the most complete expression of his diverse nature. The attitude of kind consideration to those whom he could assist, of simple thoughtfulness in friendly ways, his generosity, and the youthfulness of his temperament, are noticeable; and Mr. Stillman's frankness in respect to their mutual relation puts the brief story in its proper setting. Mr. McLaughlin's historical analysis of the negro question as developed in Mississippi is the only other paper of special importance. He describes the situation and the devices that have been resorted to in that State, with some discussion of the legal points that may be involved, and the bearing of the new constitutional provisions on the question of representation. He brings out the undemocratic methods used in the affair, and demonstrates a difference between the State and the general theory of our Government which is sufficiently indicated by the fact that the Mississippi Constitution was not submitted to the people for adoption—a course which has not been followed in any Northern State since 1818. The account given by Mr. McLaughlin takes into consideration all the circumstances of the case, and suggests many reflections upon the problem of democracy as a political order in the South.

—*Harper's* is in holiday dress, and, as usual at the season, takes notice of Christmas as one of the motives of Christian art. The late Theodore Child furnishes the text for a series of types of the Madonna, taken, with one exception, from Italian painting of the great period. Miss Wilkins makes her début as a writer of plays, and her prose drama has the interest of curiosity. The subject is Giles Corey and his fate under the dominance of the witchcraft delusion in Salem. The characters are few, and the plot, such as it is, involves a love story, and jealousy as the direct occasion of the charges of witchcraft brought. The play will not stand analysis, even as a literary production, and there is no action in it; the dialogue form is a mere convention. All that is really given is a short story with such characterization and atmosphere as belong to the sketch, and even within such limits no unusual insight into Puritan life is shown and no true power in rendering it. The narrative has, in fact, become trivial under the treatment: the demented old servant, crawling under beds, and the foolish child with her doll, and the girls with their chattering perjury, are out of the pale of serious writing; and the lover is as colorless as he is useless. Old Giles is the only character with a meaning, and he is unable to make himself felt under such disadvantages. Thackeray's illustrations to "Lord Bateman" are interesting, and Mr. Aldrich's long poem, "Nourmadee," displays his qualities in light verse with full success. The "Editor's Study" takes on something of the manner of the old "Easy Chair," which is perhaps its purpose; and it comes now with illustrations—graceful prose being no longer able to justify its separate existence in these pages.

—The *Century* also wears a decorative cover, and its Christmas tribute is likewise of the Madonna in art; but the selections are confined to modern painting, of which the examples given are interesting both in artistic and in other ways. A distinct democratic quality, for instance, is to be observed in several, in the Dagnan-Bouveret which is the frontispiece, and in "The Mother," by Simmons. An appreciative criticism of the work of the American painters is given by Mr. Fraser in the "Open Letters," which may easily be referred to. A strong, simple rendering by John Malone of the poem of "The Cid," exceptional in directness and form of phrase and telling in its full rhymes, is elaborately illustrated with picturesque effect. The sketches of "Picturesque New York," both cuts and text, are novel in what they reveal of common sights in the city. Salvini's "Autobiography" opens with characteristic Italian scenes and persons, and has from the start the atmosphere of the theatrical world. In the more serious portions of the number Mr. Gladden's paper in the "Present Day" series, on the

"Problem of Poverty," is of most interest, and should be considered by those who desire to pass to a scientific and not merely sympathetic frame of opinion regarding social questions. He bases his conclusions, or rather his generalizations, upon the statistical view of the population of London; but he finds much to say of nearly universal application. His remarks on the overestimate of intemperance as a cause of poverty, on the margin of the unemployed necessary as a constant quantity in the economic system as organized, on the reasons why women's labor is objected to by male laborers—not from the prejudices of sex, but because of the depression of wages on an unequal basis of competition—on the true character of the isolated laborer, ready to underbid to the point of starvation, as a factor in the industrial community, are all admirable in their temperance, their coolness, and their impartiality; they show how much must be granted of the case of workingmen from the point of view of rational analysis, independent of all "movements"; and they are especially instructive in view of the prejudices they successfully combat.

—*Scribner's*, like its companions, puts a Christmas wreath on its cover, but does not in its contents show any special attention to the holidays, unless the colored frontispiece be regarded as a Christmas card. Art, however, has a large share in the number. Mr. Will H. Low writes of the "Mural Paintings in the Pantheon and Hôtel de Ville of Paris," and joins with Mr. Kenyon Cox in an essay on "The Nude in Art," of which each furnishes an example. Mr. Millet writes of the artistic decoration of the World's Fair, in the same strain of pleasure in its success which is universally heard wherever the work of the Art Guild, which has taken so strong an interest in the Fair, is spoken of; and some of the figures are effective, even on the page, to a degree that is very satisfactory to observers of American art. Prof. Boyesen continues this group of papers by one on Norwegian painters, of whose works some examples are given. The number is very closely devoted to artistic interests, and has presented its topic with much diversity and skill.

—Vierge's illustrations to Quevedo's 'Pablo de Segovia' (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams) are so exceedingly clever that one would have been tempted to say that it is impossible to praise them too highly if Mr. Pennell had not, in his prefatory "Comments," performed that seeming impossibility. It only raises the combative spirit in the reader to tell him that the work he is about to look at is better than Rembrandt's, or Holbein's, or Dürer's; that only "the few artists who are artists" can be expected to understand it; that the world is mainly composed of blockheads, and that he must expect to be considered one himself if he does not at once admit that modern illustrators are the greatest artists that ever lived and the most shamefully neglected, and that this special illustrator is the greatest of his tribe. Neither is it judicious, even if it were true, to call the Sistine Madonna "as blatant a piece of shoddy commercialism as has ever been produced." One does not win converts so. And M. Vierge's drawings are quite able to get on without such ill-judged rhetoric. He is one of the most skilful of pen-and-ink draughtsmen, knows his material perfectly, and handles it with great simplicity and mastery, and is, withal, possessed of much grim and somewhat coarse humor. Add to these qualifications the assured knowledge of local color natural to a Spaniard, and you have enough to make an exceedingly good and interesting set of illustrations, which have gained greatly by the increased size of the reproductions in this edition. Mr. Pennell has said so much that we can hardly say more. The book is magnificently printed on heavy glazed paper and handsomely bound in parchment, and has, besides the 110 drawings of M. Vierge, a beautiful reproduction of Velasquez's portrait of Quevedo.

—It is hardly worth while for any one to waste much time over the 'Preferences in Art, Life, and Literature' of Mr. Harry Quilter, M.A., which are gathered together in a bulky and very ugly volume and published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co. in London and by Macmillan in New York. It is a very scrappy collection of miscellaneous articles, the greater part of which have appeared in various English periodicals during the past seventeen years. So much of it as we have been able to read gives no idea of what may have been considered the author's qualifications for criticism. The ability to write the English language is certainly not one of them, for a worse style is seldom met with, and many sentences might pass for specimens of "English as she is wrote," or of 'Arryese, as the reader may elect. It is well known that "the ingenious Mr. Whistler," as Mr. Quilter calls him, delights in worrying the critics, and one of his pets was Mr. Quilter himself, whom, by depriving him of the initial letter of his name, he made a type of the cockney Philistine. It was a very refined piece of torture, but a little reading of this book convinces us that it was not altogether unjustifiable, and had more than a verbal felicity. A ranker outsider never wrote of art. There are a good many illustrations which are not very good, and most of which have no discoverable connection with the text. The most interesting are those which show the quite astonishing technical ineptitude of the Pre-Raphaelite brethren.

—The Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia has just awarded to Prof. Eduard Suess of Vienna, the distinguished orator and leader of the Left in the Austrian Reichsrath, the Hayden Memorial Medal and accompanying fund, in recognition of the eminent services of this scholar to the cause of geological science. This honor is well deserved. For upwards of forty years, Prof. Suess has been an indefatigable worker in the domain of geology and palæontology, and it can be justly said of him that there is scarcely a paper from his pen during this period which does not possess more than ordinary merit. To a mind richly stored with facts is added a perceptive and reasoning faculty which is as broad and far-reaching as it is brilliant, and from which have emanated many of the more luminous conceptions that are to-day inseparably bound up with the "new geology." The Suess-Neumayr theory of mountain constructions, which recognizes a one-sided thrust as the dominant motor of orographic flexures—a view, however, that has not yet been accepted by all geologists—is principally the creation of his mind; to him, likewise, must be credited the conception, or at least the elaboration, of the hypothesis that the earth is undergoing a process of continuous sectioning (*Verstückelung—i. e.*, of having its superficial parts dropping in "blocks" towards the planetary centre). Prof. Suess is a firm non-believer in secular movements of elevation and depression of the continental areas, and an equally firm upholder of the doctrine of oceanic instability, viz., that the relative changes in the position (levels) of the land and water are due primarily to differential movements of the oceanic surface. This conception, which has only latterly begun to gain a foothold among English and American geologists, has long served as a starting point with many of the foremost geologists of the continent of Europe. Prof. Suess's most extensive work is the 'Antlitz der Erde,' of which two volumes have thus far appeared (1885, 1888), which shows the impress of the master on almost every page, and which, for breadth of scholarship, can find a fitting place only between the 'Cosmos' of Humboldt and the 'Origin of Species' of Darwin.

—At the fortieth annual meeting of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, on December 8, the number of books and pamphlets in the library was reported as amounting to 152,474, more than half of them bound volumes. The accessions during the last year were 9,802. In the picture-gallery there are 168 portraits, most of them of prominent Wisconsin pioneers in all lines of life. An address was given commemorative of Daniel S. Durrie, for thirty-seven years librarian, who died in service last August. Among other addresses was one proving that slaves had been held in Wisconsin. This discovery explodes a long-prevalent popular delusion, but it seems indubitable. One of the slaveholders, George W. Jones, still survives in Dubuque, Iowa. The first wave of settlers flowed into Wisconsin from the South, and its object was lead-mining. Slaves could be profitably employed in mining, and so were naturally brought North by their owners. At least a dozen came with Mr. Jones, who, in 1827, established himself in the southwestern part of the State, and was the first man to enter land there. But Yankees from the East were soon in the region, and a negro directly sued Mr. Jones for wages. Though he was non-suited, the Court holding that a negro was not legally capable of bringing a suit, Jones's victory was not lasting. Gov. Dodge also brought in slaves from Missouri, but only those negroes he had there owned who chose to come with him on the promise of freedom at the end of five years, as well as a forty-acre lot and a yoke of oxen for each man. When negroes became legal persons, one (and, so far as appears, only one) brought suit at Lancaster and obtained papers of manumission. In Plattville the Rev. James Mitchell, who had two female slaves when the leaven of free-soil principles began to work, sent them back into a slave State. For this proceeding, the sole instance of its kind, he was brought to trial before the authorities of his church. These slavish rudiments were confined to the western portion of Wisconsin. In the east, which was occupied by immigrants from the East, only one slave, a girl at Green Bay, has been detected. She was probably held by a Southern office-holder. In all Wisconsin the irrepressible conflict began at once and was soon over.

—A correspondent writes:

"Adding anything to what Dr. Elliott Coues writes in No. 1432 regarding the spelling of Capt. Clark's name may seem a wasteful and ridiculous excess. But he speaks of that spelling as 'in question downward from 1806.' The spelling which he now advocates appeared thirty-six years ago in the collections of the Wisconsin Historical Society, and has been employed there 'without question' ever since. Had Dr. Coues seen a volume of Clark manuscripts which was long ago laid up in the archives of that Society, he would himself in 1876 have had no question about the spelling of Clark's name, much less would he have favor-

ed a false orthography. This volume of Clark papers fills 225 pages. It contains all those varieties of document which have at length made Dr. Coues reverse his old opinion. It contains some evidence unknown to him. It opens with a letter of good advice written to Clark by his father in Richmond, November 27, 1781. The name William Clark occurs more than a hundred times, and always, save in two instances, without a final *e*. In two cases (p. 151 and p. 201) it is spelled Clarke, not Clark, by Major Wyllys, and by Gov. St. Clair. Capt. Clark's own signature is unmistakable and is even a nobler hand than Washington's. It is surprising that Dr. Coues, in speaking of the first edition, did not state that both in the copyright and on the map the name Clark does not end in *e*. One of the Wisconsin letters was written by Capt. Clark near Bismarck in the spring of 1805, after which nothing was heard of him till he had pushed on to the mouth of the Columbia and recrossed the continent to St. Louis."

—As our readers are aware, two biographers have recently taken Cotton Mather in hand. Their researches among the ancient sources we propose to supplement with a bit of evidence derived indirectly from the same, but directly from a very modern and very unexpected source, to wit, Dr. Murray's 'New English Dictionary, on *Historical* Principles.' The late Mr. Sibley, in the third volume of his 'Harvard Graduates,' says of our divine: "Without doubt he was the chief author of 'The Declaration of the Gentlemen, Merchants, and Inhabitants of Boston, and the Country Adjacent, April 18, 1689,'" which was the signal for the revolt against Sir Edmund Andros. Mr. Whitmore, in reprinting this Declaration in his 'Andros Tracts' (i., 11), quotes Gov. Hutchinson's shrewd guess that, judging "by the style and language," it was "the performance of one of the ministers of Boston (Mr. Mather) who had a remarkable talent for very quick and sudden composures." Now in section x. we read: "And yet that our calamity might not be terminated here, we are again Briar'd in the perplexities of another *Indian War*." This metaphorical use of *briared* is sufficiently striking to send one to Dr. Murray for the usage in regard to it, and we find two citations, Hooper in 1554, and Cotton Mather himself in his 'Magnalia' (1702), in these words: "New England was miserably briared in the perplexities of an Indian war." This is so conclusive in its identification that had Mr. Sibley had it before him, we are sure he would have included the Declaration in his voluminous Mather bibliography, as we think he would have been warranted in doing, with Hutchinson, from the style alone.

FLORIO'S MONTAIGNE.

The Essays of Montaigne, done into English by John Florio, anno 1615. Edited with Introduction by George Saintsbury. The First Book. London: David Nutt. 1892. 8vo, pp. xxix, 379. [The Tudor Translations, edited by W. E. Henley. I.]

THE title on the back of this volume is happily descriptive. It is *Florio's* Montaigne that we have here; not the man himself, nor even a very accurate reflection of him. But "Florio's" Montaigne is in itself interesting. As Mr. Saintsbury reminds us, it is one of the few translations that have been widely known, not only by men of letters, but by the general reader. It was for two or three generations read by the English people with full acceptance, and exerted an undeniable and traceable influence on English thought through the medium of English poets (Shakspere at their head) and English philosophers (represented by Bacon). Mr. Saintsbury speaks of a passage in the "Tempest" as "almost" unmistakably close to a passage in Montaigne. That there is absolutely no possibility of question of this fact the following citations will show.

Montaigne (*Florio's* Montaigne), speaking of the newly-known people of Brazil, says:

"It is a nation that hath no kind of traffike, no knowledge of Letters, no intelligence of numbers, no name of magistrate, nor of politike superioritie; no use of service, of riches, or of povertie; no contracts, no successions, no partitions, no occupation but idle; no respect of kindred but common, no apparel but natural; no manuring of lands, no use of wine, corn or mettle. The very words that import lying, falsehood, treason, dissimulation, covetousness, envy, detraction, and pardon, were never heard of amongst them."

Shakspere, representing old *Gonzalo* describing what he would do if he had "plantation of this isle" and were lord of it, says:

"I' the commonwealth I would by contraries
Execute all things; for no kind of traffic
Would I admit; no name of magistrate;
Letters should not be known; riches, poverty,
And use of service, none; contract, succession,
Bourn, bound of land, tilth, vineyard, none;
No use of metal, corn, or wine, or oil;
No occupation; all men idle, all;
And women, too, but innocent and pure;
No sovereignty."

As Prof. H. Morley has pointed out, Montaigne wrote "nulles occupations qu'oisifves [none but easy occupations]," which, being phrased by Florio as "no occupation but idle [ones]," Shakspere was led by the construction of Florio's sentence to write "no occupation; all men idle, all"—a not quite acceptable enlargement of Montaigne's thought.

Florio's Montaigne is the only book which we know positively that Shakspere owned. One of the poet's few autographs is in a copy possessed by the British Museum. And, oddly enough, another copy of the book which the Museum purchased with a view to protecting the Shakspere autograph, turned out to have the autograph of Ben Jonson in it. It is chiefly associations like these with the book that give it its value, and it may be questioned how much value a mere reprint of it has. The three editions that have appeared in the last six years—those of Prof. H. Morley, of Mr. Justin H. McCarthy, and now of Mr. Saintsbury—seem a little unnecessary, especially since no one of these so-called "editors" has in any sense properly *edited* the book. Mr. Morley's is a convenient volume for reference. Mr. McCarthy's are good little volumes for the pocket. Mr. Saintsbury's has no special merits, and has the great demerit of being, as yet at any rate, only the First Book of the Essays (by far the least interesting portion). The air it wears of possessing some interest for bibliographers has little to rest upon. A short bibliographical note states that the title is reprinted from the first edition of 1613. The first edition (a folio) appeared in 1603; the second (again a folio) in 1613; but Mr. Saintsbury's own title says, "Done into English by John Florio, anno 1615," which is not easily to be explained.

The simplest duty of an editor is to correct misprints, but Montaigne's English editors seem never to think of comparing their text with the original, and so edition after edition appears, repeating passages as unintelligible as this: "Epicurus doth dispense with his age touching the foresight and care of what shal insue." The original is, "Epicurus dispense son sage de la prevoyance et soucy de l'advenir."

It is difficult to imagine editing Florio's Montaigne without acquiring (if it were not already acquired) an interest in Montaigne himself; but it is still more difficult to conceive how any one interested in Montaigne and editing Florio can fail to point out the injuries constantly inflicted by the translator on his author. Florio's English has an Elizabethan quality which often makes his own phrases effective, but his mind abounded in the conceits of Euphuism, than which nothing can be more alien from Montaigne's manly vigor of expression and native simplicity of phrase. However diffuse and wandering may be Montaigne's thought, his style is never lax; it is always the style of a writer whose familiarity with Latin authors was equalled and concealed only by his love of his own tongue; of a writer who, with others, was shaping his native language into forms not so much of grace as of lucidity, of a noble clearness whose eloquence was wholly different in character from the noble cloudy richness of Elizabethan eloquence. Florio is on the whole excellently homely, pithy, and idiomatic; but he frequently does not catch the sense of a passage, and entangles himself in consequence in complete unintelligibility; and there is hardly a sentence in which his English love of *richness* does not play at cross purposes with Montaigne's deep sincerity. Over and over again, on every page, where Montaigne uses one epithet, and that a fitting one, Florio employs two, hastily chosen. On p. 63 (for instance) "those glorious and farre-fetcht remonstrances of the Emperor Charles the Fifth" stands for "ces belles remonstrances," etc., where "belles" is used in precisely the ironical sense of our word *fine* and needs no addition. But this is also a case where certainly the editor should point out that Florio used "glorious" in the old sense of *boastful*. But Mr. Saintsbury is guilty of worse sins than indifference to the text: he is indifferent to the author—the author of the editor's author—to Montaigne himself; he is indifferent to Montaigne's good repute, and in his Introduction he once more gives currency to a complete misunderstanding of Montaigne which has prevailed for nearly forty years, ever since it was created by M. Grün in his valuable 'Vie Publique de Montaigne.' The matter is in itself trifling, and turns on a short letter, but so much weight is continually laid on it—such extraordinary weight by Mr. Saintsbury now—that it is worth while to state the facts briefly, or, at least, as briefly as possible.

In 1585 Montaigne was Mayor of Bordeaux. A terrible pestilence broke out, in consequence of which the emigration from the city was so great that, in the phrase of the Maréchal de Matignon (an eye-witness), "no one remained who had the means of living elsewhere." Montaigne's term of office was to expire on the 1st of August. A few weeks before that (it is not known exactly when), he left his own house, near Bordeaux, and, with his old mother, his wife, his young daughter, and his servants, entered on those terrible months of dangerous wandering which he describes in so calm and brave a tone in one of his last essays. Under these circumstances he wrote on the 30th of July to the "Jurats" (Council) of Bordeaux that he would leave it to them to judge whether any service he could do them by his presence at the election to take place the next day but one could be of sufficient importance for him to venture into the city. He proposes to meet one of them at Feuillas (a castle on the opposite bank of the river), there to transact the forms necessary to be gone through with on the occasion. This conduct on the part of Montaigne has been twisted into an expression of lamentable weakness and cowardice, and never has it been so perverted to mean something not in the least implied in

the facts as by Mr. Saintsbury. He treats it in the same spirit that dictates the next sentence: "A hundred more or less similar instances of meanness, selfishness, candid cynicism . . . receive . . . illustration in Montaigne." A lover of Montaigne cannot hear such words unmoved. He knows them to be false. Familiar with the large virtuousness of Montaigne's life, whether of thought or action, he indeed feels himself rather than Montaigne wounded by so baseless a judgment. His indignation is soothed by the remembrance of the hosts of good men who have honored Montaigne, by the remembrance of that tomb of Auguste Collignon which Mr. Emerson saw in Père-la-Chaise—a name unknown, of a man who died in 1830, aged sixty-eight years, and who, said the stone, "lived to do right, and had formed himself to virtue on the Essays of Montaigne."

THE WORLD'S GREAT STREETS.

The Great Streets of the World. Charles Scribner's Sons.

ALTHOUGH this handsome reprint from *Scribner's Magazine* is plentifully illustrated, it is noteworthy for the quality rather of its literary matter than of its illustrations. Mr. R. H. Davis treats of Broadway, Mr. Andrew Lang of Piccadilly; the Boulevards of Paris are described by the facile pen of M. Francisque Sarcey; Mr. W. W. Story tells us about the Corso of Rome; Mr. Henry James writes of the Grand Canal at Venice; Herr Paul Lindau gives the history of Unter den Linden, Berlin, and Miss Isabel F. Hapgood that of the Nevsky Prospekt, St. Petersburg. Such names lead one to expect interesting articles, and, as each writer has treated his subject in his characteristic manner, the book is as witty and amusing and instructive as it well could be. As the writers have been chosen for their special knowledge, so the illustrators have been chosen according to nationality; but they are very unequal in quality of work. It is easy to detect the abuse of the camera in some of them.

Of the essays, Mr. Andrew Lang's on Piccadilly is quite the most delightful reading. He takes us through this crowded thoroughfare as a friend would do, giving us all the amusing gossip of those heroes of the past, real and imaginary, whose memories haunt the houses which line this street. He begins with the history of Piccadilly from the old Elizabethan times, when Hyde Park was a forest, with "herbege, pannage, and browze wood for deer," being frequented also by robbers until many years later. Even in 1662 no street of Piccadilly existed; it was merely the Reading Road leading into London from the west. Mr. Lang finds the first mention of the name Piccadilly in Gerard's 'Herbal' of 1596, in which the author remarks that on the banks of its dry ditches "the small white buglosse," or ox-tongue, is to be found. It was only in Charles II.'s reign that houses were built westward toward Hyde Park Corner, and these seem to have been large palaces with gardens for the rich and noble—for instance, Berkeley House (where Devonshire House now stands), of which Pepys writes in 1672: "The gardens are incomparable by reason of the inequality of the ground and a pretty piscina. The holly hedges on the terrace I advised the planting of." These grounds of Lord Berkeley extended over Berkeley Square, but in the eighteenth century the house was burned down, the garden was turned into streets, and Devonshire House built in its place. When Clarendon House, standing beside it, came to belong to the second Duke of Albemarle, its gardens and pleasaunces became the site of Dover Street, Albemarle Street, Old Bond Street, and Grafton Street. The chambers called the Albany were built on the gardens of the Duke of Sunderland, and thus gradually, by such transformations, the great street was evolved.

Mr. Lang reminds us that as late as 1745 Fielding makes Squire Western alight at an inn called "The Pillars of Hercules," next to where Apsley House now stands, and which must then have been on the outskirts of the town; and near here, at the end of the last century, lived the infamous Duke of Queensberry, of whom Burns wrote, after having spent an evening with him and having sent him his poem of "The Whistle": "Though I am afraid his Grace's character as a man of worth is very equivocal, yet he is certainly a nobleman of the first taste and a gentleman of the finest manners." Mr. Lang goes on to say:

"Deaf of one ear, blind of one eye, this wicked nobleman used to sit in his balcony, watching the world go past and looking down on Piccadilly. He preferred that flood of human beings to the view of the Thames at Richmond. 'What is there,' he asked, 'to make so much of in the Thames? I am quite tired of it; there it goes—flow, flow, flow, always the same!' But of the torrent that went 'flow, flow, flow' past his house he never wearied; and it is said he always had a man and a horse ready to pursue any naiad who charmed him from the stream of Piccadilly."

Further on, Mr. Lang tells us:

"In No. 139 Byron parted from Lady Byron 'in the utmost kindness,' says Moore. She was going to visit her father, who wrote to the poet that she would return no more. What mysteries passed in No. 139, part of old Queensberry's old house, we shall never really know; the cause of the separation is said to have been so simple that nobody could ever find it out. Some poets are 'gey ill to live wi',' as Mrs. Carlyle said about her son. Some ladies never, never can understand that a man of letters should sometimes be left alone in his den. Byron himself says that, however much in love he might be at any moment, he always felt, even when with the fair, a hankering to be back in his untidy library. There is a story of Lady Byron's entering the den and asking: 'Do I disturb you, Byron?' 'Yes, damnably,' answered Childe Harold in, shall we say? an intelligible, if not a pardonable irritation. Lawyers, doctors, business men are not interrupted by their dear wives when they are at work. The sex understands that their duties are serious; they don't always take this view of mere poetry and prose.

"I have a private theory, an innocent hypothesis, that Lady Byron was jealous of the Muse; that she left her lord because he said she disturbed him damnably. Dr. Lushington knew what Lady Byron said at the time; Mrs. Beecher Stowe told the world what Lady Byron said in later life; but 139 Piccadilly keeps its secret. The skeleton in the cupboard has 'flitted,' like the North Country Brownie. Old Queensberry would have explained the whole mystery by saying, 'All women are so extremely wrong-headed.' That philosopher never married, or there might have been another hegira from 139 Piccadilly."

Of the mobs and riots which have taken place here Mr. Lang gives us a graphic account; also of the appearance the street presents on the Derby Day and on other memorable occasions. Of the different classes and conditions of men who tread its pavement he also discourses. He points out its architectural shortcomings, remarking that the houses are large and clean, if not dignified; and though he confesses that his essay is not by any means entirely in praise of Piccadilly, we cannot deny that he has done full justice to his subject and kept us amused and interested all the while.

Mr. Henry James's study of the Grand Canal, Venice, is very characteristic. He affirms without being able to explain wherein lies the charm of this great waterway. Here is what he has to say of the Custom-house and the hotels:

"The charming architectural promontory of the Dogana stretches out the most graceful of arms, balancing in its hand the gilded globe on which revolves the delightful satirical figure of a little weathercock of a woman. This Fortune, or Navigation, or whatever she is called—she surely needs no name—catches the wind in the bit of drapery of which she has divested her rotary bronze loveliness. On the other side of the canal twinkles and glitters the long row of the happy palaces which are mainly expensive hotels. There is a little of everything everywhere in the bright Venetian air, but to those houses belongs especially the appearance of sitting, across the water, at the receipt of customs—of watching, in their hypocritical loveliness, for the stranger and the victim. I call them happy because even their sordid uses and their vulgar signs melt somehow, with their vague sea-stained pinks and drabs, into that strange gayety of light and color which is made up of the reflection of superannuated things. The atmosphere plays over them like a laugh. They are of the essence of the sad old joke. They are almost as charming from other places as they are from their own balconies, and share fully in that universal privilege of Venetian objects which consists of being both the picture and the point of view."

Mr. James looks at Venice as "the most beautiful of tombs." The greatest pleasure its visitor can enjoy is reconstructing the past, imagining the kind of life which went on in its now ruined palaces, turned into the shops of antiquity-dealers or to other baser uses. He describes the aspect of Venice, its customs, its festas, its palaces and gardens, in a modern impressionist manner, always finding fresh observations to make on well-worn themes; always assuming a critical attitude wholly uninfluenced by the best authorities. This independent frame of mind is evidently not without effort, and perhaps the reader who does not know Venice well will not gather any very distinct idea of the Grand Canal; but those who do will find this article delightful reading, and will not fail to recognize "the friendliest house in all the wide world," the "porto di mare" on the Grand Canal, called by a pleasant American name; or the "old Venetian home," which has retained so much of the "inner spirit of the place," but where the hospitality enjoyed compels him to reticence.

Mr. W. W. Story writes of the Corso of Rome and the many changes it has undergone during the last fifty years. He tells us of its more picturesque aspect in early days, when one met street singers in costume, singing their pretty *ritornelli*. It must always have been a most inconvenient thoroughfare, for, even in the eighteenth century, Madame Piozzi remarks that Rome is the one city in the world where ladies drive up and down the street without any pretence of taking the air—merely to show their fine clothes. The same practice continues to this day. In all seasons of the year towards sunset the Corso is crowded with carriages full of people, who seem to be displaying the latest fashions in dress, while along the narrow pavement the idle in throngs gaze at the fine ladies as they slowly drive past. Since Mr. Story wrote his article, the Sciarra pictures, which he mentions as belonging to one of the most interesting galleries on the Corso, have found their way to Paris, and the prince, their nominal trustee, is sued for alienating State property. The palaces which are worthy of remark on this street are few indeed, and of these several have their first floors given up to shops with plate-glass win-

dows, lighted by electricity. The modern utilitarian spirit has gone far to destroy anything which remained of the old sixteenth-century grandeur of Rome. Mr. Story tells us of the Carnival as it was in the bygone days, of the races (of the wild horses called Barberi) which gave their name to the street, of all the sights that were seen and are seen to-day, in his pleasant, discursive manner; also of many strange customs no longer in use. One spectacle which he tells of as not being unfrequent in old Papal days was that of a thief, when convicted, being led down the Corso with an iron-spiked gorget on his neck, to prevent him from hiding his face, accompanied by two men playing drum and fife to attract attention.

The Berlin street Unter den Linden is very thoroughly described by Paul Lindau, with plenty of anecdotes of the old Emperor and his simple manner of life, and general local color. Perhaps Miss Isabel Hapgood's essay on the Nevsky Prospekt is the least entertaining, although it is thoroughly conscientious. It would naturally be more difficult to write lightly of what is not so generally known as of the more frequented highways; and most people prefer reading about things they know about—to be reminded rather than to undergo the mental effort of having to understand an entirely new vista.

SOME ILLUSTRATIONS OF ENGLAND.

English Cathedrals. By Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. Illustrated with one hundred and fifty-four drawings by Joseph Pennell, also with plans and diagrams. The Century Co. 1892.

Charing Cross to St. Paul's. Notes by Justin McCarthy, M.P., and vignettes by Joseph Pennell. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

The Inns of Court and Chancery. By W. J. Loftie, B.A., F.S.A., with many illustrations by Herbert Railton. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

MRS. VAN RENSSELAER'S book is made up of her articles on English cathedrals contributed to the *Century*, revised and extended on the technical side, and it is a book for magazine-readers still. Mrs. Van Rensselaer is too clever and too practised a writer not to have made the articles very good in their kind, and retain collectively the animation that made them attractive in their original form. She has a genuine enthusiasm for her subject that lends interest to her discourse, she knows how to treat the historical part of it effectively, and she has a right appreciation of the artistic side. There is no book, we believe, which gives so well what the ordinary reader likes to know about these great buildings. So far as we can judge in reading, the author has reported their history faithfully, and her study of the buildings on the spot gives freshness and clearness to her description of them. She takes half of the cathedrals of England—the most important, and enough for such a book—makes an itinerary of them in the order, so far as is practicable, of architectural sequence, tells their story, criticises and describes their architecture with good judgment and with a fair understanding of the broader facts of its history and development.

If she had known wisely where to stop, we could say that she had done her work thoroughly well. We sometimes wonder, to be sure, whether the average reader really enjoys the flavor of kindergarten instruction with which the non-professional writer is apt to tincture his writing on a professional topic, though we assume that the editor and his experienced contributor know their business better than we. But there is a temptation in such work to expose one's self in criticism, and to lay down the law on questions which demand wide and exact special knowledge. We cannot follow with satisfaction Mrs. Van Rensselaer's analysis of the front of Salisbury Cathedral, for instance, though she estimates its whole effect justly. It might be wiser to let alone such questions as that of the comparative propriety of Wren's dome of St. Paul's and of Gothic roofs; and it was a pity to undertake the lecture on vaulting which she has interjected into her description of Gloucester Cathedral, for her facts are quite wrong and her account of the subject disordered. It would be well, in the *édition de luxe* of her book, to omit these five pages altogether, and there are other exegetical passages where a little pruning would not come amiss. Care might also improve the use of technical terms, and weed out a number of random statements, such as that Brunelleschi's dome at Florence was "built in the simple Roman way," or that the dome of St. Peter's is a polygon of sixteen sides, which is a reckless use of language, or that in Salisbury "the roof-ridge lies very near to the vaulted ceiling," when it is some thirty feet above it.

One of the things that quickly strike the reader of Mrs. Van Rensselaer's book is that there is very little solidarity, as a Frenchman might say, between the text and Mr. Pennell's illustrations. His view of the subject is an independent one, and concerns itself little about anybody's text, so that the illustrations have been eked out with very different drawings from several other hands, and even then many things to which the author calls particular attention are unrepresented. When Mr. Pennell chooses to draw the architecture, he does it admirably, but his attention is in large measure taken up with the scenes in which the cathedrals lie, and in many cases the buildings are only spots in his compositions. These are apt to be so charming that one cannot wish them exchanged; and how Mr. Pennell can combine the picturesque with the architectural is shown in such a delightful vignette as the view in Canterbury on page 46. A comparison of this drawing of the central tower with one two pages back illustrates curiously on what subtle differences depends the true representation of architectural quality. That on page 46 shows the real character of the tower with unusual fineness; the other just misses it by an almost imperceptible exaggeration of the vertical features, and makes it look like the work of another designer. We could wish that Mr. Pennell had indulged us with a drawing on a considerably larger and adequate scale of this tower, which is perhaps the most beautiful piece of Perpendicular work in all England. That he is at his best in pen-and-ink work appears when we turn to the cuts that are made from his brush drawings. The frank forcing of values to which pen-and-ink entices, and to which we pardon its insufficiency for the sake of its peculiar qualities, is apt to revenge itself on draughtsmen who change their tool for the brush. Mr. Pennell is enamoured of brilliancy, contrast, texture: when he takes the brush in his hand, they lead him astray. Some of the brush-drawings here cunningly imitated are charming enough, especially the slighter ones, but others are crude and disastrous. Instead of the fascinating if wilful brilliancy of pages 143, 168, 173, we get the drawings on pages 110, 118, 134, 254, where the subversion of values which we forgave before becomes harsh and repelling under the brush. Another exception to Mr. Pennell's use of the brush here is that while his pen-work is admirably adapted to his architectural subjects and to his foregrounds, his brush-work often does very little justice to either. His touch has lost its sureness; his light and shade their concentration and effect. Perhaps the brush was a necessary resort for saving time in some cases; but when it comes to the interior of St. Paul's, with an architecture for which brush-drawing was natural and appropriate, his performance seems perfunctory, and is certainly unsatisfactory. If Wren's architecture had not the refinement of the Italian Renaissance or the French, it is not the coarse and misproportioned work that is here represented; and we doubt if such careless drawings as that on page 302, from Gloucester, or several of those from St. Paul's, would have been accepted for such a book from an ordinary artist.

'Charing Cross to St. Paul's,' in which Mr. Justin McCarthy is Mr. Pennell's collaborator, shows the artist on another side. These, too, are magazine papers collected, and the illustrations are slight, rapid sketches of streets full of life and traffic. Mr. Pennell has a rare power of indicating a crowd of people which looks like a crowd and not like a company, and of filling it with individuals sketched with great freedom and spirit. He shows us an endless variety of *flâneurs*, policemen, ladies, soldiers, sandwichmen, and what not, now cleverly grouped, now amusingly contrasted, like the coachman, barrister, and costermonger on page 170. Where there is so much life we cannot complain of the careless handling of the sketches, but it would be well if illustrators would make account of the difference in treatment due to sketches that may be hung on a studio wall and seen from a flattering distance, and illustrations in a book to be looked at within a foot or so. In old days the woodcutters saw to this, but in this time of abject reproduction the painter counts every departure from his most negligent handling a blasphemy. He forgets that there are things in his art which are not fit for a book, and occasionally afflicts us with a pitiless display of mere ink and paper. On page 71 is an example, for which the proper place, we must think, was in the artist's portfolio.

Mr. McCarthy frankly accepts the rôle of chaperon, and gives in a pleasant vein of reminiscence or suggestion a commentary on the illustrations and their scenes. He is a congenial companion to Mr. Pennell, and his chat is generally easy and entertaining, though naturally it sometimes labors, and makes us think that, as Turner complained of Ruskin, he sees things in the pictures that the artist never put there. But a cicerone must find something to say, and Mr. McCarthy does it agreeably.

Mr. Loftie's book on 'The Inns of Court' is also made up of serial papers, and is illustrated by an English artist whose work may be classed with Mr. Pennell's—Mr. Herbert Railton; but it is a much more serious undertaking than Mr. McCarthy's, and leads instead of following the illustrations. It is a close and thorough historical study of the Temple buildings and the Inns associated with them, written in an animated style and enlivened by many anecdotes and brief sketches of famous men. There are more famous places in England, but perhaps none that is to readers of English literature associated with so many familiar figures. It pervades the whole length of that literature, from Chaucer, Spenser, and Shakspere

to Thackeray and Dickens, and a long procession of its inhabitants passes across Mr. Loftie's pages—earls, knights, bishops, and chancellors, and writers without number. The Templars had before the end of the twelfth century transferred their growing establishment from the neighborhood of Holborn, and had built on the western verge of the city their palace and the famous round church since known as the Temple Church. Their imputed wealth and license—possibly the first more than the second—led to their suppression by the Council of Vienne in 1313, within two centuries. Their possessions were given by the Council to the Knights of St. John, who presently leased the buildings to a company of students of the law for a rent of ten pounds a year. The lawyers have never been dispossessed, but, after the dissolution under Henry VIII., came into permanent possession. The imputation of wealth no longer hung about the Temple, and *bibere templariter* changed its application without perhaps losing all its force. Literature has in England held pretty close to the law, barristers, whether briefless or not, constantly distinguishing themselves as writers; and the Inns of Court and of Chancery that have gradually grouped themselves about the Temple have been, as the world knows, an immemorial rookery for authors, many of them having nothing to do with the law. It is not easy to make a clear history of a region so moss-grown with vicissitude and tradition; but Mr. Loftie keeps his head, and enables his readers to keep theirs, while he enlivens his web of story and antiquarianism with threads of anecdote and reminiscence. He tells us of Johnson and Boswell, of Goldsmith laid by the heels while Johnson makes his memorable market of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' of Cowper trying in vain three times to hang himself with his garter, of Lamb turning in bed to look out at the white sails on the Thames, of Fielding, Dickens, Thackeray, and a host more. As a historian he is animated and sharp-eyed; as an antiquarian, precise, and, we doubt not, accurate; and an unqualing enemy of the restorers, who have left us, in truth, very little that is genuine in the buildings, even in the famous church.

Mr. Railton has illustrated Mr. Loftie's book with a vivacity even greater than Mr. Pennell's; his touch is incomparably sure, brilliant, and graphic. Perhaps no one else draws the same class of subjects with such unfaltering sureness of hand. But he has less breadth than Mr. Pennell, and in that way less effect and less charm. The full-page plates are less successful than the vignettes, for in them he seems incapable of repose. He can keep his lights broad, but not his shadows. His touch is so emphatic that it comes to the surface everywhere, and his whole plate is a coruscation in black and white. The processwork of these plates is surprising; the lines seem in part too delicate for any surface printing, yet the darks are impossible to the etching needle. In the smaller pieces there is more breadth and greater charm, the shadows being more restricted and the elaboration less. In many there are simple broad effects, a subdued richness and brightness that are unsurpassed, as on pages 23, 61, 84; in others a fascinating sparkle. In some Mr. Railton shows that he can use a quiet flat tint with good effect; and, in fact, one cannot turn the pages without being charmed. Nevertheless, Mr. Railton's work is not work for every one to imitate. We do not wonder, but we regret, that young draughtsmen are led away by such brilliant work as this to try to do what they cannot hope to do as Mr. Railton does it, and to neglect the solid qualities which they might acquire.

REMINISCENCES OF DÖLLINGER.

Ignaz von Döllinger. Erinnerungen, von Luise von Kobell. Mit einer Titelgravüre. Munich: Beck. 1891.

Conversations of Dr. Döllinger. Recorded by Louise von Kobell, and translated from the German by Katharine Gould. London: Bentley & Son. 1892.

MISS GOULD deserves the thanks of English and American readers for translating this entertaining memorial. Her version is very faithful and quite readable, although some of her sentences might be improved by a slight transposition of the words. Such awkward phrases as "his cloak had hitched in passing on a nail" are of too frequent occurrence.

The substance of the volume published by the authoress under her maiden name is the record of walks which she and her husband, the Bavarian State Councillor von Eisenhart, were wont to take with Dr. Döllinger every Friday in the extensive Munich park known as the English Garden. Frau von Eisenhart had written the life of her father, the well-known professor of mineralogy and Old Bavarian poet, Franz von Kobell, and on one occasion Döllinger expressed the very great satisfaction with which he had read the book, adding that, as he finished it, his pleasure was tinged with a certain melancholy at the thought that he could not have his career and character portrayed and his actions and achievements estimated by a biographer so sincere and so sympathetic. This passing remark encouraged her to continue with still greater care the notes she had already begun to make of these familiar talks, hoping that they might enable her to perform at some time and in a slight degree the service which her revered friend seemed to prize so highly.

The conversations were of a discursive sort *de omni scibili et quibusdam aliis*, embracing the whole range of known and unknown sciences; but, whatever topic was touched, Döllinger never failed to throw new light upon it. More than four-score years of assiduous and systematic study had made him preëminently a full man in the Baconian sense of the term, and the vast and varied knowledge which he had thus acquired was always at his command. The "Reminiscences" are arranged according to subjects, and follow the long and eventful course of Döllinger's intellectual development in a certain chronological order. Countess Montalembert once entreated him to tell her the whole story of blighted affection which had driven him to seek solace in the bosom of the Church. Döllinger assured her that, with the exception of a boyish passion for a beautiful girl, who obeyed the wishes of her father and wedded a richer suitor, he had had no affairs of the heart, but had chosen his profession solely from a strongly theological bent of mind. "What!" exclaimed the Countess, "it was a penchant for theology that led you to take holy orders, and not the fact that you had been crossed in love? Oh, I had imagined it much more romantic than that!" *Cherchez la femme!* seems to have been the first thought suggested to the French lady in witnessing the ordination of a priest. As a lad, Döllinger accompanied his pious mother regularly to church, where she often spent hours at her devotions. He sometimes questioned his father on theological points, but seldom received satisfactory answers. To such inquiries the distinguished anatomist, who never hesitated to gratify the child's curiosity about natural phenomena and scientific facts, usually replied: "I don't know," or "Nobody knows." It was an intense desire to find out these things, of which even learned men confessed their ignorance, that inspired him with the determination to study theology; religious feeling exercised no influence upon this decision.

Döllinger had a fine sense of humor and was a capital story-teller, always preluding the narration of a comical incident with a slight cough. Many years ago he visited the theological seminary in Paris and asked Dupanloup which was the most promising of the students. Dupanloup pointed to a youth who, he said, would be a doughty champion of the Church. This youth was Ernest Renan. The Prussian Oberconsistorialrath Strauss, a theologian noted for his severe orthodoxy and author of several religious works of a decidedly pietistic character, once stopped at a hotel in Munich. He registered his name and went to his room, when suddenly a lively chambermaid rushed in exclaiming: "Oh! what a pleasure to see you here, Herr Strauss; there is nothing in the world more beautiful than your waltzes!" Scarcely had the reverend gentleman rather coolly corrected this misapprehension when an enthusiastic youth appeared and cried out: "Oh! how happy I esteem myself in being permitted to greet the man who wrote the 'Life of Jesus.'" Again the high ecclesiastical dignitary of Berlin resented the identification and disclaimed all dogmatic complicity with the Tübingen critic, and began to think that between the votaresses of Terpsichore and the disciples of Pyrrho his reputation was at stake; as he remarked afterwards to a friend, "I have no reason to be proud of my popularity in Munich."

Characteristic is Döllinger's account of his reception by Pope Pius IX. in 1857. The uppermost thought in his mind during the audience was that he would never be caught in such a scrape again.

"The ceremonial in itself," he says, "was exceedingly displeasing to me. Every priest must kneel three times: first in the antechamber, then in the audience-room, and thirdly before the Pope, who holds out his foot in a white and gold embroidered slipper to be kissed. After this ceremony was ended, we rose and Pius IX. conversed with us in a rather commonplace way, telling us that the world must bow before the Holy See, then the welfare of mankind would be secured; that the Pope was the supreme authority, to whom everything must be subjected. He questioned us about one thing and another, and, without waiting for an answer, talked on in fluent but not very select French. He was a handsome man, and so impressed women that they fell on their knees before him as before God. He showed, in the expression of his face as we entered, a sort of cynical curiosity as to how the German pedant would go through the ceremonies. One had the feeling that this Pope could on occasion get off an excellent bon mot, but that he was incapable of rising intellectually to any independence of thought. And yet he often said he wished to undertake what no one else could perform—he wished to send new dogmas into the world. This he did by proclaiming the Virgin's immaculate conception and the Pope's infallibility."

Döllinger was a keen observer and an excellent judge of character, as regards both contemporary and historical personages; and in this respect his perceptions grew clearer and freer from the distortions of prejudice with advancing years. He admits that his estimate of Luther, formed more than forty years before, was hostile in spirit, one-sided, and unjust. "Now I should write about him differ-

ently." But if this early sketch "made me many enemies among Protestants, another book brought me into discredit with many Catholics, where I had not expected it. When my 'Papstfabeln' appeared, the publisher sent me a batch of nineteen criticisms, all but one bitter and malicious. Yet this work contained nothing new, but I proved whence the fables came and how they were disseminated by Rome, and that was my fault." Melanchthon, he said, "was a very able and amiable man, but his adversaries embittered his life to such a degree that he wrote in his diary: 'I am glad to die, since death delivers me from the rage of the theologians (*rabies theologorum*).'" When Luise von Kobell remarked that this had ceased nowadays, Döllinger laughed out: "Not ceased, my dear lady, but you hear nothing of it, and I don't trouble myself about it." "Calvin of Picardy was true to his convictions, but a hard and almost cruel man, without any sense for the beauty of nature around him." His name is the same as Chauvin, and his body of divinity is Chauvinism carried into theology. His system of belief is "cheerless and immoral in its workings." Döllinger cites Lord Byron as an example of its effects, and mentions an American who sought refuge from the horrors of Calvinistic teachings in the bosom of the Catholic Church.

Referring to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes and the persecution of the Huguenots, Döllinger observed that the person responsible for these acts was not Madame de Maintenon, but her confessor, Godet des Marais, Bishop of Chartres. "This dignitary had assured her that the Protestants would submit to the royal command without resistance, and Louis XIV. was so thoroughly convinced of his omnipotence that he and his obsequious adulators imagined that this change of religion could be as easily arranged as a gala-day at court." "Would it not have been better," suggested his interlocutrice, "if all France had remained peacefully and harmoniously Catholic?" "No," replied Döllinger, "for we perceive at a later period in a striking manner how injurious the suppression of the Protestant spirit and the Protestant clergy was for the whole cause of Christianity." In this connection he quotes the saying of Lord Stair, whom Madame de Maintenon asked why it was that the affairs of government were so badly managed in France under a king and so well managed in England under a queen." "For that very reason," replied the English ambassador, "for when a man reigns, the women rule him, and when a woman reigns, she is ruled by men."

As these "Reminiscences" consist almost exclusively of Döllinger's utterances, there is no lack of pregnant thoughts, and every page bristles with quotable things. Philip III. of Spain "was not so bad as his father, and that is the best that can be said of him." "The portrait of Isabella of Spain in the royal palace [at Munich] is finely painted; the Queen had to support (*tragen*) two evils: the Spanish costume and Philip IV." In order to understand the position and influence of the Pope in the hierarchy, "one must think of him as a torso without hands or feet, and for whom others act." Pius IX. promulgated the decrees of the General Congregation of the Jesuits as passively as the Queen of England signs the acts of Parliament. Voltaire, says Döllinger, was "one of my first literary friends; I read him when I was ten years old." He always retained a certain fondness for his writings, and tells a good story of how the French sceptic outwitted the Pope, to whom he sent a copy of his tragedy "Mahomet," with the expression of the hope that "the annihilation of Mohammedanism in the play would please the Holy Father." The Pope fell into the snare, and thanked the poet in the most cordial manner. This recognition of a work in which in fact all religions and founders of religions are scoffed at, rendered it impossible for the Index Congregation to condemn the book when its real character had been discovered.

We have no space for further citations. To those who remember Döllinger solely as a Catholic polemic and the most formidable lance in the lists of theological controversy, the volume will be a pleasant revelation. It is also typographically attractive and has an excellent index.

Man in Art: Studies in Religious and Historical Art, Portrait and Genre. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. With forty-six plates in line-engraving, mezzotint, photogravure, hyalography, etching, and wood-engraving. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

In the epilogue to this volume Mr. Hamerton remarks "the curious differences in the availableness of artists and their works as subjects for literary treatment," which availableness "is independent of simple merit." "There is really nothing to be said" about some good pictures "except that they are well painted—a simple assertion that does not carry a writer far." Much the same difference exists in the availability of different books for the purposes of the reviewer, and Mr. Hamerton's are of those of which there is little to be said but that they are very good books. Mr. Hamerton writes with an imperturbable good sense, always seeing both sides of a question and usually taking the right side, never disdaining the simple and the known, and never indulging in paradox or the search for originality; always clear, fluent, and judicious, if never brilliant or very interesting. He seldom concludes anything, for conclusions are apt to be wrong; or says anything new, for novelties are possibly errors. He is much to be commended to general readers as a safe guide to the mysteries of art, who will make very clear to them the primary truths of criticism. The artist and the advanced student are likely to find his very inerrancy somewhat irritating.

We have said heretofore that Mr. Hamerton has probably been of more service in spreading just views of art than any other English writer, but it is equally true that the perusal of his pages is not an exhilarating exercise. He has, however, in his preface, expressed the conviction that only his personal friends will read the text of the present volume, and that "most people" will only "turn over the pages and look at the plates," and it is therefore as a book of plates that we will discuss it. In a book of plates relating to "Man in Art" there are two points to consider—the selection and the execution. In this case the selection is certainly curious. There are a number of plates after the antique, but not one is from an original of the first class. There is no plate illustrating Italian art of the period of the high Renaissance, none of Dutch work by any first-rate painter except Rembrandt (who stands outside the general current of his time and country), none of classic French art of any importance. Rustic *genre* is represented by Millet, and modern English art is adequately shown, though there is nothing of the English school of the eighteenth century. The desire for freshness may have had something to do with these omissions, but in that case why give us "The Gleaners"? Certainly the result is not altogether fortunate. Nor can the execution receive higher praise than the selection. The plates of Greek sculpture are all from drawings, and Mr. Hamerton defends this on the ground that a drawing, though less "authentic" than a photograph, has an added charm "due to the skill of the draughtsman." It may have (though even then it will hardly compensate for the loss of authenticity) when the draughtsman is an accomplished artist, but not when, as in this case, the drawings are indifferent work by "advanced students." The true reason for employing them, one suspects, must be that given for preferring etchings to pen-drawings, namely, that, even if inferior, "the etching is likely to be more *precious*—that is, to fetch a higher *price*, and to be esteemed according to the price that it will fetch."

We readily acquit Mr. Hamerton of "parsimony" in using several plates that had already appeared, notably that by Flameng after Gustave Moreau, which is one of the best things in the book. His fault seems rather to have been the desire to produce "the expensive illustrated volume" whether or no. A couple of reproductions of Rembrandt's etchings, a few line-engravings, and the photo-engravings of one sort or other, are almost all that are good. The reproductive etchings are, as usual, of little interest as etchings or as reproductions, and the mezzotints are much inferior to good photogravures. The book is very handsomely printed on a beautiful parchment-like paper, which is, however, too thin for comfort to the eyes, as the printing shows through the page. The cover is in white canvas with gold lettering.

The Life and Times of Bishop White. By Julius H. Ward. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1892.

This is the story of one Broad Churchman written by another. Nevertheless, the second Broad Churchman is still a Churchman, and he has an eye to what is comely and respectable in the history of the American Episcopal Church. He has no idea of having it said of his book, as some said of Dr. McConnell's 'History of the Episcopal Church' a year ago, "An enemy hath done this." And so the little things he would rather his ecclesiastical progenitors should not have said or done he passes over airily, often at the expense of vivid characterization. Neither are the *dramatis personæ* nor the *mise-en-scène* anything like so vivid as in Dr. McConnell's book, which will be fresh in the minds of many readers of Mr. Ward's. But those who have not read the former will be the more defrauded of their right to know the men and things of Bishop White's period in habit as they actually were. For example, what a waste of entertaining contrast between Bishop White and Bishop Seabury is the failure to say anything of the circumstance that while White was a thoroughgoing Philadelphia patriot, or rebel, Seabury was a Tory chaplain, and received British half-pay until his death. And nothing was more characteristic of White's ecclesiastical temper than his saying that "ecclesiastical bodies needed not to be over-righteous, or more so than civil bodies on such a point." But this is just the kind of thing which Mr. Ward's ideas of the way in which ecclesiastical biography and history should be written lead him to avoid.

It is certainly amusing that it was Dr. Seabury, who was ten times as good a Churchman as Dr. White, that had to put up with a left-

handed Scotch ordination to his bishopric. The wonder is that White could get his anywhere abroad, so radical were the changes that he suggested in the reorganization of the Church after the Revolution. Mr. Ward and Dr. McConnell are directly at variance in regard to the amount of his responsibility for the changes he proposed. Dr. McConnell says that White was the leading mind in formulating them. Mr. Ward thinks it was Dr. Smith of Maryland, who was elected Bishop with White and Provoost, but never went to England for his ordination, owing, perhaps, to his besetting sin, intemperance—a very common fault of the Episcopal clergy before the Revolution. What is certain is, that White prepared the recommendations and that they were in perfect keeping with the general tenor of his life. In their main lines they were in harmony with those of the National Government, then struggling towards its birth. The States were to be the units of the organization, the laity were to be admitted to representation, and the principle of State-rights was to be regarded. The proposed revision of the Prayer Book was extremely radical. The Athanasian and Nicene Creeds were both to be omitted and the Apostles' Creed curtailed. In short, Bishop White was a Churchman after Bishop Phillips Brooks's own heart: a little more radical then than Bishop Brooks is now. The Church once reorganized on lines somewhat less radical than those which he laid down, he took things very easily for the remainder of his life. He did not believe in sacrificing his domestic duties to episcopal journeys. He had never been confirmed himself and thought others could get along without confirmation as well as he. A sharper contrast could not exist than that between his episcopate and that of Asbury, the first Methodist bishop in America, whose indefatigable zeal met with its fit reward.

Of Bishop White's personality we get a most agreeable impression from Mr. Ward's pages. He knew much of men and books; in England he hobnobbed with Johnson and Goldsmith. His genial temper made him many friends and served the Episcopal Church an excellent turn. Without him it might have revived, but it is not easy to see how. When Priestley came to America in 1794, his relations with Bishop White were cordial. Mr. Ward writes of their correspondence "for several years after Dr. Priestley returned to England." He never returned to England. He remained in America until his death, February 6, 1804.

A Concordance to the Septuagint and the other Greek Versions of the Old Testament (including the Apocryphal books). By the late Edwin Hatch, M.A., D.D., and Henry A. Redpath, M.A., assisted by other scholars. Part I. A-ΒΩΡΙΘ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Large 4to, pp. vi., 232.

IN these last years England seems to be resuming her rôle of the seventeenth century in setting on foot vast enterprises of learning. At that time, thanks to Walton, Castle, Hody, and other scholars, she stood in the forefront of Biblical research, a position which she yielded not long after to Germany; entering on a path of political and commercial development that left her little time for Oriental science. But, with the rise of her Asiatic power and the increasing closeness of her intellectual relations with the Continent of Europe, she has returned with vigor to her old studies. A hundred years ago the Oxford Professor Kennicott published his monumental Hebrew Old Testament with various readings, and in the next generation appeared the rich collection of Greek readings by Holmes and Parsons. To come down to our own time, Lane's huge Arabic Lexicon is one of the greatest works of the sort ever carried out by a single man; it leaves, indeed, much to be desired in point of grammatical clearness, logical arrangement, and historical feeling, but it nevertheless furnishes a magnificent mass of material. We are similarly indebted to Payne-Smith's great Syriac Lexicon, which, with all its faults, is a notable addition to the resources of the student. Special attention has been paid to the Septuagint, in the history of which Humphrey Hody did such admirable work; Swete's edition, just completed, is a convenient presentation of the text, and a preparation for a really scientific edition. As is well known, Dr. Hatch had devoted himself for many years to the study of the Septuagint, especially, as in his 'Essays in Biblical Greek,' to the lexicographical side. It is a pity that he was unable to prepare a lexicon of the Greek versions of the Old Testament, the excellent book of Schleusner being quite inadequate to the present demands of students. Hatch's wide and accurate learning and fine historical sense would no doubt have given us a lexicon of eminent value.

A new concordance to the Septuagint was called for by the vast addition which has been made to the material during the last half-century. Not only have the old manuscripts been more carefully examined, but a number of new manuscripts, some of them very important, have been discovered and collated, and the versions made from the Septuagint have been more thoroughly studied. In fact, the science of Septuagintal text-criticism has come into existence. The undigested material of Holmes and Parsons cannot be used without careful scrutiny. What it is now attempted to do is to divide the Septuagint manuscripts into groups, and to fix the origin and the authority of the several groups. Three controlling recensions of the Greek text appear to have arisen, at Constantinople, Alexandria, and Cæsarea. Will it be possible to determine the forms of these three with something like accuracy, and thence to go back to the original type of the text? This is the inquiry which now demands the coöperation of all Biblical students—an extremely difficult investigation, in which little more than a beginning has been made. It is obvious that, until the text has been fixed, the final concordance cannot be made. It is obvious, also, that the practical value of a Septuagint concordance depends greatly on the accuracy of the Hebrew text of the Old Testament, one important point being what is the Hebrew equivalent of a given Septuagint word.

So far as regards the exhibition of the received text (that is, the Vatican, with a few variations), the new concordance is admirably done. The arrangement of the citations and of the Hebrew equivalents is convenient, the collection of citations is fuller and more accurate than that of Tromm, and the print is excellent. Altogether it reflects high credit on Dr. Hatch, the initiator of the undertaking, and on Mr. Redpath, who has undertaken to edit Hatch's material and to complete the work. When completed, it will make a volume of fifteen hundred or two thousand pages, and will be a most important help to the students of Hellenistic Greek and of Old Testament textual criticism. For the reason already mentioned, it cannot be regarded as the final concordance; but, inasmuch as the restoration of the true text of Septuagint is probably a thing of the remote future, it will be the handbook for a considerable time to come.

The work is less satisfactory on the Hebrew side. In many cases the Greek is not a translation of our Masoretic text, but of some other, and this fact must be constantly had in consideration in the preparation of a Septuagint concordance. Some modern editors have, indeed, been rash in the emendations which, following the Greek, they have introduced into the Hebrew; but, all allowances made for the freedom of the Alexandrian translation, there remain a number of passages in which the Greek represents a Hebrew text different from ours. In general the new concordance does not concern itself with this fact. In some places it states that the Hebrew equivalent of a given Greek word is doubtful, but it makes no attempt to fix the Hebrew equivalent in the considerable number of cases in which it may be determined with reasonable certainty. Perhaps it is too much to ask that this should be done in a work in which the mere collection and arrangement of citations involves such enormous labor. Yet, without some such sifting, the concordance will lose part of its value, and we venture to suggest to the learned and capable editor that this point be considered in future fasciculi. The labor of fixing the Hebrew equivalents of the Greek expressions would be lessened by the already numerous commentaries in which special attention is paid to textual criticism, such as those of Wellhausen on Samuel, Smend, Davidson and Cornill on Ezekiel, Cheyne on Isaiah, and many others. It is to be regretted, it may be remarked, that the Canterbury revisers did not show a little more freedom in handling the Hebrew text. They might thus have avoided not a few obscurities and absurdities.

The Great World's Farm: Some account of Nature's crops and how they are grown. By Selina Gaye. With a preface by G.S. Boulger, Professor of Botany and Geology in the City of London College. Macmillan. 1892. 8vo, pp. x, 365.

THIS book might be called a descripti n of the surface of the earth with special reference to vegetation, and to those animals, great or small, which affect vegetation in any way. It is written in an easy style, and is evidently the work of a person who has read very thoroughly the writings of Darwin and his followers, the travels of many scientific men, Marsh's 'Man and Nature,' and a host of other books. Beginning with some general observations, the book passes on to the nature and formation of soil; the action of heat, frost, water, air, etc., on the rocks; the use of lichens in forming soil, and the services to the soil of ants, worms, moles, and other burrowing animals. Then follow chapters on water, deserts, roots, food from the soil, insectivorous plants, leaves and their work, climate, blossom, and seed. Next is a chapter headed "The Golden Rule for Flowers," and in this and the next chapter, "Guests, Welcome and Unwelcome," there is a good account of the aid insects render to cross-fertilization, and with it, of course, some reference to those insects which manage to get at the honey of the blossom without paying for their dinner by transporting pollen. Two chapters treat of the various ways in which seeds are distributed; then come "Chances of Life," "Friends and Foes," "Nature's Militia," and

last of all "Man's Work on the Farm," or how man modifies the face of nature with respect to vegetation.

The whole book is interesting, and the several matters discussed are well arranged, so as to follow each other naturally. One could wish that the writer had given copious references to her many authorities, for here and there is a statement so unexpected that it would have been well to refer to the source whence it was taken. Now and then there is a slip, as, for instance, on page 224, where it is said that in "the kalmia, or American mountain-laurel, the stamens rise up from the petals on which they usually lie flat, and close round the insect, clasping it and impressing their pollen upon its body." In the mountain-laurel the stamens never can lie flat on the petals, for the petals are united in a basin-shaped body with ten pockets, in each one of which an anther is detained until liberated, commonly by an insect, which is thereupon dusted with pollen thrown out from two holes at the end of the stamens, in just the way that mischief-loving schoolboys throw shot from a quill tied to a piece of whalebone. Under the head of "Seed-Carriers," gray squirrels are very properly spoken of, and it is well said that "they bury their winter-store of nuts and acorns separately, one by one, about a couple of inches deep; and though they have such good memories as to be able to find them again, even when buried under a foot of snow, no doubt in many cases accidents have happened, and their stores have been left undisturbed, and would have excellent opportunities of growing. . . . They may well, therefore, have done a great deal of planting, though they would probably not carry their nuts far." But they do carry them far, as either Mr. Hamilton Gibson or Mr. Ernest Ingersoll could have told the writer, and it is just because they carry their nuts a long distance that a forest of hard wood so often follows a pine forest after it has been destroyed.

Among the many attempts to persuade people to learn something about plants, this work is one of the most pleasing, and perhaps its very avoidance of technical names and its omission of references to authors may have the effect of causing it to be all the more widely read.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitchison, Sir Charles. Lord Lawrence. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Briscoe, Miss Margaret S. Perchance to Dream, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Buxton, E. N. Short Stalks; or, Hunting Camps, North, South, East and West. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $6.
Crothers, Rev. S. McC. Members of One Body. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 75 cents.
Dale, Daley. Reuben Foreman, the Village Blacksmith. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Ecob, Mrs. Helen G. The Well-Dressed Woman. Fowler & Wells. $1.
Gosse, Edmund. The Secret of Narcisse. Taft, Sons & Co. $1.
Hinckley, F. A. Afterglow. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 50 cents.
Holyoake, G. J. Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life. 2 vols. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $6.50.
Kennedy, W. S. John Greenleaf Whittier. Revised and enlarged ed. Derby & Miller.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest. The Youth of Frederick the Great. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $2.
Minerva: Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt. 1892—1893. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Westermann.
Ogden, Antoinette. Christmas Stories from French and Spanish Writers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Proctor, Ednah D. The Song of the Ancient People. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Quevedo, Francisco de. Pablo de Segovia. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $20.
Radcliffe, F. P. D. The Noble Science of Fox-Hunting. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Rand, Rev. E. A. A Candle in the Sea; or, Winter at Seal's Head. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Sunter, J. Pauline. All Around the Year. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
The Tragedy of Julius Cæsar. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Van Duzee, L. D. By the Atlantic: Later Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Wood, J. S. A Daughter of Venice. Cassell. $1.25.

LATELY PUBLISHED:

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29, 1892.

The Week.

THE full vote for President in all the States shows totals for the various candidates as follows: Cleveland 5,567,990, Harrison 5,176,611, Weaver 1,025,060, Bidwell 258,347. Cleveland's plurality over Harrison is 391,379. The most striking feature of these figures is the small increase of the total vote in 1892 over that in 1888. Disregarding the scattering and nondescript ballots, the record during the last four Presidential contests shows these totals for the Republican, Democratic, Prohibition, and Greenback, Labor, or People's party, as it has been variously called:

1880	9,218,251
1884	10,052,706
1888	11,370,662
1892	12,028,008

It will be seen that there was a gain of 834,455 between 1880 and 1884, and 1,317,956 between 1884 and 1888, while the gain from 1888 to 1892 is only 657,346. The gain of 834,455 from 1880 to 1884 was less than normal, because in the latter year so many Republicans refused to support Blaine and did not go to the polls at all, the Republican vote actually falling off in more than one State—as in Massachusetts from 165,205 to 146,724, and in Connecticut from 67,071 to 65,923—while in New York the increase was the mere trifle of 6,461, instead of the 75,000 that was to have been expected from the growth of population; and in other States the Blaine candidacy was equally disastrous. As no such element entered into the contests of either 1880 or 1888, the total votes of those years furnish an excellent basis for estimating the natural increase. The gain in the eight years was 2,152,411, which shows clearly that, if men had voted as generally in 1892 as in 1888, the total this year should have been fully 1,250,000 larger than four years ago, whereas the increase is not much more than half as great.

The Democratic vote shows an absolute increase for Cleveland from 5,536,242 to 5,567,990, but this falls far short of representing his actual gain, as Cleveland voters of 1888 to the number of fully 250,000 this year supported the Weaver ticket in Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, and other Western States. In those parts of the country where such complications did not exist, he gained largely, and it seems safe to estimate that, if the Weaver candidacy had been no more important elsewhere than it was in the older States, the Democratic gain would have been more than 500,000. The Weaver vote is rather larger than was generally expected, but it does not signify what it would have meant if it had really been exclusively a third-party vote, instead of being largely a fusion one, to which the Democrats contributed so greatly in States which could not otherwise have been kept from the Republicans. The Bidwell vote is a great disappointment to the Prohibitionists, showing an increase of only about a dozen thousand in the whole country, whereas they had counted upon a gain of fully a quarter of a million. Altogether, the full returns afford little satisfaction to any but the tariff-reformers. The Prohibition movement has evidently ceased to grow; the large vote for the People's party is really only one form of the protest against McKinleyism; while the tremendous loss of the McKinley party itself shows the absolute hopelessness of its cause.

The *Bulletin* of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers for December contains statistics of the wool clip of the United States for the present year. This showing, when compared with the votes cast at the recent election, is quite as remarkable as that of Mr. J. Q. Smith as to the separate wool-growing counties of Ohio. The largest wool-growing State is Texas (35,281,225 pounds), which also gave the largest majority of any State for Cleveland. The next largest is California (26,543,016 pounds), and this State for the first time since 1880 cast her electoral vote for a Democratic candidate for President. The third in the list is Ohio (22,340,435 pounds), and in this State the Republican majority has dwindled to almost nothing. There is no other State that produces as much as 20,000,000 pounds. Here we have fresh proof that the woolgrower as a political bugbear is played out. Yet the *Bulletin* takes great pains to speak him fair. Commenting on the recent election and the probable repeal of the duty on wool, it says, "Thou canst not say I did it"—the *Macbeth* in this case being the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, and the *Banquo* being Judge Lawrence of Ohio. No, dear innocent Thane of Cawdor, nobody shall accuse you of anything except cutting the throat of the American consumer of woollen goods.

What is the prospect of a repeal of the law which requires the buying of seven tons of pig silver, at a cost of $125,000 gold for each working day of the year? The Philadelphia *Ledger* publishes some recent observations of Senator Sherman on this subject, viz.:

"In relation to the repeal of the act of July 14, 1890, Senator Sherman said to me yesterday: 'I am not only willing, but very desirous, to stop the further purchase of silver bullion under the act of July 14, 1890, and will support any bill that will accomplish this object. The trouble is—first, that we have but sixty days in which to complete the necessary legislation, and it would be easy for a few Senators who oppose the modification of that act to prevent action by long debates; and second, it is believed that a majority of the Senate will, as they did last year, put on as an addition to any bill that is offered a provision for the free coinage of silver. This would be infinitely worse than the present law, and would, if passed, be vetoed by the President. I think if active efforts were made with Senators to oppose such an amendment, it might possibly be defeated; but if they vote as they did at the last session, the free-coinage provision would pass and the veto would necessarily extend to the entire bill."

The second difficulty which Mr. Sherman apprehends is one which must be met whenever the silver problem is grappled. If we wait until all the free-silver Senators have disappeared, we shall wait for ever.

Senator McPherson's resolution, which proposes to give the Secretary of the Treasury authority to suspend the purchase of silver bullion whenever he may think it advisable to do so, will have the effect to bring on a new discussion of that great question—the greatest, in our judgment, that now confronts the American people. The Treasury gold balance is running down rapidly, and our stock of the yellow metal is going away to countries where it is appreciated. There is a strong probability that India will take steps to reach the gold basis, all hope of international bimetallism having vanished with the close of the Brussels Conference. This will not be so difficult a task for India as it would be if she had a legal ratio between silver and gold different from the market ratio. She can adopt, for the settlement of past contracts, the market ratio of the day when the law goes into effect, say 26 to 1, or she can allow past contracts to be settled on the silver basis, and make gold the only legal tender for future ones, including dues to and from the Government. There is every probability that silver will continue to decline. If India adopts the gold standard, it may drop to 50 cents an ounce. It is nothing but pig metal now, and there is no more reason for our Government buying it than there would be for buying pig lead or pig iron. All that is necessary in our judgment to get rid of this baleful law is for all those who are opposed to it to make it their supreme business to fight against it till it is swept from the statute books. If all such persons will fight their own battles with the same spirit as the mine-owners fight theirs, the victory will not long be doubtful. The latter have shown what they think of the Brussels Conference by the most terrible assaults on Mr. Alfred de Rothschild. A Colorado paper, entitled the *Road*, publishes a cartoon representing this poor man as hanged on a telegraph pole by indignant miners or road agents, with an inscription saying: "The silver States of the West will hold a little International Monetary Conference of their own if some-

thing is not done soon to rectify the crime of 1873." This is the kind of talk that we should like to hear from the opponents of the Sherman Law and of all other measures for making pig metal legal tender.

It is already apparent that the defenders of American shipping are alarmed at their own action in consenting to an American register for the *City of Paris* and the *City of New York*. Senator Frye announces that no more foreign-built vessels will be allowed to sail under the American flag. Why not? If it was right in their case, and if exultation over the sight of the flag on those vessels is the purest patriotism, why should not the same privilege be extended to others under the same conditions? Senator Frye has put his hand to the plough, and cannot now turn back without admitting either that he basely betrayed American shipping in giving the privilege in a single case, or that he is in favor of the grossest partiality and favoritism in legislation. The truth probably is that he now sees, what we maintained at the time, that the concession made in favor of the Inman Line cannot in fairness be withheld from others, and so was the beginning of a movement which is destined to go on until it sweeps away all the absurdities of our navigation laws.

Our relations with Canada must be admitted to be seriously strained, but the strain is largely due to the immense amount of burlesque which they have had to carry. A few days ago our Secretary of State and the Canadian Finance Minister, Mr. Foster, were engaged in a daily journalistic duel at long range, denouncing and confuting each other in rival and answering interviews. This was presumably undiplomatic conduct, and certainly was highly absurd. Then came the startling discovery that Canada was violating the terms of the agreement between this country and Great Britain relative to armed vessels on the great lakes, and was building two men-of war, calling them revenue cutters so as to allay our suspicions and leave us unprepared to resist when she got ready to declare war. But she had not reckoned on the enterprise of the American press, which promptly saw through her sinister designs and denounced her in fitting terms. Then Gen. Miles came along declaring that the very building of these cutters was "a declaration of war," and intimating that the Administration would take up the challenge with proper spirit. Meanwhile, the size and formidableness of those Canadian vessels were growing daily, and the anxious dwellers on the American shore of the lakes were in daily expectation of hearing the boom of their terrible cannon. But a great calm has suddenly come, which is, perhaps, explained by the report of an "old shipowner" in Buffalo, "one of the few who have been allowed to inspect these vessels." He asserts that they are "much smaller than has been represented," are armed with "one small gun each," and that, wonderful as it may seem, Sir Julian Pauncefote was not lying when he assured our Government that they were "mere revenue cutters." Then he added: "Even if they were 350-ton vessels, as has been reported, what does that signify when it is known that within a month past there have been launched at Toledo two 2,500-ton vessels, intended for the lake trade, but purposely constructed so that in a very few hours' time they can be converted into formidable men-of war, capable of knocking these Canadian cruisers into a cocked hat?" This makes it look as if the "declaration of war" was on our side.

The *Tribune* reports President Harrison to have under advisement the offer of a lectureship on law in the Leland Stanford University, after the expiration of his term of office. We should say that he could be highly useful as a lecturer on law, especially on international law, and there would be peculiar appropriteness in his taking a chair in that department in a California institution. It would be easy for him to take his classes down to San Diego, to let them study on the spot those great principles of international law which, under his official direction, led to the seizure of the *Itata*, and afterwards to her serio-comic chase by the *Charleston*. It would be highly convenient and instructive, too, to lead his students to the very Federal court-room in the city where those principles were declared by a United States Judge to be no principles at all, but the arbitrary whims of a chauvinistic Administration, and the detention and chase of the *Itata* to have been illegal and outrageous. Mr. Harrison has referred to this decision in a message of his to Congress, and has said that if this is the law it is highly important to have it understood. Who so well fitted as he to make it understood, especially with all the advantages of local color and object-lessons that he would enjoy in a California university? It is a clear case of the office seeking the man.

An interesting sign of the growing faith in civil-service reform is found in the statement that the President has been urged to put under the classified civil service the men employed along the line of the Louisville and Portland Canal at the Ohio River Falls, the petitions having been signed by every steamboat, barge, passenger, freight, and tow-boat line, steamboat-owner or firm, and every coal-miner and shipper on the Ohio River from Pittsburgh to Paducah, including the Tennessee, Cumberland, and Kentucky River lines, and every commander of a vessel using the canal who could be found when they were circulated, and the request being based on the requirements of the public service in the operation of the canal for the benefit of the great fleets which use it. We regret to learn from the Indianapolis *Journal*, the President's home organ, that Mr. Harrison has declined to grant the request, "on the ground that he could not single out a few Government employees here and a few there and put them under the Civil-Service Act, but that whatever he did in that direction must relate to a class." But the pledge of the Republican party, in the platform upon which Mr. Harrison was elected, was that the reform system should be extended "to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable." It is perfectly obvious that the system is applicable to the body of employees here referred to, and it is a piece of unworthy quibbling for the President to refuse to apply it to them on the ground that they do not constitute "a class."

The Nicaragua Canal Bill reported by Senator Sherman on December 21 is of too great importance to be disposed of in the present short session of Congress, in the intervals between appropriation bills and other necessary legislation. Moreover, the incoming Administration, which must execute the law if it is passed, is entitled to have something to say about the details of a bill which pledges the credit of the Government to the extent of $100,000,000. We presume that the House of Representatives will see the propriety of giving Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet a fair chance to consider a measure of such magnitude. If the bill should pass the Senate, it should be held back as long a time at least as that body has kept the bill repealing the duty on wool.

In the pardon of the Jersey City ballot-box stuffers it is, unfortunately, the expected that has happened. The Governor of the State was really the deciding power in the matter, and there has been no doubt for some time that it was a part of the game he is playing for Senatorial honors to set these polluters of the ballot-box free. The New Jersey Court of Pardons is composed of the Governor, the Chancellor, and the Lay Judges of the Court of Errors and Appeals. Chancellor McGill and Judge John Clement refused to consent to the pardons. Gov. Abbett and Judges A. H. Smith, J. W. Krueger, H. H. Brown, and G. Bogert voted to set the criminals free. The refusal of the Chancellor to vote for the pardons is enough of itself to stamp the report in favor of clemency as a mere excuse on the part of the judges who sign it for carrying out the Governor's mandate. We shall be surprised if this action of the pardoning officers does not arouse a feeling of indignation throughout New Jersey that the Legislature will not dare to ignore.

Gov. Flower's announcement that he is going to reappoint Judge Maynard, and

will pay no attention to any remonstrances, wipes out the favorable impression created by his conduct during the last few months, and apparently reveals him again as the mere tool of the Democratic Machine, ready at any moment to obey whatever command it lays upon him. The manner of the announcement was as offensive as its matter. The morning newspapers had reported the meeting of the Bar Association of this city the previous evening, at which resolutions were adopted by an almost unanimous vote declaring its opinion that Maynard's reappointment would be "eminently unfit," requesting the Governor to fill the place by the appointment of somebody else, and providing for the transmission of a copy of the resolutions to the Governor. Courtesy, not to say common decency, required that Mr. Flower should give this action of the Association some consideration, and it was in the worst possible taste, as well as morals, for him to retort so precipitately with the announcement of his purpose to reappoint Maynard. Attempts have been made and will now be repeated to excuse the Governor's original appointment by the claim that his action then met the approval of the members of the court, but this is a gross misrepresentation of the facts. The truth is that he announced his intention in the matter at a formal reception on New Year's Day when the judges had called to pay their respects, and when the occasion permitted only a bow of acknowledgment from the callers, which signified nothing. The plea that consistency requires the Governor to appoint Maynard again is the only refuge left him, and it will not avail, for if it means anything, it means that he must sink back again into that most humiliating position which he occupied during the first few months of his term as the mere dummy of the party machine.

The English Wesleyans have just had a discussion of "the higher criticism" of the Bible on their hands, in the shape of a charge of heresy brought against Prof. Davison of their denominational Handsworth College, at Birmingham. Certain papers of his on the methods and achievements of the new Biblical criticism were made the basis of an attack upon him, on the ground that they would "unsettle the minds" of ordinary readers of the Scriptures, and were especially dangerous as instruction given to theological students. The case was laid before the Committee on Theological Institutions, and their report completely sustains the professor. They assert that his views have no tendency to unsettle the minds of "careful students" of the Bible, but, on the contrary, "are well calculated to instruct those who have not had such advantages of study, and to reassure the faith of those who may have had their minds more or less disturbed by such adverse criticisms as are now current in many quarters." Liberality like this would clearly be out of the question in any Methodist body in this country, and is sufficiently striking even for England. English theological progress has been about a generation behind German, and American about the same distance behind English.

M. de Blowitz, Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, shows an increasing apprehension lest the republic should receive some detriment from the Panama Canal scandal. The danger, according to this discerning person, arises not from the corruption of people in high office and in the press, but from their exposure. The crafty Boulangists, the eager royalists, and all the enemies of the present form of government are pushing the investigation with fiendish energy, knowing well that the hour is coming when the barricades will rise in the streets. Meanwhile the Ministry are playing into the hands of their opponents. "A strong government," he says, "would never have submitted to the dictates of its worst enemies." The *Times* ought to recall M. de Blowitz and send in his place somebody like the youth who wrote to it from western Pennsylvania concerning the approaching downfall of England. The latter knew that there was one thing worse than exposed corruption, and that was the corruption that infects unseen till the whole edifice falls, as it did under the third Napoleon. Any Government can bear the exposure of corruption if it does not try to hide it or lie out of it. What it cannot bear is internal dry rot. There are some things worse than barricades in the streets.

The French are just now witnessing one of the well-known phenomena of public corruption when undergoing exposure. It is the defence made by the detected corruptionists, which consists in asserting, first, that they have always been highly patriotic; second, that the money they received from suspicious quarters was religiously expended for the public good; third, that they are attacked by enemies of the republic, who are simply enraged at failing to ruin it already, thanks to their own watchfulness and patriotism; and, finally, that their consciences do not reproach them for anything they have done. M. Rouvier was especially impressive on this last point. His conscience was perfectly clear, and, therefore, how could there be anything in the charges against him? All this is an old story with us. We have seen even a candidate for the Presidency assert that he had nothing to be ashamed of in letters proving his corruption, and his friends gravely arguing that, if *he* did not blush, there was no reason why they should. Another form of defence is the claim by the accused person that he has not lost a minute of sleep on account of the charges made against him. We shall doubtless see this brought forward by some of the public jobbers in France as a proof of innocence. Luckily for us, we have become pretty cynical about such matters, and do not any longer think that an inert conscience and a good digestion are necessarily incompatible with crime.

There seems some likelihood that M. Floquet may be obliged to resign his place as President of the Chamber of Deputies because he has admitted, in the Panama inquiry, that when he was in the Ministry he distributed the Government advertising to his political supporters in the press. But it is interesting to remember, as showing how we lead the nations, that this has been the practice of our Governments—State, municipal, and Federal—for many a day, and that, as appeared in the trial of Gray vs. Shepard, it is considered perfectly harmless, as long as the man who controls the advertising is not bribed by the periodicals to which he gives it. Another improving example for American journalists is to be found in the arrangements made for the Déroulède-Clémenceau duel. Who of us when about to engage in mortal combat with a man who had no newspaper, would agree not to issue an extra with the news of the duel in advance of the other journals—and carry out the agreement? Is there one of us, under such circumstances, who would not bargain that no reporter should be present on either side, and then conceal one of his own in the shrubbery or behind the fence, so as to get "a scoop" on his contemporaries? We trow not. In truth, the solemn arrangements made by Clémenceau for a fair start for all the newspapers, including *La Justice*, strike us as fatiguing in the extreme, "proceeding from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

The status of the Republican party in Spain was pretty well indicated by an incident which occurred in the Cortes on December 12. On that day the new Prime Minister, Sagasta, read the royal decree for the adjournment of the session, and the outspoken Republican Deputy from Barcelona, Señor Salmerón, seized the occasion to rise and hurrah for the Republic. His act made a great sensation, but the next day, when the presiding officer suggested that some form of rebuke or punishment should be applied to Salmerón for his revolutionary cry, the Premier opposed taking any step of that kind. He said that the offending Republican had already found sufficient punishment in the fact that not a single one of his friends had joined him in his revolutionary cheer. With this the incident was regarded as closed. It should certainly convey its own lessons to those ill-informed newspapers in this country which pictured the fall of the Conservative Ministry as due to a Republican rising in Madrid and in the Peninsula generally.

"PERSONALITIES."

THERE is no political hallucination in which political wrongdoers delight more, and by which they profit more, than the notion that bad administration can be exposed and corrected without being personal or mentioning names. For the purpose of securing good or amending bad legislation general denunciation of sin, while carefully avoiding all mention of particular sinners, may suffice. But when the political reformer comes to deal with administrative abuses, there is nothing for it but to name the person whose conduct has brought the abuse into notice. No administrative abuses are known, or can be known, except by ascertaining that somebody in office has done what he ought not to have done, or has left undone something which he ought to have done. Imperfections in rules and regulations, or in the bookkeeping, or in the mode of guarding funds, or in the working of particular legal powers or duties, are all brought to light, and have to be brought to light, by the acts of a certain person or persons; and no reform can be effected except by telling the world who did it and how he came to do it. It is in this way, and in this way only, that public opinion can be brought to bear on the question of remedy or prevention. For example, the other day in the Post-office a youth, intrusted with the custody of postage-stamps, stole $5,000 worth and disappeared, having previously evaded detection, when his effects were examined, by showing the edges of sheets of blank paper in his bundles of stamps, which he had adroitly inserted in lieu of sheets of stamps. This was a new and clever form of fraud, but it would be absurd to seek to provide a remedy simply by denouncing the stealing of stamps by Post office clerks as a serious offence, without mentioning the theft committed by Cadman.

Especially futile would have been the attempt to bring to light the defects of a Tammany State Quarantine without any mention of the shortcomings of Dr. Jenkins. It is Dr. Jenkins's administration of a Tammany State Quarantine last summer which has made known what these defects are. First and foremost among them is, in fact, Dr. Jenkins himself, because he illustrates the Tammany disregard of the statute which provides that the Health Officer shall be "a doctor of medicine of good standing, of at least ten years' experience in the practice of his profession, and practically familiar with quarantinable diseases." Dr. Jenkins had none of these qualifications, and his appointment and career last summer therefore proved two things of the highest importance—(1) the viciousness of the system which allows Tammany to select the Health Officer, and (2) the bad results which are likely to flow from failure to select in the manner prescribed by the statute.

Had the Advisory Committee of the Chamber of Commerce, therefore, confined themselves to a description of the horrors which they saw on Hoffmann's Island, to the confusion and indiscipline they found on board the *Stonington* and in other places, the busy public, which thought Jenkins was "keeping out the cholera" last summer, and did not particularly care how he did it, might have supposed that the state of things which the Committee described was a necessary concomitant of all quarantine, and no more capable of remedy than the loss of life through casualties and disease in time of war; that Dr. Jenkins had done his best, and that the Quarantine critics were simply "kickers," and it might then have gone about its business with a "houp là." But when, under a direct question from Mr. Orr, the Chairman of the Committee, the Advisory Committee declared their opinion that the "present Health Officer had not shown sufficient executive ability nor sufficient knowledge of sanitary science to warrant the belief that he can in future manage Quarantine affairs in a satisfactory and safe manner," they indicated in a few words both the nature of the abuse to be remedied and the nature of the remedy. They made clear to the public what the reform was which the occasion called for. They made their report a political document of high importance, instead of a description of an excursion down the Bay in cholera times by a party of scientists.

Somewhat the same thing may be said of the dealings of the Bar Association with Judge Maynard's case. How many essays on judicial corruption, how many descriptions of the Upright Judge, and of the qualifications for the judicial office, how many eloquent and moving addresses to the graduates of the law schools on commencement day on the noble part of the bar in the administration of justice, would it take to make the impression on the public mind which has been made by the Bar Association in singling out this one offender against all the traditions of judicial purity, and telling the public what the thing was and how the thing was done which makes his presence on the judicial bench a scandal and a continuing insult to the community? We do not hesitate to say that this action, like the impeachment of Barnard and the chasing of Cardozo from the bench, has done more for judicial purity than all the articles, sermons, speeches, of the last fifty years. In short, no work of reform can be done in our time without personality. The huge masses of busy, and indifferent, or ill-informed people who now rule the world, and most of whom are face to face every day with the problem of self-preservation in its sternest form, and scarce can find time to glance at the newspapers, can only with extreme difficulty and only on rare occasions be got to take an interest in *subjects*. In persons they take a great interest. Their politics are largely personal. They are more and more apt to embody their ideas, whether friendly or hostile, in a man or men. To rouse them about crime or abuse, you have to produce a criminal; to win them over to a plan of prevention, you must in their presence drive out the evil-doer, and show them on the spot the more excellent way. Nor is there anything to lament in this peculiarity of democracy. Nothing has done so much for human character as the spectacle of individual accountability. A community which expressed its morality wholly in righteous platitudes would not have long to live. The world cannot be saved by rhetoric.

THE MAYNARD CASE.

THERE is much indignation over Gov. Flower's blunt announcement that he will reappoint Judge Maynard to the vacancy left on the bench of the Court of Appeals by the election of Judge Andrews to the Chief Judgeship; the remonstrance of the Bar Association and the plain merits of the case to the contrary notwithstanding. It is of course very bad, and very disgraceful, not only to Gov. Flower himself, of whom better things have of late been expected, but to the whole community of which he is the chief executive officer. But any one who will look carefully into the conditions under which both the Judge and the Governor have learned all they know about politics, will be inclined to be somewhat indulgent towards them both.

Why is it that the Bar Association's terrible condemnation of Judge Maynard's conduct in the matter of the electoral count made no impression on either him or the Governor? We can recall nothing equal to it for severity in the history of either the bench or the bar. In any other civilized country it would have driven Judge Maynard into a retirement from which he would never have emerged, and would have drawn from an officer filling a place as high as Gov. Flower's a repudiation of all connection with him as indignant as words could make it. Why is it that the public decencies of Christendom have come to have no weight in the Executive Chamber at Albany?

The answer is, we think, to be found in the reasons given by some lawyers for opposing the action taken by the Bar Association on Tuesday week protesting against the appointment which it knew was coming. "If," they said, "you do this [that is, take any more notice of the offences of which the Committee convicted the Judge last March], it will have the air of persecution. You will excite sympathy for the Judge, and you will provoke the Governor into appointing him just to show his contempt for you." Now, there is in this objection the explanation of the protracted existence of fully half the corruption and abuses by which we are afflicted, and of the prosperity and audacity of far more than half the knaves who infest our public life. For out of it has grown a rule which we teach all our young men, and on which journalists usually act, which says: "You must never notice a political crime or scandal more than once, or

at most twice, except during a political canvass. If, after the rascal has got into the office which you tried to keep from him, or has escaped the prosecution with which you threatened him, and has successfully defied all efforts to make him surrender his booty, you keep denouncing him, or holding him up to public reprobation, or, in fact, take any steps calculated to make him uncomfortable in the possession of it, you will surely make him an object of public sympathy, and sympathy connotes esteem. You will relieve him of the odium his offences have justly brought upon him, and strengthen the hands of his apologists."

This rule falls in so well with the national good-nature that it has become almost imbedded in the national conscience as a rule of right. It now furnishes the entrenchment behind which nearly all the political knaves and corruptionists defy public opinion. When they are caught or exposed, they tell each other to keep still, make no defence, and in a few days the affair will blow over, and "the papers" will get tired of talking about it, and any attempt to reopen it will be reprobated. As a general rule, the policy is completely successful, even where the offence is a continuing one, as when the offender remains in the office he has disgraced or has unlawfully acquired. Everybody lets the matter drop, and if he commits no new offence in the office, his friends soon begin "to point with pride" to him, and demand a higher place for him or another term. Gov. Flower has actually furnished an entertaining illustration of this state of mind in his talk about Judge Maynard, for he justifies his reappointing him by alleging that he has behaved very well on the bench since last January. This is his sole answer to the charge that Mr. Maynard's conduct in December last showed his moral and mental unfitness for any public place of trust, in that he broke the law of the State and aided and abetted in a fraud on the voters.

No one can blame the rascals in politics for taking all the advantage they can of this public readiness to accept accomplished facts as moral settlements. This readiness is simply a milder form of the unwillingness of barbarians to punish any successful crime. "The man is dead," says the Calabrian peasant, "and what is the use of killing the poor murderer?" "He has got the place," says the kindly American; "why don't you let the poor fellow alone? Do you think your growling will make him resign?" Possibly not; but no thinking man will deny that every successful attempt to prostitute public places, like that in which Judge Maynard and Gov. Flower are now engaged, in the presence of a silent public and press and bar, makes future attempts of the same kind more probable and easier of accomplishment.

The system of one protest, and no more, against acts of political villany has, as we all see and know, utterly broken down. There is not a journalist in America whose experience has not told him that the only way of attracting the attention of the public to anything which does not immediately affect the interests of private individuals is by frequent iteration. Even far more diligent newspaper readers than the vast majority of people are, often see a thing set out fifty times in a newspaper before they rouse themselves sufficiently to find out what it is all about, like the man who came to the office of the *Tribune*, about 1860, to ask for the copy of the paper which had an article about slavery in it. Wendell Phillips made it a rule of the anti-slavery agitation never to forget or forgive a man who had ever ranged himself against human liberty, and he applied it with what was undoubtedly for his purpose wise ferocity. In the fight which the country is now waging against fraud and corruption in high places, the only remedy worth considering is remorseless pursuit of wrongdoers until they get out of public life. No man is obliged to stay in public life any more than, as has been said, to write bad sonnets. As long as wrongdoers can count on pardon and oblivion at an early date, any attack on them is useless. Apropos of the return of the Bar Association to the Maynard question, we should like to ask those who consider it either imprudent or useless, whether they have ever considered the part which the conduct of the older members of the bar in meeting cases like this one has in educating the younger generation in its duty to the community. What inference would the next generation draw from a history of the Maynard case in which it appeared that, after the conviction of the Judge of law-breaking and fraud, they had witnessed his second appointment a year later to a place in the court of last resort, in respectful silence? Would it not conclude that, in the opinion of a great profession, a corrupt judge had only to behave decently for one year to expiate all past offences and prove his fitness to dispense justice in a great community for any number of years to come? In good truth, a silent, quiescent bar, in the presence of great judicial wrongs, is one of the greatest curses that can afflict a free people.

BUSINESS ON SENTIMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

THE proceedings of a municipality are seldom of a character to arouse universal interest, but the London County Council appears likely to furnish in several respects an exception to the rule. The science of political economy, as is well known, is not at present much cultivated in England upon the lines followed with so great distinction by Ricardo and Mill and Cairnes. These eminent men regarded it as their province to determine the laws under which the production and distribution of wealth actually take place. The modern school of professed economists has found that these laws are repugnant to the nobler nature of man, and has denounced the science that embodies them as harsh and pitiless. According to this school, it is shocking to the moral sense to speak of the "labor market," or to allude to human exertion as if it were a commodity to be bought and sold. In their view political economy is only cultivated properly by those who are under the influence of philanthropical enthusiasm, and must be transfused with ethical principles. It is the science not of what is, but of what ought to be, in the industrial world, and it is the duty of economists to see to it that the industrial world reforms itself accordingly.

Opinions of this character being extensively prevalent at the time of the constitution of the new Council for the government of London, it is not surprising that many of its members should belong to what they style the Progressive party. It is the general aim of these members to embody in legislation and eventually to establish as institutions the theories of reformed society which they have conceived, or at least to go as far in this direction as the contradictory character of many of these theories will permit. What they are substantially agreed upon is, that large accumulations of wealth in the hands of individuals exist only through injustice to the poor, and must be corrected by the imposition of taxes and the employment of labor at high wages by the State or municipality. As Mr. Tom Mann observes, the resulting increase of the rates is exactly what is wanted. It will "open up an opportunity for investment, stimulate the healthy circulation of capital, and well repay the outlay."

The first step in this direction, to which we called attention at the time, was the decision that in contracts made by the Council, it should be covenanted by the contractor that he would pay the rate of wages fixed by the trade-unions. There were those who would have required contractors to employ only union laborers, but as in some trades the unions had comparatively few members, this was at the time impracticable, although its realization is hoped for in the near future. It is not surprising that with this provision the Council has met with difficulty in getting contractors to undertake its work, and the second step has accordingly now been taken. The Council is to organize a "works department" of its own, dispensing with contractors whenever it chooses, establishing its own plant, providing its own storage and workshops, and employing its own force of laborers. These laborers are to receive, as we understand the figures, about five shillings a week above the market rate, and steady employment is to be provided for them.

As a third step, which seems to follow necessarily from the preceding, but which requires legislative sanction, a direct tax

is to be levied upon landlords. An inheritance tax upon ground rents and values is demanded; but this is only an incident. The real reform is to be in the imposition of special rates upon the owners of land or rents, coupled with a provision making void all existing contracts whereby tenants have bound themselves to pay taxes and assessments. Two proposals for the accomplishment of this reform are before the Council, but the Progressive party condemns one of them as making it possible for the landlord to add the rate in some cases to the rent, and endorses the other as rendering this evasion impossible.

As no such proposal can become effective except by act of Parliament, it would seem that landlords might possess their lands yet a while in quiet, but the reply of one of the Ministry, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, to a deputation of the unemployed is far from reassuring. The deputation urged that Government should undertake public works for the purpose of giving employment to idle hands, and Mr. Shaw-Lefevre told them that Government was really doing a good deal in that direction, and was about to do a good deal more in clearing the site of the old Millbank Prison. This work would be turned over to contractors, as Government had no staff for the purpose of carrying out such an operation itself, but there would be a clause in the contracts in accordance with the resolution of the House of Commons, that the contractors were to pay the men they employed "the current wages." To the request that the contractors be also required to limit the day's work to eight hours, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre discreetly replied that as the work would be completed during the winter months there would be a limitation of hours by nature. It is not inopportune to recall the fact that when the French Republic undertook the enterprise of providing work for the unemployed in 1848, there were at the beginning of March about 8,000 men supposed to be idle. But a rush took place from the provinces until there were on the 20th of June 115,000 men brigaded. The burden became intolerable, the public workshops were closed, the workmen rose in revolt, and the blood of 12,000 of their number was shed before the normal status of affairs was restored.

Some further steps remain to be taken before the plans of the Progressive party attain completeness. Of these some are already in contemplation, as, that no work should be given to concerns outside of London. Bids were recently received for the construction of a ferry-boat from both London and Glasgow builders, that of the Scotch firm, who were of admitted responsibility, being nearly £1,800 lower than that of the London firm, which was for some £17,575. The committee having the matter in charge reported in favor of the London firm, and Mr. John Burns had a third of the Council with him in his contention that London workmen ought to have a preference, and that they ought to be protected against outside competition. He should have had a majority, for nothing can be more certain than that if the rate of wages is to be artificially raised in London, shipbuilding and everything can be done cheaper elsewhere, while, unless immigration is stopped, there will be a rush of outsiders to enjoy the distribution of the spoils announced as about to take place there. The whole collectivist scheme will be shipwrecked unless effective barriers are raised about London to keep the rich people from getting out and the poor from getting in. This has been the weakness of protectionism in America, our wealthy manufacturers rushing off to Europe to spend their money, and the poor of Europe flocking to this country to compete for wages; and municipal collectivism is only protectionism writ small. In fact, Mr. Tom Mann has very honestly and consistently testified before the English Labor Commission that he is quite prepared to see the foreign trade of England ruined by the increase of wages and the shortening of working hours. He is willing to see Frenchmen, Germans, and Americans producing what they require for their own sustenance and his "own country doing the same and not more than that."

It is a startling experiment to commit the destinies of the greatest city in the world to such characters as this. It might be worth its cost were the experiment to be carried through, but this is scarcely to be expected. Were no other obstacle to arise, it would be vitiated by the starvation of the people of London, as that other classical experiment intended to demonstrate the possibility of living without food, provided the rations were gradually decreased, was frustrated by the unfortunate death of the cow just as she had been reduced to one straw a day.

THE PANAMA CORRUPTION FUND.

M. LEROY-BEAULIEU'S second article on the Panama crisis in Paris, in which he discusses more in detail the corrupt disposition made of the Company's funds, takes up the case of the press and that of members of the Chambers separately. He approves of advertising new enterprises extensively, provided it is done openly—that is, provided the advertisement is marked as such. But he intimates that most of the Panama Company's money which was spent on the press in France was spent on what we call "reading notices"—that is, on articles, apparently editorial, lauding the enterprise to the skies, and indulging in extravagant prophecies as to its success, which were, however, really contracted for as paid puffs. There is no abuse of the press more insidious than this, and when employed, as in this case, to enable speculators to capture the savings of the poor, it was more than usually base; one of the ostensible functions of the press being the protection of the poor against this very thing. For this, however, he has no remedy to offer. The purification of the press, or, as some call it, "the elevation of journalism," in democratic countries, the best observers acknowledge to be apparently in the hands of Providence solely. Human machinery for that purpose does not now exist and is not likely to exist. Only some great moral uplifting of the human race seems likely to make sure that nobody shall start or conduct a newspaper who is not animated by a high sense of responsibility to the public.

As regards the Legislature, M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the disease which has appeared among the lawmakers seems to have infected the whole community. The working-classes, who rage against the corruption of the bourgeoisie, are apparently just as bad as the others. He mentions in illustration of this three cases of loss of funds by trades unions (*syndicats*) through the frauds of their officers within the past year. Everybody who touches politics seems to be either corrupt or in great danger of corruption, and he intimates broadly, what political philosophers all over the world are beginning to believe, that corruption is the endemic disease of democracies. Not that aristocracies have not been corrupt, too, but their corruption was not so peculiarly pecuniary—that is, they sold themselves for other things as well as money, such as decorations and titles, and their numbers were always, from the nature of the case, small, so that a little money went a long way with them.

To the Radicals who say that, middle-class government (the government of the shopkeepers and lawyers and other professional men) having broken down, there is nothing for it but to try Socialism—that is, to hand over all industrial enterprises to "the State" or "the municipality"—M. Leroy-Beaulieu makes the answer which we have so often made in these columns to similar suggestions, that "the State" or "municipality" would be simply the same government we have now, with a very much larger number of officers. One of the strangest delusions of the "Collectivists," Bellyamites, and the like, is that there would turn up, for their use in the administration of their extremely complicated millennium, a new breed of functionaries of the ascetic kind, who would manage the public affairs and handle public funds simply for the glory of God and the public good, without thought of self; that when New York city, for instance, was running all the urban railways, and owning all the factories and meat-shops and bakeries and clothing stores, no Hill's or Crokers or Grants or Divvers or Walshes would be found among the managers of these enterprises, and that secret "pulls" and "divvies" would be unknown, and envy, hatred, and malice would play no part in the distribution of the goods or in the allotments of the task-work. The

truth is, that the tendency to multiply offices is as marked a feature of modern politics as the tendency to take bribes and steal public funds; and that under any scheme of Socialism yet propounded the number of public functionaries would be far greater than has ever yet been seen in any State, and they would be made of the same old stuff which has been for 1,800 years the despair of theologians. This would be true even of George's land scheme. The chances are that if the State was a universal landlord, the swarm who assessed the rents would put on political optimists the greatest strain they have ever undergone.

The remedy for all this—the one remedy, and that, at best, only a partial one—through legislation which M. Leroy-Beaulieu sees is, first, the taking away from the legislatures, as far as possible, the power of bestowing favors for financial or commercial purposes. No better illustration of the soundness of this position could be found than our own experience with the tariff—meaning thereby the power exercised for so many years by our Congress of raising prices by legislation on the application of individuals, for purposes of private gain. A more effective and insidious mode of corrupting politics was never invented. His second remedy—still only partial—is the vigorous restriction in the number of public offices; that is, in the amount of patronage in the hands of the Executive. As long as the Executive has much to bestow in the way of place and honors, men will seek admission to the Legislature simply to extort from it places and honors by "pressure," or "threats," or obstruction, or, in fact, by that combination of all sorts of hostile agencies which we call "war." The connection of this corruption with the whole Socialistic movement of the day — that is, the tendency to treat "the State," which is really a collection of rather inferior men, as a universal providence which is to supply everybody with money and comforts, and save him the necessity not only of being intelligent and shrewd, but even of being frugal and industrious—is not very remote and is very obvious.

WASHINGTON RELICS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 13, 1892.

AMONG the papers of John Hall which came into my hands while writing the Life of Thomas Paine, is a letter to John Coltman, Leicester, England, May 16, 1788. Hall, a mechanical engineer, had emigrated to America, where he assisted Paine in making the model of his iron bridge. The letter, which I have printed in my Life of Paine (ii, p. 469), relates to an overcoat which Gen. Washington, during the Revolution, gave Paine, when that of the latter had been stolen. Hall had sent the overcoat to Mr. Coltman, and it occurred to me recently to inquire whether there was any such overcoat in the Town Museum at Leicester. To my astonishment, I was informed by the polite curator, Mr. Montague Browne, that, though they did not have such an overcoat, they did have a waistcoat of Gen. Washington's. There was no way in which Hall's words could be made to mean a waistcoat, and the latter, which indeed is a comparatively recent acquisition, has this label: "This Waistcoat was purchased by Mr. Mark Bowden of Devonport from an aged lady, the niece of an old gentleman who, with his wife, used to purchase Washington's clothes." The waistcoat was presented to the Museum by Mr. Bowden in 1881. It is before me as I write, but is not easy to describe. It is of white silk, or taffety, with light blue stripes (longitudinal), the alternate white and blue stripes being of equal width (about 1-20th of an inch). The front edges and the pocket flaps are elegantly embroidered with gold thread, the buttons being made of silk and exactly matching the taffety. The fineness of the front is in curious contrast with the coarse canvas of the back.

It was rather droll to find a waistcoat of Washington where I had sought his overcoat. Searches having failed to discover the latter, I had reached the conclusion that it had been lost among the Coltmans, or perhaps gone to pieces—for it was given to Paine when the army was near Princeton, or about 118 years ago. But Mr. Montague Browne investigated the records of the Museum, and found the following entry in the list of the contents of the Museum when it was handed over to the corporation of Leicester in 1849:

"A button with part of a Military Coat worn by General Washington at Bunker's Hill —Miss Coltman."

The relic has not been found. An official who has been connected with the Museum for forty years remembers nothing of it. The button may have on it some interesting device, and I still hope that it may be discovered. I am not enough of a relic-worshipper to care much for anything but the button, which would probably have some engraving. There are several other Washington relics that must be in England. Lady Russell tells me that there is at Swallowfield Park "a very nice stick" which belonged to Gen. Washington, and which came to her husband through Admiral Bergerette.

The Town Museum at Leicester possesses four original letters of Washington to Mrs. Macaulay Graham, who, with her husband, passed ten days at Mount Vernon in June, 1785. They are very neatly written, and the wrappers of two are preserved, bearing the usual seal (griffin crest); one of the seals is black. Two of the letters (November 16, 1787, and January 9, 1790) are in Sparks, but I have not seen in print those subjoined:

MOUNT VERNON, Jan'y 10th, 1786.

MADAM

I wish any expression would do justice to my feelings, that I might convey to you adequate ideas of my gratitude for those favourable sentiments with which the letter you did me the honour to write to me from New York is replete. The plaudits of a Lady, so celebrated as Mrs. Macaulay Graham, could not fail of making a deep impression on my sensibility; and my pride was more than a little flattered, by your approbation of my conduct through an arduous and painful contest.

During the time in which we supposed you to have been on your journey to New York, we participated the distresses which we were sure you must have experienced on account of the intemperature of the air, which exceeded the heats common in this country at the most inclement season; and though your letter was expressive of the great fatigue you had undergone, still we rejoiced that the journey was attended with no worse consequences.

I hope, and most sincerely wish, that this letter may find you happily restored to your friends in England, whose anxiety for your return must, I am persuaded have been great, —and that you will have experienced no inconvenience from your voyage to America.

Mrs. Washington who has a grateful sense of your favourable mention of her—and Fanny Bassett and Major Washington who, since we had the honour of your company, have joined their hands and fortunes, unite with me in respectful compliments to you—and in every good wish that can render you and Mr. Graham happy. The little folks enjoy perfect health.—The boy, whom you would readily have perceived was the pet of the family, affords promising hopes from maturer age.

With sentiments of great
respect and esteem
I have the honor to be
Madam,
Y^r most Obed't and very H^ble St
G° Washington.
Mrs. Macauley Graham.

PHILADELPHIA, Feby. 10th, 1791.

MADAM

At the same time that I acknowledge the receipt of your letter of June last, with which I have been honored, I must beg you to accept my best thanks for your treatise on Education which accompanied it.

The anxiety which you express for the welfare of this country demands a proper acknowledgment; and the political sentiments which are contained in your letter merit a more particular reply than the multifarious and important business in which I am constantly engaged (especially while Congress are in session) will permit me to make.—I must therefore, Madam, rely upon your goodness to receive this short letter as an acknowledgment of your polite attention, and beg you to be assured that my not entering at this time into the subject of your favor does not proceed from a want of that consideration with which I have the honor to be

Madam
Your most Obed^t H^ble Ser.
G° WASHINGTON.
Mrs. C. Macauley Graham.

The letters are interesting examples of Washington's courtly grace. The "Major Washington" mentioned in the first letter was George Augustine, the General's nephew, who married Martha Washington's niece. The "little folks" are the Custis children, the "pet of the family" being G. W. P. Custis.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE MEMOIRS OF COUNT CHEVERNY.

I.

PARIS, December 8, 1892.

THE Life of Henri de Virieu, written from original documents by Count Costa de Beauregard, shows us the period of the French Revolution under its most terrible aspect; it leaves on the mind an impression of sadness which can hardly be forgotten. Virieu appears like one of the victims of fatality, born to suffer and to die. A very different impression is produced by the memoirs of the Comte de Cheverny. These memoirs, published by M. Robert de Crèvecœur, keep us nearly all the time in the years of the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. which preceded the Revolution—happy years, of which Talleyrand used to say, "Those who have not lived through them do not know what a pleasure it is to live." Cheverny's memoirs were not written from day to day; they were written, he says, "for myself and for my sole pleasure," in 1795, after the Terror. The author sought to distract himself; they are more anecdotical than historical. Cheverny does not pretend to be a prophet. Not only did he not see the Revolution coming, he does not understand it after it has come. He is thoroughly "ancien régime."

Jean Nicolas Dufort de Cheverny was born in 1731 in Paris. His family did not belong to the *noblesse d'épée*, but only to the *noblesse de robe*. His father, who was very wealthy, had bought the beautiful estate of Saint-

Leu-Taverny in the valley of Montmorency. When he came of age, his parents bought for him the office of "Introductor of Ambassadors." He was only twenty years old, and had to learn all the minutiæ of etiquette. This dignity brought him at times in contact with the sovereign. He made his début at Compiègne, where Louis XV. liked to hunt in the forest. A small item will give an idea of the ways of the Court: "Strangers who were presented could accompany the King in the hunt. The Introductor, at their request, concerted with the Premier (the first gentleman of the bedchamber), and there were always six horses ready for the strangers. This custom had been kept up since Louis XIV."

The first great function in which Cheverny took part was the presentation of Kaunitz, the new Ambassador from Austria. The account of it occupies many pages. I will, however, give but a single detail: in the long procession of gala carriages was the livery of Kaunitz, sixty silk-stockinged footmen in blue, with embroidery of silver and gold. After having seen the King and the Royal Family, Kaunitz asked to see Mme. de Pompadour, the favorite, and, it may be said, the real Queen of France. She had her apartment above the King's apartment in every royal palace; all the ambassadors visited her regularly, except the Papal Nuncio.

Cheverny became one of the members of the society of Mme. d'Épinay. The reader of her Memoirs and Letters knows the La Lives—de Bellegarde, d'Épinay, de la Briche. Two of these were, like Cheverny, introductors of ambassadors. The splendid château of La Chevrette was the centre of this gay society. Cheverny became one of the actors in its theatre. One day, when he was at Compiègne, the King announced to him the death of one of his colleagues, with the greatest indifference. "I have a hundred times asked myself why a king who was very sociable and polite, seemed so insensible to the death of those who lived round him. I have found but one solution: a king has continually a living picture round him; his interior service, his exterior service changes every three months; it is a magic lantern. Then, for every person who dies, he has a place to give and can make somebody happy."

Cheverny was not long in perceiving that society was cut up into coteries and sets. That it should be so now is not surprising; but you find this clannish feeling already in the society of the eighteenth century, which was homogeneous, and which had not yet gone through the ordeal of the Revolution. Society was never organized in France on the same principles as in England; there was always a tendency to the formation of small and exclusive groups. It is partly because people like to be more intimate in France, and partly because the national vanity is satisfied with the exclusiveness of a coterie. "When you have lived long and examined the manners of an immense city like Paris, in a tranquil period when the laws and the police are in vigor, such as the reign of Louis XV., all societies are coteries, beginning with the Court. Mme. de Pompadour had her coterie, notwithstanding the crowd of courtiers who surrounded her; the King had his own; so had the Duc de la Vallière, the Prince Soubise, the Marquis de Chauvelin, the Marquis de Livry, etc." The Queen's coterie met at Mme. de Luynes's, and was composed of what Cheverny calls the *sultanes Validés* of the Court. The Dauphiness and the Dauphin had their small set of intimates. The sisters of the King, Mesdames, led the dullest and most uniform life possible; they admitted but few ladies. The ministers, also, D'Argenson and Machault, had their coterie. The brother of Mme. de Pompadour, Poisson, who assumed the name of Marquis de Marigny and became a *cordon bleu* and a superintendent of the fine arts, had become a power, and had his coterie.

The King lived solely for hunting and shooting; he was out every day except Sunday in one of the royal forests. He was kindly, polite, but distant; he hardly ever spoke more than a few words, except about the hunt.

"Lansmat, his first *piqueur*, was the man whom he treated best, whether in his Cabinet or in the field. He never spoke to anybody except to him, or to the grooms who rode with him. One day, at Fontainebleau, I witnessed this *boutade* of Lansmat's: the run had been hard, two stags had been brought to bay; horses, dogs, men, were worn out, and we wisely rejoined the carriages. The King, with that voice which would have distinguished him in a hundred thousand, calls for Lansmat. 'Lansmat, are the dogs tired?' 'Yes, sire, rather tired.' 'Are the horses also?' 'I think so.' 'Never mind,' said the King, 'I will hunt day after to-morrow.' 'Yes, sire, I understand; but what grieves me,' said he, on rejoining his equipage, 'is that I always hear it asked if the horses and dogs are tired, and never the men.' This was said so that the King did not lose a word. The hunt took place as usual."

Cheverny does, however, defend Louis XV. against the imputation of absolute heartlessness. It has become legendary that when Mme. Pompadour died, the King watched the funeral pass by the windows of the palace at Versailles, and that, noticing the rain fall in torrents, he merely said: "La Marquise a mauvais temps!" Cheverny was with the King at the time; he tells us that the King saw the funeral go by from a balcony; he remained silent, but great tears were falling from his eyes, and when the procession was gone, he said, with a deep sigh: "These are the only services which I can render her!"

Cheverny gives us many details concerning his own liaison with a married lady, Mme. B. (we have only the initial of her name). This passion came to an end when he married a cousin of his; he became a good and faithful husband. His household in the Rue d'Anjou may be cited as the type of a good establishment in the eighteenth century. "My household," he says, "was composed of a *Suisse*, a *maître d'hôtel*, a *femme de charge*, a maid, a cook, a second cook, and two domestics for myself. My wife had two domestics for herself. I had six horses—two for my wife, four for myself—two coachmen, a postillion, three stable-horses, and a stableman."

The account of the intrigues which followed the attempt made by Damiens to assassinate Louis XV. has an historical interest. Louis XV. seems to have been much more frightened than hurt; he was surrounded by his family and was almost ready to dismiss Mme. de Pompadour. She contrived to reassure the King, to persuade him (what was true) that Damiens was a mere madman, and not the instrument of a party. After a short visit to her, Louis XV. dressed as usual, and the day after he began his usual life of hunting and of suppers in the *petits appartements*. "The pious cabal was disappointed; the Marquise became stronger than ever." Machault and D'Argenson were exiled from court.

Cheverny became very ill in 1757 and was threatened with consumption; the doctors sent him to the South; the account of his journey has no great interest. We find him again at his post with the Court in 1758. When M. de Stainville was made Minister in the place of M. de Bernis, the first day that he entered the Council-room he took, by the King's order, the first place; the other ministers seemed astonished. "Sire," said Stainville, "these gentlemen——" "They have nothing to say about it; I make you Duke and Peer." From this time, Stainville was called Duc de Choiseul. A great intimacy sprang up between him and Mme. de Pompadour. Choiseul was as magnificent in his ministry as he had been in his embassies. No minister ever carried his official style of living to such a pitch. "At that time people dined at two o'clock precisely, and all the foreigners who had been presented, all the courtiers, were admitted to his table. His great table had thirty-five covers, and there was a second one all ready. A servant counted the people who came in, and as soon as the number exceeded thirty-five the second table was spread. His silver, which was extremely abundant, was superb." The court became very brilliant during his ministry; balls, suppers, theatrical representations became the order of the day. The favor of Choiseul was supreme; his sister, the Comtesse de Choiseul, Canoness of Remiremont (an abbey of noble ladies, to enter which it was necessary to prove so many quarters of nobility without a flaw, and which the Princesses of Bourbon could not enter), never rose for anybody, not even for Ambassadors. "If a door was open, you heard her say with a firm voice, 'Ambassador of Spain, shut that door,'" and he shut it respectfully. Choiseul married his sister to the Duc de Gramont. He was greatly attached to her, and she became the real mistress of his house, as his own wife was very timid and complacent. The nephew of the Minister, the Duc de Lauzun, made his début at Court, and his name was soon in everybody's mouth. He became the friend and companion of the Duc de Chartres.

Cheverny's life was less agitated than that of Lauzun and his boon companions. He had among his friends some literary men—Sedaine, for instance—even an actor, the famous singer Jolyotte; he saw the members of the diplomatic corps, with whom his functions brought him in contact; his wife received every day; she had a supper in her own house once a week, and supped out three times a week. Cheverny hunted in the forest of Senart regularly with the Prince of Conti's equipage. At every page of his memoirs, you cannot help being struck by the sociability of the French in the eighteenth century; people seemed to live only for each other. There are no general or philosophical remarks; not a word of politics except where politics affects the status of his friends. Life was, so to speak, theatrical, and every actor tried to look his best and to play the most amusing part.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS AMENDMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The large vote in opposition to the Constitutional Amendment in Massachusetts may not be such a "mystery" as you suppose on p. 465. Probably many of the 68,045 who voted against it did so, as I certainly did, for the reason that it seemed to them not undesirable that the Governor of the State should have more at stake in its welfare than the mere payment of a poll-tax implies.

Yours truly,
William S. Appleton.

Boston, December 22, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think it is admitted that persons familiar with the "Yes" and "No" at the foot of the ballot, supposed they were voting on the liquor question. I have found several such.

S.

Boston, December 24, 1892.

LORD LOFTUS'S 'DIPLOMATIC REMINISCENCES.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading the review which appeared in a recent number of the *Nation* of Lord Augustus Loftus's 'Diplomatic Reminiscences,' I took up the book and chanced to light upon a sin of omission committed in the third chapter of the first volume. In the author's roster of the diplomatic body stationed at Berlin in 1837, no mention is made of the United States representatives. This oversight would not be notable if the list did not contain names of no more importance, and, in some cases, of far less importance, than those of the diplomatists accredited from Washington. Of course Lord Loftus gives precedence to the envoys of the great European Powers; but when he remembers the Dutch General "who fought at Waterloo"; the Neapolitan Baron who was "very agreeable, with some humor and wit and of course devoted to the cause of absolutism"; the Sardinian Count who, with his wife, "dispensed their hospitalities with grace and cordiality"; and the Swedish Minister who "was distinguished on all Oriental subjects" — one cannot help asking how he forgot our own Minister, Henry Wheaton. For, even before being sent to Berlin, Mr. Wheaton had been the American representative at the Danish Court, and had published twelve volumes of Supreme Court Reports and two of his able works on international law.

And as Lord Loftus also speaks of several of the Secretaries of Legation, it is, further, somewhat surprising that he passes over in silence the then Secretary of the United States Legation, Theodore S. Fay, especially as Mr. Fay had published three or four volumes of fiction before he arrived in Berlin, and was the associate and friend of George P. Morris and N. P. Willis, and so must have been congenial to Lord Loftus, who was "fond of reading and of literature," as he himself tells us two or three times.

When this matter was pointed out to Lord Loftus, he replied by letter as follows:

"I am glad that you have called my attention to my omission in not mentioning the name of Mr. Wheaton, the representative of the United States at Berlin in 1837. It was certainly not done intentionally, but by inadvertence. We were on intimate terms of friendship, and I had the greatest regard and admiration for him, as well as for his kind and amiable family. It is not necessary for me to mention his high order of abilities. The world is fully cognizant of them through his valuable work on international law, which is the guiding element of modern diplomacy; and his name will be handed down to future generations with those of his renowned predecessors, Grotius, Puffendorf, and Vattel.

"I knew Mr. Fay for some years at Berlin. He was an estimable colleague and much liked. He was also a man of letters, and if I mistake not, wrote a very pretty novel on the subject of duelling."

Theodore Stanton.

Paris, December 8, 1892.

Notes.

Prof. J. K. Hosmer, Librarian of the Public Library at Minneapolis, is engaged upon a Life of Thomas Hutchinson, Governor of Massachusetts Bay and historian of the colony, whose Diary and Letters have been published by a descendant and are essential to any proper study of the Revolution. Prof. Hosmer, already known as the biographer of Sir Harry Vane, has examined all the Hutchinson MSS. available in this country, together with much other unpublished matter pertinent to the Governor and his time.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'Bible Studies,' being readings in the early books of the Old Testament, with familiar comment, given by Henry Ward Beecher in his Sunday evening services in 1878–'79.

About five years ago there was begun in Calcutta a translation of the greatest Indian epic, the 'Mahâbhârata.' Since then the work has gone steadily forward, the publication being in monthly parts, and is now approaching completion. The favor with which it has been received has doubtless had something to do with a recent similar undertaking. The first three numbers of an English translation of 'Charaka-Samhitâ,' the most ancient known Indian work on medicine, are now ready for distribution to subscribers. Aside from its general value as a contribution to our knowledge of the state of India while it was as yet almost unknown to Europeans, the work cannot fail to excite the interest of physicians and students. The translation is issued in monthly parts, and will probably be completed within four years. The price of subscription in the United States is £3, which may be sent in one remittance or in four instalments to the publisher and translator, Abinash Chandra Kaviratna, No. 200 Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

A real want of the library is satisfied by Mr. Charles G. Crump's 'Poems, Dialogues in Verse, and Epigrams by Walter Savage Landor,' in two handsome volumes (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The verse of Landor is voluminous, and is not now accessible in a complete state. The present edition, though it contains a large quantity of his work, is a selection, and furnishes, of course, the best of it, both dramatic and lyric. It is significant of the neglect of Landor that here is to be found, for the first time since the original appearance of the poem in 1802, a part of "The Phocæans." An introduction is given by the editor, and there is the usual amount of bibliographical and other notes. In default of a complete edition, the present serves as a practical equivalent.

Howell's 'Epistolæ Ho-Elianæ,' or 'Familiar Letters,' which holds an exceptional place in the regard of literary men, has at last found a competent editor in Joseph Jacobs, who publishes the work in two elegant volumes (London: David Nutt), and annotates it with such a body of notes as can be gathered only by the labor of years. The introduction is one of those exhaustive monographs that are final, and leaves to the future only the possible correction of obscure details. The editor leaves the authenticity of the letters "still half in shadow," but thinks that it can fairly be accepted till disproved. In his efforts to explain allusions and identify persons he has been successful, but a few of these have refused to yield even to such careful and minute inquiry. Of the letters themselves it is superfluous to speak, as they are so well known favorites for the recreation of the leisurely reader and have been praised by the lovers of entertainment, notably by Thackeray, in a way to attract all to whose tastes they would naturally appeal. The present edition displaces all others as the standard form of this classic.

John Selden's 'Table Talk' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) has received similar editorial care from the hands of Mr. Samuel Harvey Reynolds. His introduction and notes show the same exacting standard of exhaustive treatment, and the text, moreover, has been revised and brought to as much perfection as is possible. The editor has used in correction of the old text the two Harleian and the Sloane MSS., and has followed especially the Harleian MS. 1315. He gives notice of all textual alterations of importance based on such sources, and also of other changes which he has felt at liberty to make in correction of obvious errors. The edition is thus, if not one that establishes the text beyond doubt, a scholarly and faithful one, and laboriously done, and must be consulted as the highest authority in respect to the work of Selden.

The "Cambridge Shakespeare" (Macmillan), of the successive issues of which we have taken occasion to speak with especial recommendation on the ground of its cheapness as a great standard edition, nears its completion with the eighth volume, containing "Lear," "Othello," "Antony and Cleopatra," and "Cymbeline." The public are to be congratulated on such an opportunity to purchase at a reasonable rate so excellent an edition of the greatest and most fruitful of English books.

Several works bearing on Lord Chesterfield, which have appeared in a brief time, seem to show a vitality in his literary reputation that is on the whole surprising. The late edition by Dr. John Bradshaw, 'The Letters of Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, with the Characters, edited with Introduction, Notes, and Index,' in three bulky volumes (Scribners), professes to give a few new letters, and promises more to come from the Newcastle correspondence. Some of the earlier letters are omitted on the score of their lack of interest, and all have been "edited" in respect to phrase with a view to their being read in mixed company, though why these letters should be supposed likely to be used for such entertainment passes comprehension. The edition is thus neither complete nor accurate, nor is it up to the mark of excellence in other ways; and as other editions, with which it would not suffer comparison on the scholarly side, are in the market, there seems no good reason for its existence.

'The Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay (Frances Burney)' (Frederick Warne & Co.) is edited, with notes and Macaulay's essay, by Mr. W. C. Ward, in three handy volumes. The edition is not complete, but contains a selection from the full work, and is meant as a popular abridgment, giving the more entertaining passages. It would have been more frank, to say the least, to have stated the fact that it is a selection upon the title-page, as the unliterary purchaser might easily be deceived as to just what he is buying.

Mr. George Saintsbury issues in the "Pocket Library" a welcome selection of 'Elizabethan and Jacobean Pamphlets' (Macmillan). He includes one each by Lodge, Lyly, Breton, Greene, Harvey, Nash, and Dekker. Greene's "Groat's Worth of Wit" is especially welcome, because of its bearing on Shakspere and the desirability of having it within reach of college students, under the newer methods of literature-teaching here; and Lodge's "Reply to Gosson" and Dekker's "Gull's Hornbook" are also likely to be used, each in its own way. The publication, which is cheap and convenient, confers an obligation on those students who are out of the reach of the older

and rare reprints, and illustrates for them an important phase of Elizabethan literature and life.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole edits a small popular volume of the 'Selected Poems of Robert Burns,' with a biographical sketch and notes (T. Y. Crowell). The number of poems included is large, in proportion to the size of the book, and the selections could not go far wrong; the notes are in the main of dates, places, and persons, and the biography is of the scissory kind. A few illustrations are given, but the volume will not be sought for their sake.

'The Best Letters of Percy B. Shelley, edited with an introduction by Shirley Carter Hughson' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), is a collection of 119 letters of the poet, and, notwithstanding the title, professes to include practically all his correspondence. As Shelley's letters are scattered through many publications, it is not surprising that some, and those of the "best," should have escaped notice; but the collection is a fairly adequate one, and enables the public to obtain in a convenient and cheap form the best of Shelley's prose, which is to be found in these familiar letters to his friends. They are, indeed, among the most delightful letters of the century.

If school-books could help criticism, there would be every reason to expect a renaissance of the art, for there has been an unusual amount of republication of books on the principles of criticism in the last two years. 'Wordsworth's Prefaces and Essays on Poetry, with Letter to Lady Beaumont (1798–1845), edited with Introduction and Notes by A. J. George' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is the latest of these little reprints, and is well edited, with a survey of illustrative passages from other authors. Of the writers so cited we observe that out of thirty-four, not all eminent, only three are American. Prof. Albert S. Cook's 'Art of Poetry: the Poetical Treatises of Horace, Vida, and Boileau, with the translations by Howes, Pitt, and Soame' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is an attempt of the same sort at the inculcation of critical precept. The introduction and notes are serviceable, and the volume will be found a convenient text-book for use or reference in colleges where the subject is taught.

'Six Centuries of English Poetry, from Tennyson to Chaucer: Typical Selections from the Great Poets, by James Baldwin' (Silver, Burdett & Co.), is a text-book that has a curious effect of progressing backwards like a crab as one turns its pages. The inversion of the title is justified by the contents. It is somewhat startling, but may be significant, that Byron is omitted from the list of the *dii majores*, which consists for our century of Tennyson, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, and Keats. Notes that can only be described as pedagogic are given in abundance, and the references are largely to English critics of the second or a lower class. The sort of teaching suggested by the book is an advance on the old methods, but illustrates the breaking up of conservatism rather than the coming of the new education.

The 'Browning Year-Book' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) is a handy volume of its kind, with quotations for each day of the year, which are to be read as on a calendar. The obvious criticism is that, while one may tear off the leaf of the calendar day by day and be saluted with a verse for a moment, it is not to be expected that one will take up a book and read a line without anticipating time and reading on. The volume amounts to no more than a disjointed collection of disjointed thoughts.

The holiday edition of Page's popular story, 'Marse Chan' (Scribners), with the illustrations of Smedley, is a beautifully printed and attractive volume, in which the refined and finished workmanship of the artist is as noticeable, and the harmony of his designs with the general temper of the text as praiseworthy, as is the literary merit of the familiar tale which is illustrated. The separate publication of the story in such a shape is one sign more that 'Marse Chan' will go into the catalogue of our most successful and characteristic American short stories, which live by their own right.

The topography of literature is an interesting subject, and occasionally it affords a good book, a narrative of literary pilgrimages or a description of the landscapes of poets; but seldom does it happen that the geography of genius is so elaborately set forth, and so pleasantly, with a touch of antiquarianism and of literary worship, and especially with the feeling of local attachment, as in Mr. J. A. Erskine Stuart's 'The Literary Shrines of Yorkshire: the Literary Pilgrim in the Dales' (Longmans). Yorkshire has had a long and notable connection with literature in England, and has found in Mr. Stuart a chronicler of the best sort. The volume is, of course, illustrated with portraits, views, and sketches, to bring the country and its people before the eye, and the text goes from watershed to watershed with the disposition to take each village at its historic and intellectual best, as is right; and one of the results is that impression of the wealth of the past in England which is commonly felt in respect to history, but less in respect to literature. A list of subscribers at the end gives an old-fashioned quality to the volume which is in complete harmony with its subject, its manner, and its cuts.

Edinburgh has had chroniclers of all sorts in plenty, but the city holds its personal charm, and Mr. Masson's last bulky volume, 'Edinburgh: Sketches and Memories' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), gathers up what he has written of it through many years pleasantly to the reader. Its literary history is briefly reviewed in the last paper, and its prospect of a library for all Scotland there dwelt on is a sign that it may have a future as well as a past. Sir Walter Scott and Carlyle, Dr. John Brown, Queen Mary, Dundas are the names that are most prominent on the pages; and, lacking a local history, one may survey Edinburgh life in these successive essays as a continuous story, with a strong sense of its significance as well as of its picturesqueness.

Mr. Austin Dobson has collected, under the title 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), a number of brief sketches of men and things of the last century, which he contributed to the *Christian Union*, and has added a few from other places of publication. They are light as thistledown, and as graceful in their sailing down the air of fame; but their appearances or disappearances are not matters of moment. The dozen portraits are an ornament to the prettily bound book.

The amount of gossip in a century is generally believed to be large, and that which gets into books is not inconsiderable; but the quantity of it may be better suspected if one takes up the two great volumes which appear entitled 'Gossip of the Century: Personal and Traditional Memories—Social, Literary, Artistic, (Macmillan). The work, which is ponderous in everything but thought, is a rambling encyclopædia of memoirs, biographies, and cognate books on courts and professions and everybody who was nobody, all arranged with agreeable variety and vivacity. The historic and literary portions are tolerably familiar to readers, but the mass of matter upon music, dancing, acting, painting, and sculpture is treasure-trove for those who have interest in the contemporary history of these arts. Personality is naturally a leading interest, and anecdotes are the pabulum of arrested oblivion in this case. Cuts, some of them with the value of curiosity, are sprinkled over the pages, and an index makes accessible what inquisitiveness will like to dip into, but only senility has time to read.

'Calidore, and Miscellanea' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is the ninth volume in Dr. Garnett's popular edition of Peacock's novels, and brings the series pleasantly to an end. "The Four Ages of Poetry," interesting as having given occasion for Shelley's 'Defence,' is one of the miscellaneous pieces included, and "Horæ Dramaticæ" gives an example of Peacock's scholarship. Sir Edward Strachey contributes a short paper of reminiscences of Peacock as he appeared to his schoolboy eyes and was traditionally known by family anecdote, written with admirable feeling and wholly honorable to Peacock's kindlier side.

Dr. Francis E. Abbot's 'Way Out of Agnosticism' has been translated, from the second edition, into German by Dr. Hermann Schönfeld of the Columbian University at Washington, and published in Berlin under the title, 'Der Weg aus dem Agnosticismus; oder die Philosophie der freien Religion.'

'The Memorial Volume on the Centennial of Washington's Inauguration' published by the Messrs. Appleton finds, as well it may, a steady demand. The remainder of the thousand copies once disposed of, the plates will be destroyed. The volume is rich in historic narrative and in portraiture.

Parts 8 and 9 of the great Atlas to accompany the official records of the Union and Confederate armies, in course of publication by the War Department, comprise maps of the scene of operations in the Gulf, along the Mississippi, by Vicksburg, at Gettysburg (one after a clever horseback reconnaissance), before Petersburg, at Chancellorsville and Fredericksburg, at Harper's Ferry, at Winchester, in Charleston harbor, etc. These maps, sketches, memoranda, profiles, etc., form an invaluable body of evidence for the student of the civil war.

The *School Review*, edited by President Schurman of Cornell, will appear next month, and will be devoted entirely to the field of secondary education. An "outlook article" is promised for each month, and this survey of notable occurrences will be followed by original articles, signed reviews of current educational literature, and summaries of articles in foreign periodicals. The department of reviews will be watched with interest, since it is apt to be the weak point in educational journals. Dr. Frank Thilly, Ithaca, N. Y., is the managing editor and publisher.

The quarterly publication of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, known as the *Technology Quarterly*, has heretofore had no official relation to that great school. It is now to be adopted by the Society of Arts and to contain the Proceedings of that body, and will be used to foster the interest of the alumni in their alma mater.

Worthington's Illustrated Magazine and Literary Treasury is a new candidate for public favor, which has been founded in Hartford,

Conn. It has nothing individual as yet in its conception.

There is nothing better about *Vogue*, the "new weekly illustrated society journal of fashion" and ceremonial than its typographical good looks. It belongs in the same family with *Life*. It is published at No. 61 Union Place, New York.

The December number of the Brooklyn *Packer Alumna* is entitled to the credit of calling attention, in its book reviews, to a certain G. E. Lessing—presumably a German—who, it seems, has produced an unusually clever treatise upon the limits of painting and poetry, under the title of "Laocoon." "By illustrations from ancient art and literature," says the reviewer, "by quotations from classic and modern critics, Mr. Lessing illustrates the realms of poetry and art, where they unite and where diverge, and with his keen insight make [probably a mere slip for *makes*] both art and literature of greater value to the reader." It seems that Mr. Lessing's work has before this been introduced to English readers, for the well-informed reviewer speaks of the present as "this new English translation." Mr. Lessing is evidently a writer of genuine promise, who is destined to make his way and to be heard from again.

At the first meeting of the French Academy in the present month, it was decided that the three chairs then vacant should be filled by an election on February 2. Since then another seat has become empty. At present only the following candidates have announced themselves: M. Berthelot, for the chair of Renan; M. Thureau-Dangin, for that of Camille Rousset; MM. Henri de Bornier, de la Villeherve, and Gilbert-Augustin Thierry, for that of Marmier. Zola is a candidate for all three of the chairs, and has, one would think, a likelihood of obtaining one of them. The French mind is not so dull as to miss the amusing side of the spectacle which the Academy presents with the author of 'Madame Chrysanthème' inside it, while the author of the 'Débâcle' is excluded.

—While the *American Meteorological Journal* for December embraces articles of undoubted value upon electrical storms, automatic rain gauges, and sunshine recorders, investigation of thunder-storms, and the remarkable aurora of last July, one short letter from Mr. W. T. Blythe, an observer of the U. S. Weather Bureau, contains more of merely popular interest than all these scientific articles together. During last August Mr. Blythe made careful observations of the temperature of the sea-water at Atlantic City, with the result that the direction of the wind appears to be a most important factor in the varying heat and cold of the water. For instance, on August 12, the wind had been blowing southwest for forty-eight hours, during which the temperature of both air and water rose continually. A change to the west and northwest caused a fall of nearly ten degrees in the water-temperature, while the warmth of the air remained almost the same. Mr. Blythe think it quite possible, from a series of observations during successive years, to predict very accurately the bathing conditions for twenty-four or even forty-eight hours in advance. The fact that the daily newspapers published the data regularly, and many of the principal hotels and bath-houses called for them daily, and kept them posted in bulletin form for the information of their patrons; and also that each of the two commercial and two railroad telegraph companies called for and distributed the data free to principal points on their lines throughout Pennsylvania and New Jersey, seems to be sufficient evidence that the information was sought after by the public. Another correspondent of the *Journal*, in a following communication, calls attention to the peculiar instinct for foretelling weather-conditions possessed by certain animals. Snails, for instance, are not often seen abroad except before rain, when certain species are noticed to present an unusual yellowish appearance (which becomes bluish after the rain), and some of them, in anticipation of moisture, expose certain indentations to collect it. Spiders sometimes make changes in their web before a storm, apparently to protect it from damage. It would seem that further investigation along these suggestive, if humble, lines may not be beneath the notice of the weather forecaster.

—*Polybiblion* records a contribution to the Homeric question which is too good to be left buried among its Notes. The Abbé Fourrière has attempted to demonstrate that Homer is a plagiarist, that he copied or travestied the Bible. *Polybiblion* called the Abbé's parallelisms "mere superficial and valueless coincidences." The Abbé, replying in the *Revue d'Exégèse Mythologique*, complained that his reviewer had not quoted any examples. He had better have kept silent; for the four which *Polybiblion* then quoted could not be surpassed for absurdity and inconclusiveness even by Ignatius Donnelly and Mrs. Pott:

Song of Solomon, iii, 1. By night on my bed I sought him whom my soul loveth; I sought him *and found him not.*	*Iliad*, 6:369. So spake the plumed Hector, and withdrew, And reached his pleasant palace, *but found not* White-armed Andromache within.
iii, 2. My beloved *is gone down into his garden.*	381. For she *Was in the tower.*
Kings vii, 28. And the work of the bases was on this manner. They had *borders*, and the borders were between the ledges. 29. . . . . There were lions, oxen, *and cherubim.*	11:34. On its disk Were twenty *bosses* of white tin, and one Of tawny bronze just in the midst, where glared *A Gorgon's head* with angry eyes.
Joel, ii, 8. And the Lord shall *utter his voice.*	11:10. *Loud was the voice*, and terrible, in which she [Strife] shouted from her station to the Greeks.

—The third volume to appear in the International Theological Library is 'Apologetics,' by Prof. A. B. Bruce (Scribner). It is pitched in a moderate key throughout, and departs so far from both the methods and results of the traditional works of its class, which smite the unbeliever hip and thigh, that it will doubtless draw more than one protest against *istis defensoribus* from those who would see Agag hewed into smaller pieces. Prof. Bruce fairly warns off in his preface "dogmatic believers" who would have their faith triumphantly defended at all possible points of assault, as also "dogmatic unbelievers," whom he refuses to attempt to convince or confound, preferring to address himself to "men whose sympathies are with Christianity, but whose faith is stifled or weakened by anti-Christian prejudices of varied nature and origin." This aim determines the tone and method of the book. There is no fresh threshing out of the philosophical difficulties which underlie all theological difficulties, there is no discussion of inspiration, prophecy, or the canon, there is no running amuck with modern science, but a patient and scholarly presentation of Christianity under aspects best fitted to commend it to "ingenuous and truth-loving minds." The ordinary theistic arguments are passed in review, only to bring up with the comment: "It would seem as if the way of wisdom were to abstain from all attempts at proving the divine existence, and, assuming as a datum *that* God is, to restrict our inquiries to *what* He is" (p. 158). In the chapters which relate to the Scriptures, the point of view is that of one frankly accepting the main results of modern Biblical criticism. The philosophical and scientific difficulties connected with the miraculous are expressly waived as a question which "cannot be gone into here," and the frank confession is made that "miracles cannot be offered as evidences of Christianity now with the confidence" of "a past age." Prof. Bruce has brought sound learning and conscientiousness to his task, and has shown how, at least in his own case, a devout and manly faith is consistent with the abandonment of much that the vast majority of Christian apologists would still call essential to Christianity.

—A handful of theological books of an apologetic tenor must be yet more briefly dismissed. Canon Driver's 'Sermons on Subjects Connected with the Old Testament' (London: Methuen) is intended to show how criticism may be made to subserve devotional ends. It seems to us, however, that the scholar gets the better of the preacher, and that the pious exhortations tacked on his discussions show as manifest a cleavage as used to appear between the body and the epilogue of the Bridgewater Treatises. Sermons, or, as he calls them, "lectures," Mr. Gore also brings in his 'The Mission of the Church' (Scribner). We do not see that he accomplishes much more than, on the one hand, to assert that the duty of the time is "to be more true to our own principles, and to teach with more positive plainness what the Church commissions us to teach," and, on the other, to say he is "thankful the Church of England did not commit herself," as many of her articles are "studiedly vague." From Macmillan we have the latest volumes of Prof. Ryle. 'The Canon of the Old Testament' is perhaps sufficiently characterized by saying that it was quoted by Prof. Briggs in his defence against charges of heresy as in agreement with his well-known positions. 'The Early Narratives of Genesis' is a discussion of the first eleven chapters of Genesis from the standpoint of the new criticism, and particularly of comparative religion. The Hulsean Professor of Divinity seems almost afraid of his own conclusions, and this gives his pages an air of apology in the ordinary sense of the word. In 'Creation of the Bible,' by Myron Adams (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we have an untechnical and rather tiresome setting forth of the later views of the nature and history of the literature of the Bible. One judgment of the author's ought to win general assent: "There is no entirely good reason why we should be more stupid about the Bible than about any other book."

—Of recent books setting forth in popular form the results of Hexateuch analysis, the most readable is 'The Documents of the Hexateuch' (London: D. Nutt; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), by Mr. W. E. Addis of Balliol College, Oxford. The number of such works now being published is proof of the general interest in the subject. Kautzsch and Socin in Germany, and Bacon and Bissell in this country (the former with friendly, the latter with hostile intent), have made the constitution of Genesis accessible to the lay public. Mr. Addis undertakes what had not been attempted before, to give the text of each of the great constituent parts of the Hexateuch. The present volume (Part i. of the whole work) contains the "oldest book of Hebrew history," the picturesque and vivid prophetic narrative in which are found those sto-

ries that have made the Hexateuch a religious classic. It is itself composite, being made up, according to the received view, out of two documents which, from the divine names they use, are termed the Yahwistic and the Elohistic; the first of these is here printed in ordinary type, the second in italics. We thus have a clear and agreeable page, with sufficient distinction of the documents for the general reader. In the Introduction, Mr. Addis gives a short history of the criticism of the Hexateuch, and in foot-notes explains and supports his translations and divisions. He follows the majority of critics in assigning the prophetic history (commonly marked J E) to the eighth century B. C. This may be accepted for the greater part of the Hexateuch, but there are strong grounds for putting the prophetic element in Gen. ii.—xi. later. Apart from this and other questions of special criticism, Mr. Addis's book will be welcomed by those who wish to see the form in which the old history was known and stated in the times of Amos and Isaiah, before the priestly additions (Gen. i. and other chapters) were incorporated into the text.

—Our Scotch friends have already read us a lesson in the treatment of women by their three great Universities of St. Andrews, Edinburgh, and Glasgow; and now they come forward to show us what they can accomplish in the way of pounds, shillings, and pence when they set their shoulders to the wheel in behalf of a popular cause. On the 22d of November a grand bazaar for the benefit of the endowment fund of Queen Margaret College (whose incorporation with the University of Glasgow was some time ago mentioned in these columns) was opened in St. Andrews Halls, Glasgow. Although the bazaar occupied not one but a succession of halls, the largest in Glasgow, the throng of visitors had, by the fourth evening, become so dense that it was necessary to close the doors about half an hour after opening, and to keep them closed for the rest of the evening. Immense quantities of goods of all sorts—work, curiosities, books, and pictures—were contributed by students, past and present, and by the best known people of Glasgow and the West of Scotland. The Queen was the patron, the Marchioness of Lorne the president, while the list of the seventy and odd vice-patrons looks like nothing so much as a page out of Burke's 'Peerage,' so profusely are titles strewn up and down it. The bazaar was opened on the first day by the Lord Provost of Glasgow; on the second, by Lady Alice Shaw Stewart; on the third, by the Principal of the University; on the fourth, by Mrs. Elder, the munificent donor of the buildings of Queen Margaret College; and on the fifth and last day, by the M. P. for the University. To come to the main question, the sum taken in during these five days and evenings reached the magnificent figure of £12,000, with a plus sign to be added. From this sum about £1,500 will have to be deducted for expenses. There will remain, however, when all is told, over £10,000, which the organizers of the bazaar, who have been at work for about a year and a half, will have the enviable pleasure of handing over to the University Court—the body that had so memorably taken the lead in generosity by incorporating Queen Margaret College while the precise figure of her endowment was still trembling in the balance.

—A correspondent writes us from London:

"The Independent Theatre Society of London has at length taken the first step toward the fulfilment of the object for which it was established. It has produced an original drama by an Englishman—or, in this case it would be more correct to say, by an Irishman. 'Widowers' Houses,' by Mr. George Bernard Shaw, was the play given at the second performance of the Society's second season, on December 9, at the little Royalty Theatre in Soho. But this first experiment makes one wonder if henceforth the Society will not do better—artistically at least—by continuing to devote itself to English adaptations of French masterpieces, or even the revival of old English tragedies and comedies. Mr. Shaw certainly is not the young dramatic genius for whom all England has been waiting, but who has been forced hitherto by prejudiced Philistine managers to hide his light. That the author of the 'Quintessence of Ibsenism' should have studied the methods of Ibsen is but natural. It is unfortunate, however, that he limited his study to the preaching proclivities of the master, rather than to his unquestionable dramatic ability. 'Widowers' Houses' is a lesson in economics, an essay on Socialism—it would serve admirably as a lecture at a Fabian or Trafalgar Square Meeting; it is anything but a play. Mr. Shaw's intention, as he explained it in a speech after the performance, was to give a picture of English middle-class life in all its ugliness and sordidness. But if in this he is thought to have succeeded, his 'didactic' comedy, as he calls it, is simply another proof that in art, dramatic or otherwise, something more than a 'human document' is needed; the play, in the manner of Ibsen, is all talk and no action. Mr. Shaw is a very clever man, and the dialogue is relieved by touches of humor and whimsical absurdities which go far to relieve its tediousness, and to place it on a much higher literary plane than the work of a Henry Arthur Jones, for example. Moreover, the plot and characters not making such large demands upon the players as the 'Duchess of Malfi,' given at the first performance, the piece was fairly well rendered, and has brought conspicuously before the public one actor, Mr. James Welch, of more than ordinary talent, who, it is certain, will be heard of again as a comedian. The first night's performance was received with mingled feelings. The artistic element in the audience was bored; the socialistic element was enchanted. But with opposition so strong, and with labor organs praising his drama with fulsome flattery as a great social factor, there is every chance of Mr. Shaw's becoming an English Ibsen."

—The question of the origin and the mode of formation of the perfume of flowers has long been earnestly debated amongst botanists without ever being satisfactorily solved. In a paper lately read before the Académie des Sciences, M. Ménard, a young French student of botany, set forth the results of his investigation of the subject, which appear to be more than usually happy. By minute microscopic study of the constituent parts of flowers, he has made out that the essential oils which give off perfume have for their chosen seat the inner surface of the calyx and the corolla. On the outer surface they are rarely found, while, on the other hand, colored pigments, and the tannin which serves to form them, abound. Following out the development of flowers, M. Ménard finds in the chlorophyll, the green coloring matter contained in leaf cells, the source of all these products. It is first transformed into glucosides, substances analogous to tannin. On the outer surface of the flower, where these glucosides are exposed to light and air, they serve as materials for the production of pigments and tannin; on the inner side, protected in the bud, they are transformed into essential oils, which are strongly oxydized at the moment of bloom, and thus disengage their perfume. The fragrance is fine in proportion as the essential oil is pure; that is to say, in proportion as it is free from secondary products derived from the chlorophyll. This explains why white flowers are generally fragrant, while green ones are odorless, and those of the composite family, rich in tannin, are often disagreeable.

—It is a pleasure to notice that the method of exact philological research which has distinguished the work of German literary historians in nearly every domain save that of nineteenth-century literature is beginning to make itself felt in this branch of study also. Seuffert's careful analysis of the 'Nordseebilder,' Elster's admirable Heine edition, Koch's Lenau studies, Litzmann's 'Zeitschrift für Theatergeschichte,' are unmistakable symptoms of a turning of the tide in this direction. And a recent Freiburg doctor's dissertation on Michael Beer, which lies before us, goes to show that even the minor lights of modern literature are now dealt with at German universities in the same spirit of patient and impartial investigation as the ancient or mediæval classics. The author, Dr. Gustav Manz, a pupil of Hermann Paul and Max Koch, promises us, as a continuation of the present thesis, a comprehensive biography of Beer. What he gives here is in the main an analysis of his first dramas, above all of the "Paria." Michael Beer, a brother of the composer Meyerbeer, has left no lasting impression on German literature. He was a man of noble instincts and versatile talents, but he lacked originality. In form as well as in substance he was an imitator of the great eighteenth-century classics. Heine said of him, "He will be immortal as long as he lives"; and although this bitter judgment was dictated by personal jealousy of Beer's extraordinary outward success as a playwright, it is in the main correct. Nevertheless, Beer's career is far from being without interest. No one represents better than he the literary culture and cosmopolitan freedom which, during the first quarter of this century, emanated from the Jewish circles of the Prussian capital; and, with the exception of Heine and Auerbach, no Jewish writer has been received more readily and sympathetically by the German public than he. His "Paria," which during the twenties was one of the favorite plays of the German stage, stands midway between Lessing's "Nathan" and Gutzkow's "Uriel Acosta." Like the former, it preaches the gospel of humanity and toleration; like the latter, it presents a harrowing picture of the evils of caste and prejudice; and if it is inferior to either in dramatic force, it certainly will remain a remarkable document in the history of intellectual emancipation. It is to be hoped that Dr. Manz will make good his promise and give us an authentic account of the poet's life.

WRIGHT'S MAN AND THE GLACIAL PERIOD.

Man and the Glacial Period. By G. Frederick Wright. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co.

THE present volume has much in common with the author's 'Ice Age in North America.' Its scope is stated to be the question of "man's entire relation to the glacial period in Europe as well as in America," and its professed purpose is to give "a clear view of the present state of progress in one department of the inquiries concerning man's antiquity." The earlier chapters are intended to supply the geological information necessary to an appreciation of the evidence bearing on man's relation to the ice epoch. The first contribution to this end is a series of definitions which, unfortunately, are largely incorrect or incomplete. A glacier is defined to be "a mass of ice so situated and of such size as to have motion in itself" (p. 2). The definition of *névé* is embodied in the following: "Upon ascending

a glacier far enough, one reaches a motionless part corresponding to the lake out of which a river often flows. Technically, this motionless part is called the *névé*" (p. 3). The one definition is inadequate, as short definitions are almost sure to be, while the other is altogether wrong. *Névé* and *motion* stand in no necessary relation to each other. In point of fact, *névé* is not a "motionless part," but moves along with the rest of a glacier. To this "motionless" *névé* is ascribed the function of generating the impulse which sets the glacier in motion. How a motionless body is to generate motion, we do not comprehend.

To a proper understanding of the relation of human relics to the formations of glacial age an accurate knowledge of glacial formations, and a detailed as well as a general conception of glacial history, are indispensable. The chapter to which we turn for this information contains many details concerning the work done by our author in Pennsylvania many years since, while he was the late Prof. Lewis's assistant. These details, some of which have no bearing on the theme announced in the preface, can hardly do more than confuse the lay reader, while they add nothing to the knowledge of the expert. The minute definition of the position of the terminal moraine in Pennsylvania is followed by the definition of the position of the outer limit of drift in Ohio and the States further west, without clear indication that the one line is not the continuation of the other. The westward continuation of the moraine of Pennsylvania is found to lie a considerable distance north of the outer limit of glacial drift. This fact is full of meaning for the theme Prof. Wright discusses, but of its significance we find nothing, and the non-scientific reader will hardly be able to apprehend the true relation of things. Prof. Wright has long held that when the ice of the glacial period reached and crossed the Ohio River near Cincinnati, it constituted a dam behind which the waters of the Ohio accumulated, forming a lake. At first thought such an hypothesis seems altogether credible. But critical examination has shown that the two main lines of evidence relied upon by the advocates of the ice-dam hypothesis have been misinterpreted. It has been clearly pointed out on the one hand that the terraces of the upper branches of the Ohio could not have been produced by the supposed lake, even if it existed. It has been shown on the other hand that the silts supposed to have been deposited in the conjectured lake *above* the alleged dam, are continuous with deposits at similar levels *below* the dam. It follows that if the ice dam were responsible for the waters which deposited the silt, it must have had the remarkable ability of ponding the waters of the Ohio below as well as above itself. The published evidence on this latter point bearing against the author's conclusion is not considered.

Were the evidence of glacial man all that Prof. Wright believes it to be, one of the geological questions which most vitally affect its interpretation is the question of one versus multiple ice-epochs. When glacial studies began to be actively prosecuted in America, less than a score of years ago, the chapter of geological history with which they dealt was considered so remarkable that all effort was directed toward proving or disproving the reality of continental glaciation. We believe it was not until the general fact of continental glaciation had been measurably demonstrated that the question of more than one epoch of glaciation was seriously considered. It then became evident to the leaders in this field of geology that certain phenomena suggested two glaciations instead of one. Thus arose the hypothesis that, after one protracted advance of the ice, there followed a genial interval, during which the ice receded far to the north, and that subsequently it re-advanced, overriding and burying or destroying the evidences of its first incursion and retreat. So soon as this possibility was clearly conceived it gave new impetus to observation, with the result that the belief in two glaciations has come to be general. There are still dissenters from the doctrine of two glaciations, just as there were for a long time, and indeed as there are still, dissenters from the idea of even one. But the set has been steadily toward the acceptance of the doctrine of recurring glaciations. In 1891 the notion was distinctly announced in America that our drift phenomena may require the recognition of more than two glacial epochs, and already this suggestion finds favor among some of our leaders in glaciology, both here and abroad. In the face of this condition of opinion in Europe and America, we have a book, purporting to set forth the "present state of progress," which advocates the ideas that were generally held by glacialists in the days of the infancy of glacial geology. It is true that Prof. Wright nominally considers the arguments on which the current doctrine of two or more glacial epochs is based, and finds them insufficient; but his consideration is neither impartial nor adequate.

The second part of the treatise deals with man's relation to the glacial formations, and the author's conclusion that man was contemporaneous with the ice of the glacial epoch is given without qualification, although the whole tendency of recent critical investigation has been to raise very serious doubts concerning the sufficiency of the supposed proofs of this proposition. It is not the integrity of the earlier investigators that is questioned, but their conclusions. Many so-called palæolithic implements have been found in the glacial gravels of the Delaware River at Trenton, and a few in glacial gravels in several other localities. Later researches, especially those carried on by Holmes, have shown that objects which are the exact counterparts of these so-called palæolithic implements are to be found in great abundance about the sites of the workshops of modern Indians in many localities in various parts of the country. The occurrence of these objects of human workmanship in glacial gravels which have never been disturbed, if such be the fact, is another question. If their form can be accounted for without invoking palæolithic man, can their occurrence in gravels of glacial age be explained without supposing man to have existed in the glacial period? This is a geological, rather than an archæological question. By the uprooting of trees and the filling of the excavations thus made, by the movement of gravels on talus slopes, and by the filling of artificial excavations, surface objects may become embedded more or less deeply in gravels of any age. Has this been the history of the objects found in the glacial gravels of America? So far as the Babbitt finds of Little Falls, Minn., are concerned, the answer seems to be affirmative; but evidence that the Trenton objects may be similarly explained is not so conclusive, though we believe no competent geologist has ever observed them in glacial gravels which were demonstrably undisturbed. It is altogether possible, nay, it is altogether probable, that man existed upon the earth in the last glacial epoch. It is altogether possible that he saw the ice of the earlier glacial epochs, or even that the earliest ice sheet did not find the race in its infancy. We are not arguing against the existence of glacial man, but we hold, in common with many geologists and archæologists, that sufficient evidence is not yet forthcoming to demonstrate his contemporaneity with the ice period in America, or any part of it.

When Prof. Wright does not ignore other American glacialists, his recognition of them is not always flattering. Striking cases in point are found on pp. 109 and 307. On the former page, Chamberlin is quoted as "maintaining" that, during the interglacial epoch, the ice "wholly disappeared from the glaciated area to the north." Prof. Chamberlin's printed words are: "How far to the north this retreat carried the margin [of the ice] has not yet been ascertained; but . . . it is thought to be quite safe to believe that it withdrew entirely from our territory, if not from the Canadian highland ('Geology of Wisconsin,' i., 271). On the second page noted, the same author is again misquoted, in the good company of Prof. Comstock, as "maintaining" that during the glacial period the earth's axis "was somewhere in the region of Greenland." Chamberlin and Comstock have done no more than suggest the possibility of axial shifting, and of consequent change of latitudes, as a cause of glaciation in regions which now enjoy immunity from ice, and urge the importance of the fullest investigation along this line. Prof. Wright is in error in claiming as his own the discovery of glacial deposits in Kentucky (p. 212). These deposits were described in the Indiana geological reports years before Prof. Wright's work in that region, by both Messrs. Warder and Sutton; in earlier publications of his own, reference is made to these predecessors.

MEMORIALS OF COUNT VON ROON.

Denkwürdigkeiten aus dem Leben des General-Feld-Marschalls Kriegsministers Grafen von Roon. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xvi., 502, xii, 764. Breslau: Eduard Trewendt; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1892.

THESE stout volumes are compiled and edited with a considerable degree of literary skill by Count Waldemar von Roon, the eldest son of the famous War Minister, and are, in great part, a reprint of a series of articles which appeared in the *Deutsche Revue* during the past three years. The author, who, with uncommon self-effacement, does not print his name on the title-page, disclaims, in his preface, the design of producing a full biography of his father, and pretends to furnish nothing more than materials for such a work, limiting his scope still further by including only such matters as had not previously appeared in print. Nevertheless his book gives the reader a vivid impression of one of the chief actors in the most stirring scenes of German history, and serves to demonstrate once more with what genius the Emperor William I. selected his great servants and coadjutors. Among these Field-Marshal Von Roon deserves the third place, immediately next to Bismarck and Moltke, and is especially entitled to the credit of having materially contributed to bringing the two latter into the positions where their respective abilities could tell with their full weight. It was in part due to his repeated suggestions that Bismarck was brought into the Cabinet, and again due to his intervention that Moltke, as chief of staff, was brought into continuous personal communication with

the sovereign instead of having to use the War Minister as a medium. In thus voluntarily limiting his own prerogatives in favor of one who might, in one sense, have seemed a rival, Roon gave one of many proofs of his elevated sense of duty and of his sincere devotion to his king and his country. Perhaps the most interesting trait in the character of William I. is this very devotion with which he inspired his most distinguished adherents, and which he was never tired of acknowledging and rewarding.

His relations with Roon were especially intimate, and dated back before the troubled times of 1848, when, as Prince of Prussia, he was the most hated man in the kingdom. It was in November of that year that he offered to Roon the position of military tutor to Prince Frederick William, then just entering on his eighteenth year and later known as Frederick III. After the remarkable successes of 1866 and 1870, William I. never neglected an opportunity of expressing in public and in private his great obligations to Roon for his services in so organizing the Prussian armies as to render them an instrument of the highest precision. He repeatedly declared that it was due to the preparatory work of Roon, continued for years, that the German armies were so rapidly and uniformly victorious. After awarding full praise to the statesmanship of Bismarck and to the generalship of Moltke, a very considerable share of honor will always remain for the highly intelligent organizing ability of Roon, and for the persistence and energy with which, amid discouragements and difficulties, he kept steadily in view the designs which he finally accomplished.

Aside, however, from his public services, which are a matter of history, Albert von Roon is a striking and interesting figure. In him were personified many of the best traits of the German character, and one can readily imagine that Carlyle would have delighted in making him one of his heroes. His bearing was stern and the reverse of conciliatory; when he declined the place of tutor to Prince Frederick William, he gave as one of his reasons that he was ill-adapted for the atmosphere of a court. His private life was unexceptionable in its purity, and his letters, published in the work before us, show him to have been an affectionate husband and father. The smoothness of his domestic relations was in some contrast with the varied matrimonial adventures of his father, who, at the age of twenty-three, married his first wife, a rich woman ten years his senior, who, in order to marry him, had got herself divorced from her first husband. She died in childbed, and two years after his first marriage he married the daughter of a wealthy Frankfort merchant, but was divorced from her at the end of a year; at the age of twenty-eight he eloped with his third wife, a young widow whose family soon became reconciled to the match and bought the young couple an estate. This marriage, however, was not a happy one, which is not surprising, as the husband was dissipated and extravagant, and seems to have answered the typical description of the reckless and good-looking Prussian lieutenant.

The only surviving child of this marriage was Albert von Roon, born April 30, 1803. As a child he was left very much to himself, having no brothers or sisters, and being only eight years old at the death of his father, who had long been an invalid, while his mother was, by reason of a nervous disorder, incapacitated from managing the household. He was nearly twelve years old when he was first sent to school through the intervention of a cousin, and a year later he entered a military school. The property of his parents had by this time dwindled away to nearly nothing, and he was to a great extent dependent on the charity of relatives who were themselves none too well off, but who made up in good will what they lacked in wealth. The consciousness that he had neither money nor influential connections to push his fortunes, and that his advancement in life depended on his own exertions, stimulated him to diligence in his studies, and, having passed a satisfactory examination, he was appointed second lieutenant in January, 1821.

He did not, however, like many of his colleagues, consider his education complete, but prepared himself for admission to the general military school in Berlin, a sort of high-school or college for such officers as were ambitious to go beyond the ordinary curriculum. He attended its courses from 1824 to 1827, and in 1828 he was appointed instructor of the corps of cadets at Berlin. Like Moltke, he had been a distinguished pupil of Carl Ritter, the great geographer, and, also like Moltke, he had literary talents and instincts. Having been requested by his superiors to prepare a geographical hand-book for military schools, he published, in 1832, a work on the principles of geography, and two years later an abridgment treating of the elements. Both books came into general use and revolutionized the old method of instruction, reaching a sale of 50,000 copies. He also published two other works on similar subjects, but addressed to a more limited public. In 1832 he was relieved from his duties as teacher, and allowed to rejoin his regiment, having been promoted First Lieutenant. It was his chief ambition to join the General Staff, and he at last entered it in 1836, with the rank of Captain, at the comparatively early age of thirty-three. The staff then consisted of only forty-five officers. In the same year he married a cousin who was fifteen years his junior, and with whom he led a harmonious and happy life for forty-two years. Until he had passed his sixtieth year, his household was always conducted on a modest scale, as he had no income but his salary; but he managed to educate a large family, all of his sons entering the army and serving with distinction. One of them was killed at Sedan.

He continued his literary activity, and in 1843 became tutor to Prince Frederick Carl, going with him to Bonn, where the Prince attended the University, and accompanying him on two vacation journeys to Italy. When the revolution of 1848 broke out, Roon had already achieved a distinguished position in the army by his abilities and his character, and had, as above mentioned, attracted the attention of the Prince of Prussia, who was always deeply interested in military affairs. By temperament as well as in consequence of his official position, Roon was a conservative of the straitest sect, and a warm admirer of Prince William. In June, 1849, he took an important part in subduing the insurrection in the Palatinate, and it was his personal experience in the field that opened his eyes to the defective organization of the army and the urgent necessity of introducing thorough-going reforms. During the Crimean War, when Gen. Bonin was dismissed from the Ministry of War on account of his antipathy to Russia, Roon was already mentioned as a suitable man for the position; but as he was still only a colonel, his appointment at that time would have been contrary to established military etiquette.

The first beginnings of army reorganization may be said to date from a memorial on the subject prepared by Roon at the request of the Prince of Prussia in the summer of 1858, a few months before the latter assumed the Regency. Gen. Bonin, who had come back to the Ministry of War, was not favorable to the scheme, and resigned the place to make room for Roon, who was appointed in December, 1859, to the position, which he held for fourteen years. The letters of the Prince Regent printed in the work before us show that Sybel's account of the transaction is not entirely accurate. Roon was at that time (at the age of fifty-six) the youngest lieutenant-general in the army, and the only Conservative in a Liberal Ministry. He did not, however, enter the Cabinet as a politician, but solely as an expert and as the confidant of the Regent. When he had been in office a little over two months, on February 10, 1860, he made his first appearance in the Prussian House of Delegates with two bills for army reorganization which gave the signal for violent and bitter struggles with the Liberal majority that were waged without intermission until they were terminated by the victories of July, 1866. For more than two years Roon bore the brunt of the fight single-handed, and it was a great relief to him when, in September, 1862, he succeeded in having Bismarck appointed President of the Ministry, and could confine himself to the technical and professional branch of his duties, leaving the political and diplomatic worries to his capable colleague. From that time until his retirement from public life, in 1873, he faithfully seconded the policy of Bismarck, and they remained good friends, in spite of the great irritability of the Chancellor, who, as is well known, was a chronic sufferer from indigestion brought on by his irregular and reckless mode of life. On more than one occasion Roon had to mediate between Bismarck and the King.

It would be interesting, if space served, to follow Roon's official career in detail. His memoirs correct Sybel on one or two minor points besides the one already mentioned. They also seem to show that as late as June 7, 1870, Bismarck had no expectation of war with France during that summer, as in a letter of that date to Roon he speaks of having just taken a furlough of six weeks.

RHODES'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

History of the United States, from the Compromise of 1850. By James Ford Rhodes. Vols. I. and II.: 1850-1860. 8vo, pp. 506, 541. Harper & Bros.

THE list of American authors who have made the writing of history their profession is an honorable one, and many educated Americans would give it preëminence in the catalogue of our literary men. Prescott, Bancroft, Motley, Parkman, and Henry Adams make, of themselves, a list in which it would be a "decoration" to be enrolled, and their brilliant success has proved that young men of easy fortune are capable of a life-long devotion to the most laborious of pursuits. Happily it is also true that the pursuit is a fascinating one, the appetite for it growing by what it feeds on; so that the years of seclusion and study which must precede any valuable results are not years of task-work, cheered only by the hope of recognition. They are, perhaps, those of most thorough enjoyment, for broad and deep investigation proves to be its own reward; the growing acquaintance with another time and

its generation of men and women combining the pleasures of travel and of society within the four walls of the investigator's own library.

Mr. Rhodes is a candidate for historical honors, and these two handsome volumes contain the first fruits of labors in which he has been wholly absorbed for a series of years already considerable. His plan is an ambitious one, for he proposes to give us the history of our country from 1850 to 1885; a period covering the whole course of events from the end of the Mexican War to the close of the era of "war issues" by the first election of President Cleveland. A whole library of books has been published dealing with particular parts and individual characters of this period. We have monographs political and military, biographical and autobiographical, Nationalist and Confederate, Republican and Democratic. To grasp the whole with firmness, to seize the dominant influences, to comprehend the true progress of humanity and of thought, to reach the real significance of events and the true motives of action, to recognize the new forces that are developed and the relations of the America of 1885 to that of 1850, is a task compared with which the writing of any of the special works alluded to is mere child's play. Mr. Rhodes will have the encouragement of sympathetic good wishes from educated men and women, who will follow the execution of his great plan with sincere and hopeful interest.

In his opening volumes we naturally look for the keynote of the composition as a whole. We desire to learn his standpoint, and to compare with our own his canons of judgment in regard to men and events. His own personal and intellectual history counts for much, in this part of our inquiry, and what we know of it throws useful light upon his treatment of the ten years which preceded the civil war.

Mr. Rhodes is a member of a family of business men of Cleveland, Ohio, where his father was for many years a marked character and a prominent citizen, largely interested in the railway development of the West and a successful captain of industry. He was in intimate personal relations with his kinsman, Stephen A. Douglas, and a devoted friend and political supporter of Douglas in his public career. He was one of the faithful band who advocated Douglas's nomination to the Presidency at the Charleston Convention in 1860, and who nominated him at Baltimore when the ultra Southern men had seceded from the Convention. Our author knew Douglas as a child knows an honored and intimate guest in his father's house, and more or less of hero-worship entered into his boyish recollections of that dashing politician. His college life in New York and some years then spent in study in Paris and in Berlin developed robust intellectual qualities which in early manhood took a decided bent toward historical study. Too young himself, during the civil war, to have other sentiments and opinions than those he may be said to have inherited, he became as he grew to manhood a consistent and earnest supporter of the national cause against that of the Secessionists. The Douglas Democrats were generally known as War Democrats, and their zeal against the Southern Confederacy was sharpened by their personal attachment to a leader who, as they thought, had been politically destroyed by the South when he might, by its support, have carried the country through its crisis without war.

In such influences and surroundings Mr. Rhodes grew up, and we may safely guess that his own remembrances of Douglas gave added zest to his study of the causes which led to the great rebellion, and that a wish to picture his father's friend in his relations to the pregnant events of the decade before the outbreak was potent in his resolution to devote himself to a work which has grown upon his hands. At least, we should hazard little in saying that such considerations led him to place the beginning of his history at 1850 rather than 1860, when the purpose of writing a history of the war period and its results became fixed.

Von Holst's well-known work ends with the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln, and it would be impossible to avoid some comparison between his final volumes and these opening ones of Mr. Rhodes, since they cover the same period. The general conclusions are not materially different. Both adopt the anti-slavery view and are earnest supporters of the national side. The German historian seems to us, however, to have a stronger grasp of the great truth that the slavery question was the essence of the constitutional history of the country from the beginning of the century, and had to work itself out by the inevitable laws of political evolution. Mr. Rhodes speaks of the periods of quiet which came from time to time, as if the agitation had ceased and a permanent acquiescence could be reckoned upon if the successive compromises had not been disturbed. He does not seem to recognize with sufficient clearness the fact that there was a constant current of public opinion, growing, at the North, into a swelling tide of opposition to slavery, while a counter current at the South was carrying the people of the slave-holding States toward the logical demand for the recognition of the doctrine of chattel property in slaves everywhere in the Territories of the United States.

The difference between the historians seems to be due, in the main, to their different personal education in early life, which has in some degree modified their views of the earlier stages of the great discussion. We think that view the juster which looks at the anti-slavery movement as a ceaseless and continuous one, in which the onward movement of the tide is never stayed, though there may seem to be a backward flow between the surges which still sweep farther up the shore, one after another. The steady advance of public opinion is proved by the force and height of these successive waves. We had occasion to say, in noticing Von Holst's last volume, that newspapers are not conclusive evidence on this point. The proofs of the progress of opinion are often wanting or obscure, until some new occasion calls them out; and nothing is more common than to find the so-called organs of public opinion the most astonished at the results of an election or of some other outward expression of a growing popular will. There is a degree of danger, therefore, that a historian shall too confidently assume that his materials are complete, and that what he does not find in current contemporaneous publications is non-existent. There is abundant room for the exercise of inductive sagacity in drawing conclusions from the evidence, however full the record and the testimony may seem to be.

An application for this may be found in Mr. Rhodes's treatment of Mr. Webster's celebrated speech on March 7, 1850, which is commonly regarded as his political suicide. The Massachusetts statesman then separated himself from the anti-slavery Whigs, and gave the full weight of his influence to Mr. Clay's compromise measures, including the Fugitive Slave Bill and the opening of Utah and New Mexico to slavery. In regard to the latter point, Mr. Webster based his conduct on the force of the "law of nature," which he said would forbid slavery to take root in those Territories. Mr. Rhodes thinks he was right in this, and that he saw more clearly than his detractors. Of course, the burning questions at the time were whether Mr. Webster was not abandoning the more earnest anti-slavery ground which he, as well as his constituents, had before occupied, and whether he was not doing this to secure Southern support in a Presidential nomination. But, quite apart from this, the event showed that he was not wise, but mistaken. The natural barrier to the spread of slavery found in climate or physical features of the country was in fact inefficient in the middle belt of our States and Territories. Slavery was kept out of Indiana and Illinois only by the Ordinance of 1787. Utah and part of what was then New Mexico were in the latitude of Missouri, which was wholly north of the compromise line of 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. The struggle for Kansas was in the same belt.

But the question whether slavery would ultimately hold a Territory was but a part, and the smaller part, of the controversy. If it could enter the Territory at all, it had the effect of a pestilence upon free labor, making it avoid the region as one infected. Immigrants would not go to a new country where their future contained so great a hazard. The result of organized immigration into Kansas was the exception that proved the rule, for it was the extraordinary organization that gave the free settlers courage.

Nor does Mr. Webster's wisdom appear greater if we consider what would have been the results of an opposite course. Suppose he had defeated the Compromise by casting his lot with the anti-slavery Whigs. California would not have been admitted to the Union at that session of Congress; but with the marvellous rush of immigration, stimulated by the "gold-fever," who can believe that it could have been kept out longer than a single year? This at least is certain: the pretended repeal of the Missouri Compromise would never have been attempted, the Kansas-Nebraska bills of Douglas would never have been passed, the civil war in Kansas would have been averted, John Brown might have remained on his farm in North Elba, and secession must have found some other pretext. Such a Pandora's box did Mr. Webster's speech prove to be!

The apology for Webster was necessary to consistency, for Mr. Rhodes defends Douglas when the latter also applied the "law of nature" to the slavery question in Kansas. He, however, does not justify the introduction of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, nor the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He takes a more favorable view of Mr. Douglas's possible sincerity than is commonly taken, and, connecting the "squatter-sovereignty" doctrine with that of the "natural law" against slavery found in the physical characteristics of the Territory, he gives almost unqualified praise to Mr. Douglas's course after he broke with Buchanan and opposed admission under the Lecompton Constitution.

The picture of Mr. Douglas is a striking one, and, even making fair allowance for the predilection to which we have adverted, it may be accepted as one that is on the whole reasonable and just. The question of his motives and ambitions may be waived, and we may be glad to see in him genial and attractive traits of character which might well draw to him the devoted attachment of friends. We get also

clearer views of his mental processes in the great contest of 1860, and can respect his far-sightedness in maintaining the form of doctrine on which he finally planted himself, as being the only one he could defend, short of surrendering at discretion to the logic with which Mr. Lincoln had belabored him in the famous debate of 1858. He saw that the ultra-Southern position was destructive of the Democratic party as it had been of the Whig, and that unless a new Democracy could be successful under his banner of Popular Sovereignty, defeat was inevitable. He was personally indifferent to slavery as an institution, not caring, as he said, whether it was voted up or down, and so put himself on the wrong side of an issue in which the Northern conscience was following Mr. Lincoln, who saw in the moral wrong of slavery a reason why it should ultimately be extinguished and should, at least, be kept from spreading. With the opening of the war the Douglas party became earnest supporters of the Lincoln Administration for a time; and, in the American willingness, in politics, to let bygones be bygones, men did not inquire of Seward or Chase, of Wade or Chandler, whether they had been in the old Democratic or the old Whig party.

Mr. Rhodes has expressly reserved for future treatment several topics which belong to the physical development or the financial history of the country. He has given us two examples of his treatment of special topics, from which we may form some judgment of his force and his methods. In a long chapter on Slavery he has taken up the system in itself, in its effects upon the master and his family, upon the slave and his posterity, and upon the community in which the system is tolerated. He has given the arraignment by its enemies, the apologies of those who tolerated it, and the arguments of its ultra advocates. It would be hard to find a more judicial summing up of the case, and we doubt whether a fairer view of the whole subject can be met with in so moderate a space. The bibliography of this chapter alone is very extensive, and the author may take satisfaction in having done an excellent piece of work for which all students will thank him.

He has also devoted the greater part of a chapter to the yellow-fever epidemic in New Orleans in 1853, in which a dramatic contrast is drawn between the careless gayety of creole life in the preceding winter and the horrible scenes of panic when the epidemic reached its height in the late summer. In both parts of the contrast there are suggestions of models studied in the French school of realism, though keeping within the limits imposed by English and American taste. The chapter is a very powerful one, but the reader has a little the feeling that it is not altogether within the scale of proportions required by general history. It is strictly local, with no general treatment of the subject of the epidemic, with hardly a reference to its spread or its characteristics in other cities and places. One cannot help thinking that it is an insertion, having a very loose connection with the current story, from which its high coloring makes it stand out all the more noticeably. This sense of disproportion grows when we find that the Japan expedition under Commodore Perry is dismissed in a footnote.

In such a work it is, no doubt, one of the greatest embarrassments of an author to fix this proportion of parts, to decide when to expand, when to condense, what to omit and what to include. Art is proverbially long, and the most artistic literary sense must be trained by feeling its way to a satisfactory arrangement of figures and of perspective on the historical canvas. When an author's *magnum opus* is his only work, we have no right to complain if we sometimes detect tentative efforts in it, and a less sure grasp of the whole than we may fairly look for as he goes on. We are confident that Mr. Rhodes will not take it amiss if we say that the first of these volumes would be none the worse for a literary revision, and that the second shows a simpler and more masculine style, an easier and more assured flow of narrative, and greater freedom from mannerisms and habitual expressions. The mere dash of the pen through a phrase or a word, now and then, would silence nearly every criticism in this respect. His style, at its best, is direct and strong, giving the matter preëminence, and thinking comparatively little of form. This certainly is the solid way to build such a work, though it still leaves room for reasonable care in removing obscurities or infelicities of expression, and giving such thought to make the style agreeable as may consist with the rule that the art should conceal itself.

Our duty would be quite incompletely done if we should omit to recognize the evidences of very wide research and most conscientious labor to be found on nearly every page of these volumes. The extent to which newspaper files have been studied is remarkable. Mr. Rhodes has not been content to follow one or two leading papers of each political party, but has delved right and left among the journals of the North and the South, the East and the West, the organs and the independent presses, and has brought to light much fresh and significant matter. The general literature of his subject he seems to have classified carefully and to have well in hand, so that his views, whether we agree with them or no, are so widely based upon the study of contemporary material that no one can treat them lightly or challenge them without reflection. It is already certain that if he shall live to complete his task, we shall have a noteworthy and valuable addition to our solid literature. It may not be absolutely free from predilection and bias, but the unquestionable honesty of his purpose and the thoroughness of his method will give as nearly judicial results as we may fairly expect from any one who has lived in contact with the events which he narrates.

NADAILLAC'S PREHISTORIC MANNERS

Manners and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples. By the Marquis de Nadaillac. Translated by Nancy Bell (N. D'Anvers). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892. 412 pp., 8vo, 113 illus.

PREVIOUS publications by the Marquis de Nadaillac, 'Les Premiers Hommes' and 'L'Amérique Préhistorique,' have been welcomed as successful endeavors to popularize the main results reached by the modern science of prehistoric archæology. The latter work was translated into English some years since by the lady who has undertaken a similar charge for the present volume, and has been published in this country. In the work before us, the author has attempted to present within moderate dimensions a vivid picture of "the life and times" of early man, condensed from his larger studies spoken of above. This difficult task, we think, has been accomplished better than it has ever been done before. We regret, however, that we cannot speak as favorably of the translator's share in the volume in hand. On the contrary, we feel constrained to characterize it as marked by such carelessness and ignorance, both of the language and of the subject-matter of the original, as to require its thorough revision, which the beautiful mechanical execution of the book warrants. This is certainly a grave charge to bring, but we think the instances that have fallen under our eye in the course of our examination fully justify it, and some of these we shall proceed to place before our readers.

A prefatory note states that "the author and translator have carefully brought down to date the original edition," etc. This, however, we can scarcely credit, as we find that no attempt has been made to correct errors pointed out by Cartailhac, in the *Matériaux*, so long ago as June, 1888. We do not feel warranted, however, in fixing upon the author the responsibility for blunders not to be found in the original.

M. Gaston Paris appears (p. 4) disguised under the appellation of M. Gaston. We read on p. 7 that, "during the early portion of the eighteenth century, a pointed black flint, *evidently the head of a spear* [the italics are ours], was found in London with the tooth of an elephant. It was described in *the newspapers of the day*." The author is not guilty of asserting that this classic first discovered palæolithic implement was "evidently the head of a spear," which could not possibly be true, as is proved by its magnitude and weight, but only that it was *taillé en pointe de lance*, shaped in form like a spear-head; while instead of "newspapers" he speaks of *les ouvrages du temps*, by which he intends Hearne's edition of Leland's 'Collectanea,' a ponderous antiquarian treatise in six volumes. We are informed that the Etruscans wore flint arrow-heads on their "collars" (p. 17) instead of their "necklaces" (*colliers*); and, possibly by a confusion of "barrows" with "burrows," *barrows enfouis sous un talus* is rendered "barrows hollowed out of the cliff," for "covered by a slope of detritus" (p. 30). On p. 66 a harpoon is said to be made of *whalebone*, as the translation of *de l'os d'un cétace*, bone of a cetacean.

Herodotus's familiar story about certain ancient Lake-Dwellers who were in the habit of lowering baskets into the water and drawing them up filled with fish, is credited to the "Poeni (Carthaginians)," instead of the Pæonians, in Macedonia (p. 67). Certain anchors, made out of large stones, are said to have been discovered in "crossing a basin of the Bay of Penbouet"; the author's statement is *creusant*, excavating (p. 78). A great deal is told about "the celebrated Lake Station of Solutré" (p. 85), which is still further disguised in the index as "Solutré Cave." This famous open-air station is not far from Mâcon, and there is no lake nearer to it than Geneva. When it is stated that "4,000 flints were picked up there in one dwelling alone" (p. 232), this can only be true of the station as a whole. The author is made to speak of "the bolas flung by the ancient Gauls" (p. 88), while what he actually does is to conjecture that possibly certain rounded stones may have been used by the ancient Gauls for the same purpose for which *bolas* are used by the inhabitants of the pampas of South America.

We read on p. 90 that "to all appearance the most ancient bows *of historic times* greatly resemble these two prehistoric examples." By the addition of the words "of historic times" the author's meaning is completely changed. He is arguing that no bows belonging to the palæolithic period are known,

but that probably they resembled the two known prehistoric examples, which belong to the neolithic period. We must beg leave, by the way, to record our disagreement with this opinion of M. de Nadaillac, as we do not think that palæolithic man had advanced sufficiently to have invented so complex a weapon as the bow and arrow. On p. 92 "a bevelled arrow-shaft," made of reindeer antler, is spoken of instead of "arrow-head"; *une pointe de trait en bois de renne taillée en biseau; sculptée sur os* (p. 123) is translated "engraved in wood"; and Arian is put for Aryan (p. 161).

Great confusion of thought is shown in the following paragraph (p. 172): "Countless centuries have passed away since the close of the palæolithic epoch. The burghs, nurhags, and castellieri show the progress of civilization, and at the same time prove that this progress extended throughout Europe, and that at a time *not so very far removed from our own*. The close resemblance between *buildings of different dates* enables us to speak with certainty of the connection between the races which succeeded each other in Europe." Such a *non sequitur* as this must not be charged upon the author. His conclusion is that there was a certain progress which spread throughout Europe at dates evidently not far apart, and that it is the resemblance between the different buildings, enumerated above, which enables us to speak with certainty of the connection between the races which succeeded each other in Europe.

We are told (p. 221) that "the most ancient Gallic coins date from about three centuries before our era, and the earliest British from a century *earlier* than that," instead of "later," *postérieures;* that some of the Breton menhirs are "surrounded" by "crosses" (p. 222), instead of "surmounted," *surmontent;* and *pierre branlante*, "rocking-stone," is translated "leaning pillar" (p. 223).

There are some amusing mistakes made in the account given of different kinds of arrow-heads (p. 233); some are said to be triangular, others again "cutting transversely," which is intended to be the translation of *pointes de flèche à tranchant transversal*, arrow-heads with transverse edges, or chisel-headed arrows; "some with, some without feathers," instead of "barbs," *ailerons*.

We are told (p. 248) about certain jade objects found in Nicaragua and about "the marks they retain of having been rubbed up," which is the translation given of *les retouches qu'ils portent*, the marks of secondary chipping they show. On a skull figured at p. 249 a wound is to be seen, and it is stated in regard to it that there "are marks of an attempt at healing. According to Dr. Hamy, many of the bones found in the Sordes Cave have very curious wounds." The author is speaking of the healing-process, *réparation*, to be seen upon numerous bones, and says that those in the Sordes Cave display very singular instances of it—*offrent des cas très curieux*. An arrow-head is said to have been "flung with such a sure hand that it has been driven *ten inches* deep into the bony tissue." One would suppose that common sense would have made impossible such a version of *vingt-cinq millimètres*, one inch (p. 252). *Des crânes percées d'un trou circulaire* (p. 255) is translated "pierced with circular tools"; *traumatisme* (p. 277) is called a "cerebral disease"; and *des lames minces et allongées* is rendered into "long, thin slices," instead of "slender blades."

By the careless omission of the words "and the Ring" (p. 291), the well-known ancient fortification in the Vosges Mountains from which Cooper's novel, 'The Heidenmauer,' derives its name, is called "the Heidenmauer of Saint Odila near Hermanskiel, between the Moselle and the Rhine." Thus both its geographical situation and its identity are disguised, as there are several "Heathenwalls" in Central Europe. Finally, Schliemann is spoken of (p. 342) as "the great Danish antiquary": the celebrated proto-Etruscan city of Marzabotto, which was at first supposed to be only a cemetery, is transmuted into Manzabotta (p. 356); Thayngen Cave is said in the index to be in Belgium, instead of in Switzerland, and we are told (p. 393) about "the scarcity of human remains in palæolithic caves and mounds," though it passes our comprehension to know what can be meant by a "palæolithic mound."

We had noted many more "errors and omissions" of the translator, but we spare our readers' patience. If space had permitted, we should have liked to say a few words about some disputed topics in prehistoric archæology, in which we differ from the position assumed by the author, but we will confine ourselves to a single observation. The author is arguing that pottery was known in palæolithic times, contrary to the more generally received opinion that it was the invention of neolithic man, and he says in a note (p. 100), "But what is the value of categorical assertions of this kind [*i.e.*, about the absence of palæolithic pottery in England] in presence of the fragments of pottery found at different levels in Kent's Hole?" Now, if this statement were correct, it might be regarded as settling the question, for never were investigations conducted more carefully and more scientifically than were those carried on for fourteen years by Mr. Pengelly on behalf of the British Association. This is what he says in his report made to that body in 1873, p. 213: "The men of the Black Mould had a great variety of bone instruments; they used spindle-whorls, and made pottery, and smelted and compounded metals. The older men of the Cave Earth made few bone tools; they used needles, and probably stitched skins together; but they had neither spindle-whorls, nor pottery, nor metals." There could not be a plainer assertion than this of the absence of pottery from the more ancient deposits in Kent's Hole.

We should find, however, very little fault with his general treatment of the subject by the author, and we could confidently recommend the book as the most comprehensive one in the English language treating of the earliest periods of man's existence, if proper corrections are made in the translation, as we have suggested.

The Naturalist in La Plata. By W. H. Hudson, C.M.Z.S. New York: Appletons; London: Chapman & Hall. 1892. 8vo, pp. 388. Illustrated.

THAT Mr. Hudson is a master of the art of description, a close observer, and capable of doing very good thinking, is well set forth by this volume. It is rarely the case that a writer on natural history so nearly produces in the minds of his readers the impression that they have seen and heard and felt with him. He has a fascinating style, clear, simple, and well-adapted to all classes of those interested in popular science. Besides its attractiveness for present reading there is much in the book that will last.

The matter relates to the peculiar life and conditions of "La Pampa," the low and comparatively level region east of the foothills of the Andes in the southern portion of South America—subjects which heretofore have been somewhat neglected. Treating of his playground, of his playfellows in boyhood, and of his comrades in later life, the author writes with love and sympathy engendered by years of familiarity. What he has brought out by his thinking is no less interesting than the purely descriptive portions, though in places observations insufficiently varied or numerous render it liable to criticism.

The work is an extensive and diversified series of glimpses at natural phenomena, some of which pertain to insects—spiders, dragon-flies, mosquitoes, bees, wasps, light-bearers, and parasites; some to the birds—rheas, humming-birds, jacanas, wood-hewers, and screamers; some to mammals—mice, coypus, armadillos, vizcachas, huanacos, pumas, and gauchos, and a few to reptiles. The more complete and thorough studies are "the biography of the vizcacha" (the "prairie dog" of the far south), and the history of the "wood-hewer" family of birds, the Dendrocolaptidæ. Nature's treatment of excessive increase is exemplified in "a wave of life," an inordinate abundance of mice that induced rapid multiplication and gathering of their enemies—augmented even by insectivores changing diet for the time—all again reduced to lowest numbers by a season of drought. Certain records must await further observations before definite conclusions can be drawn. Such a case is that of "the wrestler frog," which grasped and squeezed the author's fingers before attempting to escape, then profited by the surprise of its would-be captor. From the account it would seem as if this was the usual habit, yet it may have been in the breeding season, when, as is known, the males of different species are prone to grasp moving objects near them—some having been taken tightly clasping the heads or backs of fishes. At this time the arms of such males become stronger and much enlarged, and each breast, and the inside of the first finger, of some species is provided with tubercular horn-covered spines to aid in holding. A similar reception is to be accorded the story of the huanaco's return to a special dying place, when sorely stricken. In North America there are numerous "boneyards" among the foothills on which similar legends might be founded, but they are simply sheltered places in which the herds seek protection from storm and cold, where winter after winter has added to the accumulation of the skeletons of starved and frozen.

One of the heaviest blows yet dealt the theory of sexual selection occurs in the chapter on "Music and Dancing in Nature." Peculiar antics and songs of birds, solitary or in company, in the air or on the earth, the dances of the ypecaha rails, the wing displays of the jacanas, the ludicrous dance of a pair of spur-winged lapwings with a visitor from a neighboring pair, the ecstasies of the mocking-bird, the soarings and concerts of the crested screamers—all, with many others similarly vociferous and novel, are attributed to periodical fits of gladness, to joyous impulses such as induce extravagant actions in man himself. The conclusion is quite reasonable and likely to prevail, even though it may not apply to some of the vagaries of courtship.

In "The Strange Instincts of Cattle" there is an explanation which apparently is somewhat farther fetched: the killing of the disabled comrade by the herd is attributed to "a blunder in the helping instinct"; the herd, ex-

cited by cries and blood, rushes together not to kill, but to rescue. "In such circumstances the excitement must be discharged, the instinct obeyed; and, in the absence of any other object of attack, the illusion is produced and it discharges itself on the struggling companion." Now it is true, among other animals as well as cattle, that often, possibly most often, the victim, whether in a trap or in the field, is itself responsible for the attack upon it; for when wounded, in pain and enraged, it attacks any that come near it, and in consequence suffers the penalty. It hardly seems necessary to suppose the existence of an illusion; an attack is resented, and, being at a disadvantage, the attacking party gets killed. There is some resemblance between the mêlées of the cattle and those of the birds. An ypecaha rail raises a cry, and straightway a dozen or twenty others rush to the spot and engage in a tremendous screaming concert, dashing about with flapping wings as if crazed. A member of the herd begins to bellow and show signs of strong excitement, often without apparent cause; at once the entire herd rushes toward him, bellowing and plunging about as if suddenly maddened. The disturbance of the birds ends in peace. The clumsy cattle, in their reckless fervor, strike and wound one another until what began as an emotional outbreak of another character ends in fighting and possibly in slaughter; yet these latter were but accidental consequences of an excited condition of the herd.

The book may be safely and heartily recommended as one of the most original, thoughtful, and delightful books on popular natural history. Special attention of the proof-reader for future editions is needed in various portions of the text.

In Arctic Seas: the Voyage of the *Kite* with the Peary Expedition. By Robert N. Keely, jr., M.D., and G. G. Davis, M.D. Philadelphia: Rufus C. Hartranft. 1892. Pp. viii, 524, 8vo. Illustrated.

THIS work is divided into two parts, of which the first comprises the narrative of the expedition sent in 1891 to convey Lieut. Peary and his party to the Northwestern Coast of Greenland, while the second contains an account of the second voyage of the same vessel in 1892, when she was sent to bring the party home again. The latter also includes a transcript of the log of the *Kite* during the relief expedition, and correspondence relating to the fate of Verhoeff, the mineralogist of the party, who disappeared a few days before the return of the expedition, and is supposed to have lost his life by falling into a crevasse in one of the glaciers during an imprudent excursion undertaken without a companion. The description of Lieut. Peary's journey over the inland ice, and its results, occupies but twenty pages; while the meteorological and other scientific records do not appear at all, indicating that the explorer has reserved for himself a detailed account of his remarkable journey and the observations taken during the winter at McCormick Bay, to be published later. A sketch-map of Greenland shows the general direction and termination of the journey over the ice from the winter quarters to a large fiord on the northeastern shore of Greenland, about one hundred and twenty miles south and east from Lockwood's furthest on the north shore.

A discussion of the journey and its bearing on the future of arctic exploration is better deferred until the publication of full details, but it may be said that the records show that exploration over the inland ice with a small and suitably equipped party is less difficult than had been anticipated, and offers the prospect that much more may be done in Greenland in this way than might hitherto have been hoped for. The party seems to have been composed of congenial spirits, and the wintering passed more pleasantly and with less hardship than is usual in such cases. Even the hazardous experiment of including a lady in the party bore no evil fruits, though under conceivable circumstances it might have proved most unfortunate. It is certainly to be hoped that no future expedition will risk adding to the ordinary perils and anxieties of arctic work the knowledge that failure in either of several ways will certainly bring disaster upon a woman. The devoted self-sacrifice of the sex has been put to the proof too often to need any such test as this, and it is much to be feared that a repetition of it will add a new chapter to the annals of suffering which we may well be spared.

The remaining five hundred pages of the book contain a cheerful and entertaining account of the experiences of the party on the *Kite* during her two voyages, but nothing more. There is no addition to knowledge in it, or anything of serious importance. The illustrations are numerous and (except the portraits) foggy, or, occasionally, scratchy. The work terminates with a list of the persons invited to the reception given to the Lieutenant and his party after their return. It is attractively printed and bound, but contains no index.

The Acts and Resolves, Public and Private, of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay, etc. Vol. VII., being Volume II. of the Appendix, containing Resolves, etc. 1692–1702. Boston. 1892. 8vo, pp. 851.

IN this volume 372 pages are given to the Resolves, 374 pages to the editorial notes by Abner C. Goodell, jr., and 100 pages to the indexes. It is well known that, in five immense volumes, Mr. Goodell has already published for the Commonwealth the Public Laws for the Provincial period. He has now begun the issue of two remaining classes of laws—Private Laws; and Resolves, Orders, Addresses, etc. Volume vi. is to commence the series of Private Acts, and, though already in type, it is preceded by this seventh volume.

As to these Resolves, no particular enumeration is necessary. Of necessity they relate to special matters, mostly of temporary importance, and are to be considered as of antiquarian value, rather than as contributions to jurisprudence. Happy is the community whose records of such matters is ample; thrice happy the community which possesses an antiquary able and willing to gather up and suitably edit such a collection. On turning over Mr. Goodell's notes, the first impression is one of wonder at their extent. These 374 pages measure each 8 inches by 6, with 80 lines to the page, in small type. There are about 1,200 words to a page. Compare this with Parkman's last work—730 pages, with an average of not over 300 words to a page—and it will be seen that Mr. Goodell's notes cover nearly double the bulk. This comparison, of course, is made merely to show the amount of literary work covered by the phrase "with historical and explanatory notes." As to the quality of these notes much might be said, but the best description perhaps is that they are exhaustive of the subject. Mr. Goodell's wonderful industry and memory combine to enable him to bring into each note all that pertains to it and is to be found in the archives. To the local historian and the genealogist these pages will be most welcome.

It is impossible to overrate the value of the work already performed by Mr. Goodell. No other State has yet equalled Massachusetts in this department, and, in fact, men fit for such work are very rare. It not only requires that the editor shall be competent to take a high rank as an historian, but that he shall be willing to sacrifice his literary aspirations for the purpose of furnishing the materials to be used hereafter by others. It is at best a thankless task; its burden is increased when the work has to be annually criticised by a committee of a legislature whose approval or sufferance is indispensable for the necessary annual appropriation. The public will never know the difficulties which marked the issue of the earlier volumes of this series; but it is to be hoped that no more crude and impatient criticism will be allowed utterance.

Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture. By Frances Mary Steele and Elizabeth Livingston Steele Adams. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THIS book, as the title indicates, is occupied less with hygienic dress reform than with æsthetic personal adornment. The most natural place in the world to find it would be the table of a drawing-room palely decorated in blue green or green blue, relieved by peacock feathers, Whistler etchings, and old delf. Admirably in keeping with such surroundings would be the ornaments, costumes, attitudes, and expressions of face it plans and advises. After looking through its pages one feels much as one has felt on coming from the Grosvenor Gallery into the common light of Bond Street. Ugly as are the crudities of shop-windows and the conventional fashions of women, they are yet a relief from the strained intensity of the limply draped ladies who pose in all manner of art colors and art fabrics. A sad self-consciousness such as theirs would, one is tempted to believe, be the fate of maid or matron who should pore too persistently upon the intricate directions here given for the attainment of beauty of form and feature.

Nor does it seem likely that the woman in healthy revolt against tight stays, high heels, and similar abominations of toilet, will here find the needed practical aid. Pleasing suggestions and charming generalities there are in abundance; but to those who are still in the toils of conventionality the subtle doctrines of æstheticism in dress cannot be imparted without a temporary descent from artistic declamation to plain and commonplace demonstration—demonstration so plain that even the novice in curves and folds and lines may ponder thereon and not grow confused. It is a pity, too, that a volume with a mission in one of the minor arts should not hold up a high standard of excellence in another, by illustrations better executed than those which are so profusely used and for the most part indifferently carried out.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Dr. F. E. Der Weg aus dem Agnosticismus. Berlin: Bibliographisches Bureau.

American Church Almanac and Year Book for 1893. James Pott & Co. 25 cents.

Archæologia Oxoniensis. Part I. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Bittinger, Rev. J. Q. A Plea for the Sabbath and for Man. Congregational Publishing Society. $1.25.

Byars, W. V. Tannhäuser: A Mystery in Two Parts. St. Louis: C. W. Alban & Co.
Caine, Hall. The Last Confession, and The Blind Mother. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
Canadian Almanac, 1893. Toronto: Copp-Clark Co.
Carducci, Giosuè. Poems, Translated with two Introductory Essays by Frank Sewall. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Carus, Paul. Truth in Fiction: Twelve Tales with a Moral. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Chambrun, Comtesse de. Poésies. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Cheney, Ednah D. Life of Christian Daniel Rauch. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Egan, Maurice F. Songs and Sonnets, and Other Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Ellis, Havelock. The Nationalisation of Health. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Famous Composers and Their Works. Four parts. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Fane, Violet. Poems. 2 vols. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Ferguson, George. Our Earth—Night to Twilight. Vol. II. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Foote, Rev. H. W. The Insight of Faith. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 50 cents.
Gaillot, C. Les Hilet, Jean-Baptiste et ses Trois Fils. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
George, H. A Perplexed Philosopher. C. L. Webster & Co. $1.
Gordon-Stables, Gordon, R. N. Born to Command: A Tale of the Sea and Sailors. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $2.
Hiles, T. L. The Ice Crop. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Hodgkin, Thomas. Italy and her Invaders. 2d ed. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hope, A. R. Stories. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Houston, E. J. Electricity and Magnetism. W. J. Johnston Co.
Howard, Blanche W. A Battle and a Boy. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. Christmas Every Day, and Other Stories Told for Children. Harpers.
Hume, Fergus. When I Lived in Bohemia. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, R. U. The Winter Hour, and Other Poems. The Century Co.
Kitchin, D. B. Episodes from Dumas's Monte-Cristo. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Leland, C. G. The Hundred Riddles of the Fairy Bellaria. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Neva's Three Lovers. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Longshore, T. E. The Higher Criticism in Theology and Religion. Truth Seeker Co.
Lowell, J. R. The Old English Dramatists. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lyon, W. S., and Lanpent, G. H. D. A Primary French Translation Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Macleod, Mrs. Alick. The Silent Sea. Harpers. 50 cents.
Malone, Walter. Narcissus, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Matson, Henry. References for Literary Workers. With Introductions to Topics and Questions for Debate. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $3.
Maycock, W. P. Electric Lighting and Power Distribution. Part I. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Melville, Herman. Moby-Dick; or, The White Whale. U. S. Book Co. $1.50.
Melville, Herman. White-Jacket; or, The World in a Man-of-War. U. S. Book Co. $1.50.
Metropolitan Church and Choir Directory. Metropolitan Printing and Publishing Co.
Mitchell, S. W. The Mother, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Morris, Prof. E. E. Episodes from Dumas's Capitaine Pamphile. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Osthaus, Prof. Carl. Eichendorff's Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Perthes's Pocket-Atlas of the Ancient World. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Poetry of the Gathered Years. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Price, W. T. The Technique of the Drama. Brentanos. $1.50.
Reade, Charles. The Cloister and the Hearth: A Tale of the Middle Ages. 4 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.
Records of the Town of Plymouth. Vol. 2. 1705–1743. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Rice, A. E. Small Talk about Business. Fremont, O.: Fremont Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Ruskin, J. Lectures on Architecture and Painting. Brantwood ed. Charles E. Merrill & Co.
Saint Pierre, Bernardin de. Paul and Virginia. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Savage, Rev. M. J. The Evolution of Christianity. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.
Talmage, Rev. T. DeW. From the Pyramids to the Acropolis. Philadelphia: Historical Publishing Co.
Tennyson, Lord. Complete Works. 2 vols. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Ten Selections from the Sketch-Book. American Book Co. 20 cents.
The Book-Lover's Almanac for 1893. Duprat & Co.
The Centenary of Kentucky. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
The *Century*. May–October, 1892. The Century Co.
Warner, Anna. Up and Down the House. Randolph. $1.
Warner, C. D. In the Levant. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Washington, B. The Story of Juliette: A Child's Romance. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Waters, R. Intellectual Pursuits; or, Culture by Self-Help. Worthington Co.
Winter, J. S. Those Girls. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
Young Men's Christian Association Handbook. The International Committee, 40 E. 23d St.
Zirndorf, H. Some Jewish Women. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 1

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

"Forcing the Fighting" in the Senate 4
The Salvation Army and the Churches 4
Voting Upon Compulsion 5
Four Thousand Immortals 6

CORRESPONDENCE:

Raphael's Hours 6

NOTES 7

REVIEWS:

Parkman's Half-Century of Conflict 9
Recent Poetry 10
Three Books on Music 12
Ramsey's English Language 13
Two Thousand Years of Gild Life 14
The Dialogues of Plato 15
The Grammar of Science 15
Ethnology in Folk-lore 15
A Tramp Across the Continent 16
The Horse 16
The Life of Col. Paul Revere 16
The Claims of Decorative Art 17
The American Government, National and State 17
Brahmanism and Hinduism 17
Egypt 17

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 18

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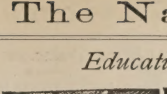

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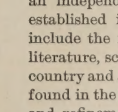

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 19

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Merits of the Homestead Trouble 22
Senator Palmer on the Rights of Labor 22
Our Variegated Currency 23
The Burdens of the President 24
Three Years of Republican Financiering 25
The British Elections 25

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The "Agamemnon" at Bradfield College 26
A German Jacobin 27

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Democratic Candidate for Vice-President 28
Rolling-Mill Protectionism 28
American Diplomacy in Turkey 29
The Russian Professoriate 29
Frances Dunlap Lowell 30

NOTES 30

REVIEWS:

Von Holst's United States 32
Recent Fiction 34
The Province of Expression 35
From Palm to Glacier 35
The Dog in Health and in Disease 35
La Jeunesse de La Fayette, 1757-1792 35

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 36

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 37

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Pulpit on the Homestead Riots 40
Warring Protectionists at Homestead 40
An Object-Lesson in Currency Expansion 41
Coeducation in German Universities 42

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Tercentenary of Dublin University 43
Janet's Fénelon 45

CORRESPONDENCE:
The American Academy of Political and Social Science 46
Non-Voters 47
The Pope and the French Government 47
The Race of the Languages in Egypt 48
Mural Decoration of Egyptian Tombs 48

NOTES 48

REVIEWS:
Conway's Paine 51
Royce's Spirit of Modern Philosophy 53
Men, Mines and Animals in South Africa 54
Marriage and Disease 54
Villainage in England 55
The Early Days of My Episcopate 56
The Atlantic Ferry 56
The Science of Nutrition 56
The Anglo-Saxon Towns and Their Polity 57
L'Instruction Publique en France et en Italie au Dix-neuvième Siècle 57
Construction Details 57

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 58

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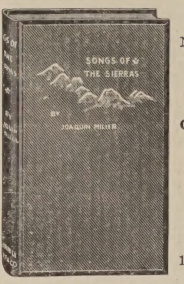

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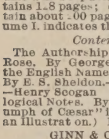

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 59

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Mr. Cleveland in New York 62
Custom-house Statistics 62
The Doubtful Farm Vote 63
What Home Rule Has Cost the Liberals 64

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Prohibition in Maine 65
The Question of Alsace and the Russian Alliance 66
Among the Psychologists of Paris 68

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Homestead Rioters and Public Opinion ... 68

NOTES 69

REVIEWS:

Ramsay's Lancaster and York 71
Whymper Among the Andes 72
English Water-Color Painting 73

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Total Marine Premiums		$5,256,865 84
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Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,083,400 36
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,425,030 93
Cash in Bank	193,895 88
Amount	$12,278,582 17

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 77

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Senator Aldrich's Speech 80
Connecticut's Ballot Lesson 81
The Glut of Capital 81
English Electioneering Dodges 82

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The General Election in Ireland 83
The Decorations at Chicago 84
Hugo's Journeys in France and Belgium 85

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Conjunction *Like* 86

NOTES 87

REVIEWS:

Two Books by Mr. Mahaffy 89
Codrington's Melanesians 91
The Life and Letters of Charles Samuel Keene 92
The Modern Odyssey 93
La Débâcle 93

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 93

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[*Educational continued on page v.*]

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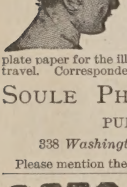

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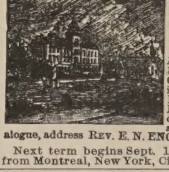

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 95

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Work of Congress 98
The Tyranny of "Labor" 98
Congressman Oates's Report 99
A Typical Protected Industry 100

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Coal Waste in Pennsylvania 101
With Bernheim at Nancy 101
Letters of Ippolito Pindemonte 103

CORRESPONDENCE:

Linton's Vindication of Paine 105
Unsectarian Theology 105
Political Purity in the State of Washington 105
Edmund L. Stewardson 105

NOTES 106

REVIEWS:

Sybel's German Empire.—I 108
Norton's Translation of Dante's Paradise 110
France of the July Monarchy and the Second Empire 111
The Tempest 112
Early Greek Philosophy 113
Henry Boynton Smith 113
The Silva of North America 114
Dynamics of Rotation 114
B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783 115

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 115

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 117

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

New York and the Electoral College 120
More Calls in After-Thoughts 120
A Tariff for Wages Only 121
An Unworkable Theory 122

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

At Bodenstedt's Birthplace 123
Bardoux's Lafayette.—I 123

CORRESPONDENCE:

Our Muddling Copyright Act 125
The Progressive Machine Index 125
The Sexes as Pupils and Teachers 125

NOTES 126

REVIEWS:

Jannet's Capital 129
Sybel's German Empire.—II 130
Memorials of Edinburgh in the Olden Time 132
Pleasures of Animal Life Past and Present 132
Selections from Lucian 133
Leone X. e la sua Politica 133
Games, Ancient and Oriental 133

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 134

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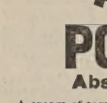

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 135

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Riot and Protection 138
Light on the Labor Problem 138
The Ballot in Mississippi 139
Harrisonian Foreign Policy 140

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Robert Lowe, Lord Sherbrooke 141
Gladstone's Return to Power 142
Leyden and Its Archives 143

CORRESPONDENCE:

Ramsay's 'Lancaster and York' 145
"Literarian" 145

NOTES 145

REVIEWS:

Campbell's Puritan in Holland 147
The Work of the Wage-Earner 148
Greece of To-Day 149
Sir Walter Raleigh 151
Schools and Masters of Fence 151
Specimens of Old French 152
The Philosophy of Spinoza 152
Illegitimacy 152
A Text-Book of Physics 153

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 153

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Mrs. B. MAITLAND, Principal.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 155

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Reading Railroad Combination 158
Peck's Report 158
Farming in Maine 159
Reform of English Legal Procedure 160

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Question of the Colonies 161
An Extra-Territorial Italian City 162
Bardoux's Lafayette.—II 164

CORRESPONDENCE:

Raphael's Hours and Galatea 165
The Process of an Error 165

NOTES 165

REVIEWS:

Strachey's Hastings and the Rohilla War 168
Freeman's History of Sicily 169
The Latest Year Books 171
The Autobiography of Isaac Williams 171
An Illustrated Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis 172
The Robin Hood of Vermont 173
The Apodidæ 173

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 173

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 175

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Cholera and Quarantine 178
The Practical Tariff Issue 178
The Edmunds Lumber Case 179
George William Curtis 180

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The International Congress of Experimental Psychology 182
In Thomas Hardy's Country.—I 184

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Pension Abuse 185
Mr. Whitmore's Ancestral Tablets 185
Men and Women Teachers in Chicago 186
Colorado Share of Protection 186
Art Fallen Among Customs Appraisers 186

NOTES 186

REVIEWS:

A Nation-Maker 189
China Collecting in America 190
Dreams of the Dead 190

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 191

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 193

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Vermont Election 196
The Future of Silver 196
A New Departure in Municipal Government .. 197
The Eight-Hour Movement in England 198
Whittier 199

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

In Thomas Hardy's Country.—II 200

CORRESPONDENCE:

A Tariff Accounting 202
The Misleading Minue Ballot 202
Two of Nature's Noblemen 203
Shelley Memorial Subscription 203

NOTES 203

REVIEWS:

Julian's Giddings 206
The Barren Ground of Northern Canada.—On Canada's Frontier 207
Industrial Freedom 208
The Odyssey of Homer 208

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 201

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[*Educational continued on page* 210.]

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 211

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Party Value of a Secret Ballot 214
Dr. Jenkins and the Other Doctors 214
Protection in Canada 215
The University of Chicago 216

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Outlets to the Great Lakes 217
Irish Affairs 219
Bossuet as an Historian 219

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Boston Public Library's Liberality to Authors 220
Mr. Adams's Quincy Address 221
Berlin's Municipal Government 221
Form of Ballot in Pennsylvania 222

NOTES 223

REVIEWS:

Three Books on Greek Art 225
Rogers's Industrial History of England 226
Suggestion and Fiction 227
Le Choléra, ses causes, moyens de s'en préserver 228
Kolokotronis 229
Sohm's Institutes of Roman Law 230
Secret Service under Pitt 230

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 231

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[*Educational continued on page* 232.]

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 233

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Changed Conduct of Foreign Affairs 236
Bishop Potter on Sunday Opening 236
Mr. Morley's Trouble 237
Novelists and Dramatists 238

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Fêtes and Centenaries 238
A Plea for the Discouragement of Art 239

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Cost of Living 241
The State Bank of Indiana 241
The Boston Public Library Again 241

NOTES 241

REVIEWS:

Harrisse's Discovery of North America.—I 244
Canoes on the Danube 246
Sir Philip Sidney 247
Italian Child Life 247

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 248

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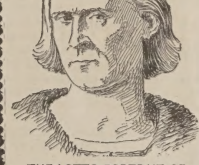

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 249

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Greatest Political Necessity 252
A "Stable" Protective Tariff Impossible 252
Congressman Harter on State Banks 253
Two English Mysteries 254
Innovations at the University of Chicago 255

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Restorations in Venice 256
Marceau 258

CORRESPONDENCE:
City Government 259
The Secret Ballot in Maryland 259
The Naming of America 259
The Boston Public Library 260

NOTES 260

REVIEWS:
Recent Novels 262
Harrisse's Discovery of North America.—II 264
Darwin Expounded by Romanes 266
Familiar Studies in Homer 267
The Speech of Monkeys 267
A History of Peru 267
Portraits d'Écrivains 268

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 269

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Principal Contents OF THE PERIODICAL PRESS.

QUESTIONS OF THE DAY.

(For the regular alphabetical catalogue see below.)

Asiatic Cholera.

42,790. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 25. Quarrel between Jenkins and Hamilton; arrests, etc. Cleveland, Ohio, commerce and science and the Steamboat experiment. Expenses and etc. N. Y. Herald, Sept. 26. 2,000 words.

42,790. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 26. Dr. Gibbs's death. Dr. Hamilton's work; progress of Stanhope's tests; Hamilton's illustrations; Cholera's record; supply cases in Paris, etc. Illustrated N. Y. Herald, Sept. 27. 1000 words.

42,791. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 27. Scare in New York, typhoid following the cholera. Stanhope's case; acid death for germs, etc. Illustrated. N. Y. Herald, Sept. 28. 2,000 words.

42,792. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 28. Stanhope's mission ended; Berlin denials; Paris, Hague, Brussels, St. Petersburg, Panama, and Havana reports; inoculation; N. Y. harbor news, etc. N. Y. Herald, Sept. 29. 2,000 words.

42,793. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 29. Stanhope's triumph no longer feared. State Board of Health bulletin; in Colombia; Dr. Lee's cause by intestinal washings; cholera in Europe, etc. N. Y. Herald, Sept. 30. 4,000 words.

42,794. Cholera News Bulletin, Sept. 30. Stanhope stories Berlin; Dr. Lee's irrigation system; water cure in cholera; European reports, inoculation; quarantine policies, etc. N. Y. Herald, Oct. 1. 3000 words.

42,795. Cholera News Bulletin, Oct. 1. Investigations into the nature of cholera; the two present forms of the epidemic; Stanhope not received in Berlin; cholera's course; returned immigrants, New York bulletins, etc. N. Y. Herald, Oct. 2. 4000 words.

42,796. Municipal Sanitary Needs. Editorial. Louisville Courier-Journal, Sept. 28. 1200 words.

42,797. Precautions Against Cholera on the German Railroads. Railroad Gazette, Sept. 30. 800 words.

42,798. A National Quarantine. Editorial. N. O. Times-Democrat, Sept. 27. 800 words.

42,799. Quarantine Methods. Comments and suggestions of Dr. E. O. Shakespeare. N. Y. Times, Sept. 28. 2500 words.

42,800. The Cholera-Fighters. The men at the bureau; persons, etc. by R. J. Edwards. Baltimore News, Sept. 29. 3200 words.

42,801. A Mega-mup Afoot; or, the Story of the Discontented Editor. [E. L. Godkin and the quarantine officers.] Life, Sept. 15. 1000 words.

42,802. Effect of President Harrison's Quarantine Proclamation. By Walter B. Chase. Brooklyn Medical Journal, Oct. 1000 words.

42,803. A National Quarantine. [It would by an encroachment on State rights and is undesirable.] Editorial N. O. Times-Democrat, Sept. 28. 900 words.

42,804. How Cholera is Kept Out. Methods of quarantine employed at New York. By Rufus B. Wilson. Portraits and illustrations. Chicago Times, Sept. 25. 3000 words.

42,805. Lessons of the Cholera. Quarantine, immigration, etc. By H. T. F. Rumpf. Transcript, Oct. 1. 1000 words.

42,806. Can St. Louis Cope with the Cholera Should It Reach that City? Disease-breeding condition of the City Dispensary. By A Physician Who Knows. St. Louis Post-Dispatch, Sept. 25. 1700 words.

42,807. Cholera and Immigration. Drainage and Revision of Law Advocated. Chicago Graphic, Sept. 24. 1050 words.

42,808. Death in West Park Lakes. Chicago infested by germs. Chicago Times, Sept. 27. 1000 words.

42,809. The Blessing of Cholera. [It has brought a sanitary revival.] Sanitary Era, Sept. 1500 words.

42,810. Good Effect of the Cholera. [The streets clean, the tenements habitable.] Editorial in N. Y. Times, Sept. 28. 1100 words.

42,811. The Prevention of Cholera Asiatica. By Hugh Hamilton. Science, Sept. 23. 1000 words.

*42,812. Safeguards Against the Cholera. By Walter Wyman, C. O. Wilson, S. W. Abbott, Cyrus Edson. N. A. Review, Oct. 8000 words.

42,813. Stanhope's Nerve. Editorial. N. O. Times-Democrat, Sept. 27. 800 words.

42,814. Asiatic Cholera. Vaccination. Editorial. Chicago Inter Ocean, Sept. 28. 900 words.

42,815. Cholera, and Some Indications for its Management. Scientific American, Oct. 1 3000 words.

42,816. The Technique of Intravenous Saline Infusions for the Relief of the Collapse of Cholera. By Lewis S. Pilcher. Brooklyn Medical Journal, Oct. 1700 words.

42,817. Injection of Saline Solution into the Femoral Artery in Cases of Cholera. By Robert H. M. Dawborn. Brooklyn Medical Journal, Oct. 1200 words.

42,818. Cholera and Cholera Cures. Formidary, Sept. 1600 words.

42,819. The Asiatic Plague Now Threatens America from Three Different Points. By Rufus B. Wilson. Portraits and illustrations. Minneapolis Tribune, Sept. 25. 2700 words.

42,820. The Late Cholera Scare. [The fright unreasonable.] Editorial. Phila. Ledger, Sept. 30. 800 words.

*42,821. Cholera. The Lesson of Preceding Epidemics By Lewis A. Sayre. Forum, Oct. 8000 words.

42,822. The Cholera in 1853. The plague in Palmyra, Mo. By Burt Green Wilder. St. Louis Globe-Democrat, Sept. 25. 1000 words.

42,823. Class Distinctions. [Rich and poor not treated alike by health officers; help in New York; cabin vs. steerage.] Editorial by T. in Liberty, Sept. 24. 1500 words.

42,824. Pyrin-Nutrition in the Prophylaxis and Treatment of Cholera. Report of Laboratory Experiments By D. D. Stewart. Medical News, Oct. 1. 2000 words.

Presidential Campaign of 1892.

42,825. Mr. Cleveland's Letter. Editorial in N. Y. Sun, Sept. 27 800 words.

42,826. Cleveland's Letter of Acceptance. Editorial N. O. Times-Democrat, Sept. 27 1000 words.

42,827. Cleveland's Letter Editorial. Chicago Times, Sept. 27. 900 words.

42,827. Cleveland's Letter of Acceptance. With editorial comment. Boston Globe, Sept. 27. 3000 words.

42,828. Mr. Cleveland's Letter [Wandering confusedly on a dozen plans than suffer a leader, dodging the real issue.] Editorial in Prov. Journal, Sept. 27. 1000 words.

42,829. Mr. Cleveland's Letter. Editorial in N. Y. Times, Sept. 27 1000 words.

42,830. Mr. Cleveland's Letter [No longer the voice of a nonentity but a leader.] Editorial in N. Y. Tribune. Sept. 27 1000 words.

42,831. Mr. Cleveland's Letter of Acceptance. Editorial in Phila. Ledger, Sept. 27. 1000 words.

42,832. Mr. Cleveland's Letter of Acceptance. [From a Republican point of view.] Editorial Topeka Capital, Sept. 28. 900 words.

42,833. Mr. Cleveland on Socialism. [Protection vs. the right of property.] Editorial in Chicago Herald, Sept. 28. 1600 words.

42,834. Republican Comment on Cleveland's Letter Editorial in N. Y. Times-Democrat, Sept. 28. 1300 words.

42,835. Mr. Cleveland's Letter By Morat Halstead. Cincinnati Commercial Gazette, Sept. 28. 3000 words.

42,836. The Reception of Mr. Cleveland's Letter Editorial in Phila. Ledger, Sept. 29. 1000 words.

42,837. What Was Omitted [in Cleveland's Letter] Editorial in Phila. Ledger, Oct. 1. 1200 words.

42,838. Cleveland's Anchorism. By John A. Cockerill N. Y. Herald, Oct. 2. 700 words.

42,839. I Speech of Chief Justice Day. 2 Cleveland's Letter. 3. Iowa for Cleveland. Editorials Des Moines Weekly Leader, Sept. 29. 1700 words.

42,840. Wool Quotations. Congressman Springer's action in a circular addressed wool-growers and the Springer bill. By Theodore Justice Phila. Ledger, Sept. 27. 1600 words.

42,841. "Nothing Like Leather." [Free trade in hides, no tariff tax on woollens.] Editorial. Chicago Times, Sept. 23. 1000 words.

42,842. New Scale Wage-Earner Who Needs a Woollen Blanket. American Industries, Sept. 24. 700 words.

42,843. Wool. Shall the American sheep be shorn for his wool or skinned for his mutton? By George H. Brickner, Thomas G. Lawson, and Benton McMillan. Tribune and Illustration. American Industries, Sept. 24. 2200 words.

42,844. Increase in the Use of Shoddy [as a Result of the McKinley Tariff]. Springfield Republican, Oct. 1. 800 words.

42,845. The Wool Question Dissected. By John DeWitt Warner. American Industries, Sept. 24 1300 words.

42,846. The Carpet Industry. Commissioner Peck interviewed. Interview with David M. Reed American Industries, Sept. 24 900 words.

*42,847. Tyranny—The Truth About Prices. Protected] lesson from a woman's shopping excursion. N. Y Tribune, Sept. 30. 3400 words.

42,848. The Tin Plate Liar. [Springer answered.] Editorial in Boston Herald Interpreter, Sept. 30 1000 words.

42,849. The Tin Plate Champion Knocked Out. Editorial in Indianapolis Sentinel, Sept. 28. 1000 words.

42,850. The Tin and Tin Plate Fraud Editorial Boston Herald, Oct. 2. 1000 words.

42,851. Protection Its Effect upon Wages The free trade view, by T. G. Shearman; the protection view, by F. Smith Chicago News Record, Sept. 24 2000 words.

42,852. Wages in New York. The building-trades: wages and hours, houses; what the tariff does. By V. C. Alderson Tribune, Sept. 30 3000 words.

42,853. The Democratic Tariff Plank; David B. Hill at Syracuse. Protected Wages Editorials in Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Sept. 21. 3000 words.

42,854. The McKinley Act and the Cost of Living By Senator Aldrich. Forum, Oct. 5000 words.

42,855. Protection and Wages. [Better wages in manufactured articles sold.] By T Carl Spalding. Santa Cruz Surf, Sept. 24 1000 words.

42,856. Bar Iron Figures Decline of earnings under McKinley bill Boston Herald, Oct. 1 1000 words.

42,857. Not Independents Tendencies. [Wages to protected and unprotected industries.] Editorial Wilmington News, Sept. 26. 1000 words.

42,858. Protection or Free Trade. Which? 11 [Duties as first levied, the first Congress, etc.] Tariff Hauls Express, Sept. 24 3000 words.

42,859. The Record. How the Democratic party has stood on the tariff since 1860. [Platform declarations brought together With editorial comment.] Louisville Courier-Journal Sept. 25. 6000 words.

42,860. The Republican Policy of Reciprocity [Misconception, and no results.] By William L. Wilson Forum, Oct. 6000 words.

42,861. Why Women Should Be Protectionists. By Miss Jennie Holbrook Patriotic Union and Home Association, Sept. 28. 1000 words.

42,862. A Menace to Trenton. [The repeal of duties upon china and earthenware.] Editorial in Trenton Times Sept. 29. 1000 words.

42,863. Watchfulness of Protectionism Editorial in Chicago Herald, Sept. 28. 1000 words.

42,864. Lessons from England [Depression of business, fear of a tariff.] Editorial N. Y. Commercial-Advertiser, Sept. 24. 1200 words.

42,865. Protectionism's Object. [The consumer ignored.] Editorial in Chicago Herald, Sept. 28. 1600 words.

42,866. Signatures of Republicans to the bounties has been injured.] Editorial in Phila. Record, Sept. 30. 1000 words.

43,867. A "Stable" Protective Tariff Impossible. address of H. T. Post, Sept. 26. 1200 words.

43,868. Prices and Wages in America and Europe. Public Opinion, Sept. 24. Tables Chicago News Record, Sept. 28. Two columns

43,869. Facts for Farmers. [McKinley's speech at Wilmington concluded.] Editorial in Wilmington News, Sept. 26. 1000 words.

43,870. The Tariff and Slavery. [Protectionists the allies of the slaveholders in the past.] Editorial in Boston Herald, Sept. 27 1000 words.

43,871. Results of the Tariff [Another Peck — Conner of Indiana.] Editorial in Indianapolis Sentinel, Sept. 25. 800 words.

43,872. Protection or Free Trade. Which? 111. [Historical review.] By S. W. Thompson Chicago News Record, Oct. 1 2000 words.

43,873. Taxation or Confiscation? [Republican principles of Marat and Robespierre.] Editorial in St. Louis Republic, Oct. 1. 900 words.

43,874. Who Pays the Duty? Vegetables and the McKinley Tariff. By T. J. Edwards. N. Y. Tribune, Oct. 2. 5000 words.

43,875. How a Protective Tariff Cheapens Labor [not Commodities] Editorial in Phila. Record, Oct 1. 1200 words.

43,876. Harrison's Admission. [Distant employees pocketing too large profits.] Editorial. Chicago Herald, Sept. 23. 1000 words.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 271

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

More About Money in Elections 274
Concerning the Hon. David Martin 274
Chief-Justice Paxson's Charge 275
Tennyson 276

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Paris Exhibition of Early American Maps. 278
Lamartine and Madame Charles 279

CORRESPONDENCE:

The University of Chicago 280
"Very Pleased" 281

NOTES 282

REVIEWS:

Sully's Human Mind 285
Japanese Economics 286
Imperial Federation 287
The Elements of Statics and Dynamics 288
Memorial History of New York City 289
A Footnote to History 289
The Livery Companies of the City of London. 290

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 290

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 293

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Presidential Chances 296
A Fair Election in New York 296
The Gospel of Hatred 297
Boa Locutus Est 298
Workingmen and the Tariff 299
English at Harvard, and Elsewhere 299

CORRESPONDENCE:

A House-to-House Primary 300
The Heat and the Declaration of Independence 301
Tintoretto's St. Mark 301

NOTES 301

REVIEWS:

Greek Epigrams 304
Frölich Public Life 305
Columbus Autographs 306
A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the Thirteenth Century 306
France under the Regency 307

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 308

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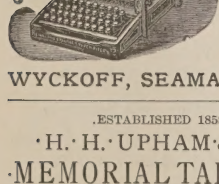

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 309

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
"A Gigantic Bunco Game" 312
Anti-Foodle League Wanted 312
An O d Bubb'e Iricked 313
Ways of Choosing Presidents 314

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Colliery Strike at Carmaux 315
The Funeral of Renan 316
Assisi and St. Francis 317

CORRESPONDENCE:
State Bank Currency 318
The Tariff on Tobacco 319
University Instruct on in Journalism 319
The Signing of the Declaration 319

NOTES 319

REVIEWS:
Payne's New World 321
Books About the Stage 322
Select Cases on Ev dence at the Common Law 323
B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783 323
Dist nction and the Criticism of Be'ief 324
Memorials of Sarah Childress Polk 325
History of the English Landed Interest, its Customs, Laws and Agriculture 325
Text-Book of Comparative Anatomy 325

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 326

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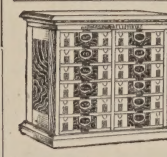

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 327

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Moral Issue 330
Making Politics of Science 330
A Short-Haul Decision 331
Spoken English 332

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

A Caribbean Among the Americanists 333

CORRESPONDENCE:

Tariff Principles of the G. O. P 334
The Modern Odyssey 334
Fame in the *University Magazine* 334
College English 334
"A Fervent" 335

NOTES 335

REVIEWS:

Besant's London 338
French Dante Manuscripts 339
State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff 339
The American Missionary in Japan 340
On the Modification of Organisms 340
Primitive Man in Ohio 341
Early Bibles of America 341

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 341

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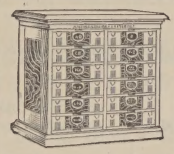

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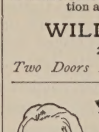

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This makes the question of veracity interesting to the public, since it brings it home to their health and their pockets.

Both these statements cannot be true.

There is a falsehood somewhere.

Where?

The Jaeger Co. back their statement with the following extract from a certificate of Dr. Jaeger, the originator of the Jaeger goods:

"I have assigned to Dr. Jaeger's Sanitary Woollen System Company, . . . New York, the sole right in the United States and Territories, of the use of my name . . . patents, trademarks, etc, and the sole right to sell in the United States and Territories all articles of Clothing, Bedding, etc., in connection with my Sanitary Woollen System, and stamped with the trademarks. (Signed) PROF. DR. G. JAEGER."

The only thing we have seen offered in support of the counter statement is a kind of voucher for the "reputation" of said house on 14th St. by a wholesale importer whose goods have been sold by said house on 14th St., for "pure wool" and "genuine Jaeger underwear," which goods, **upon analysis, proved to be about 40 per cent. cotton.**

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 343

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

A Great Example 346
Boston Bankers on State Bank-Notes 346
Legislative Discouragement of Business 347

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The "Duchess of Malfi" at the Independent Theatre 348
The United States at the Historico-American Exposition 349
Crime and Politics in Italy 350

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Guarantees for State Banks 352
Portraits in the *University Magazine* 352
The Cultivation of Trees 352

NOTES 352

REVIEWS:

Markham's Columbus 355
Children's Books 356
Bastable's Public Finance 357
Lord Loftus's Recollections 358
The West from a Car Window 359
Logarithmic and Other Mathematical Tables. 359
Children's Rights.—Children 360
A Dictionary of Botanical Terms 360

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 360

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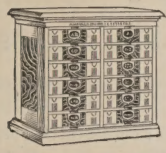

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 363

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Third Stage of Our Industrial Enfranchisement 366
The Need of Prompt Action 366
Silver Legislation 367
Secret Voting 368
An Instructive Comparison 369

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Mr. Gladstone's Oxford Lecture 370
On the Morrow of St. Bartholomew 371

CORRESPONDENCE:

New National Banknote Guarantees 372
The Nile Corvée 373
The Washington Genealogy 373
The Steel-Wire-Binding Nuisance 374
The Teaching of Spelling 374
College English 374

NOTES 375

REVIEWS:

Stephens's Orators of the French Revolution. 377
Old Italian Masters 379
Favorite Flies and their Histories 380

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 380

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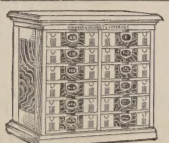

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 381

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Mr. Cleveland and Tammany 384
The Objections to an Extra Session 384
Who Are "Good Americans"? 385
The Problem of Sectarian Schools 386

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Henri De Virieu 387

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Pennsylvania Ballot 388
The Choosing of Electors by Districts 388
English in the Preparatory Schools 388
Misdirected Energy in the Fitting-schools 389
Steel-Wire Binding 390
Cousin Denoting Nephew 390
The Abandoned Farm 390

NOTES 391

REVIEWS:
Adams's Massachusetts Episodes 394
The Work of Burne-Jones 395
Recent Novels 396
The New Life of Dante Alighieri 398
A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles the Second 398
The Story of Uganda and the Victoria Nyanza Mission 398
The Battles of Frederick the Great 399
Barbara Fritchie 399

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 399

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POEMS. A SHADOW OF THE NIGHT, by THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH. IN A GALLERY, by JULIA C. R. DORR, illustrated by a full page after a painting by Simon De Vos. THE REPENTANCE OF EBEN PYNCHOT, a humorous story in verse by EDWARD S. MARTIN, illustrated by F. G. ATTWOOD.

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THE WORLD'S FAIR IN CHICAGO. A series will be published later in the year giving the impressions made by the Exhibition upon different observers of note, both American and foreign; and many of these observers will be also artists who will illustrate their own articles.

AMONG MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES to appear at the opening of the year may be mentioned the further contributions to the "Poor in Great Cities," Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's illustrated paper on the London plan for Home Aid to Invalid Children, etc. Of special interest also will be Professor Heilprin's authoritative account of the PEARY RELIEF EXPEDITION, of which he was the head (illustrated by the artist who accompanied the expedition for the purpose), a very interesting article by Octave Uzanne on the exhibition of WOMAN'S ART now going on in Paris, and articles upon artistic subjects, accounts of travels, etc., etc.

THE ILLUSTRATIONS. A fac-simile of a water-color drawing by the French artist, Marchetti, which will appear in the Christmas number, marks an important departure from the usual methods of reproduction in magazine illustration. It has always been the aim of the publishers to give the best renderings of original drawings in black and white, but in this plate a great step in advance is taken when the original drawing is reproduced not only in form and texture but in its coloring as well. The pictures of the year will represent the work not only of the well-known illustrators, but many drawings will also appear by artists who are best known as painters.

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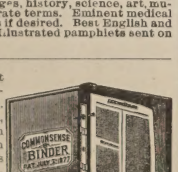

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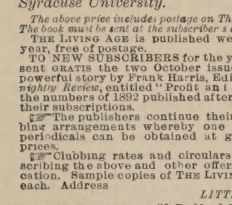

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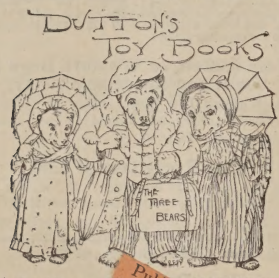

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 401

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Platforms and Principles 404
Repeal the Silver-Purchase Act 404
Politics and Currency 405
The Glorification of Athletics 406
New Features in Railway Finance 407

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Religious Question in France 408

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Colleges and the President-Elect 409
The Election 409
Who Elect Congressmen? 409
The Tariff and the Workingman's Mind 409
The Ohio Ballot 409
The Ethics of Publishing 410
Ballad History 410
The La Cosa Map, and Others 410
Fraudulence and False Profession 411

NOTES 412

REVIEWS:
Cotton Mather 414
Children's Books.—II 415
A Hanoverian-English Officer a Hundred Years Ago 416
The Bible and English Prose Style 416
Goethe's Faust 417
Admiral Farragut 417
The Old English Manor 418
A Tour around New York 419

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 419

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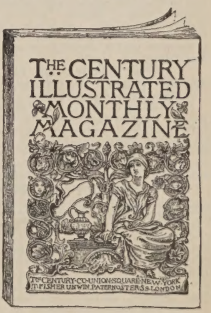

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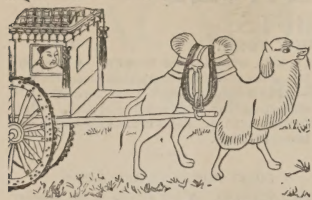

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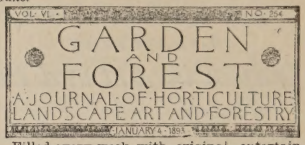

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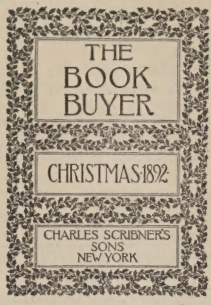

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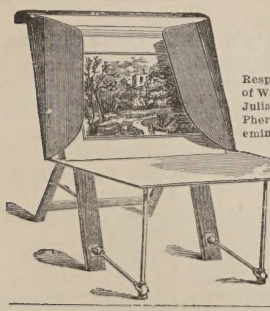

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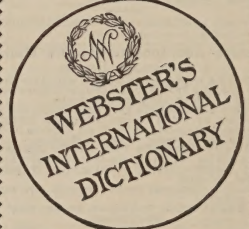

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 421

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Brussels Conference 424
French View of the Conference 424
Sunday at Chicago Next Year 425
The L. test "Hill-Murphy Conspiracy" 425
The French Trouble 426

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Italian Elections 427
Continental Travelling—and Ireland 428
Henri de Virieu.—II 429

CORRESPONDENCE:

The National Finances 430
William Clark (Not Clarke) 431
Stained-Glass Windows 431
The Dante Sonnet 431

NOTES 431

REVIEWS:

Symonds's Michelangelo 434
More Novels 435
Studies in Modern Music 437
A Companion to the Iliad for English Readers.—Fragments of the Greek Comic Poets 438
The Armies of To-day 438
Recent Rambles 439
Paraguay 439
Fort Pitt and Letters from the Frontier 439
The Place of the Story in Early Education, and Other Essays 439

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 439

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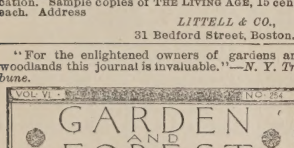

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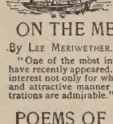

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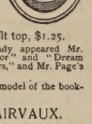

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 441

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
A Useful Reminder 444
State and Federal Taxation 444
Railway Pooling 445
English Election Contests 446

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Autumn's Art in London 447

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Post-office in Politics 448
The Pennsylvania Ballot Law 448
Photography versus Wood-Engraving 448
Stained Glass Asalia 448
Cousin and Niece 449

NOTES 449

REVIEWS:
Recent Poetry 452
Brownell's French Art 454
Children's Books.—III. 455
Eighteenth Century Diplomacy 457
Moltke 458
The World's Metal Monetary Systems 458
Neohellenica 459
Selections from the Letters of Geraldine Endsor Jewsbury to Jane Welsh Carlyle 460
Life in Motion 460
Afloat and Ashore on the Mediterranean 460
Some Strange Corners of Our Country 460
Schoolboy Days in Russia 461
The Breech-Loader, and How to Use It 461

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 461

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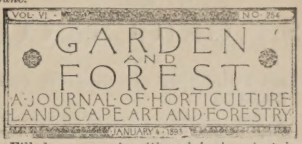

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 463

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

End of the Silver Conference 466
United States Pension Bonds 466
More Foreign Joy at Republican Defeat 467
Progress of the Working-Classes 467
The French Corruption 468

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Poetry in Italy 469
MS. Charts in the Public Record Office 471

CORRESPONDENCE:

One Thing Needful 472
The Price of Silver 472
The Washington Pedigree Assured 473
Mrs. Glasse 473

NOTES 473

REVIEWS:

Florio's Montaigne 477
The World's Great Streets 478
Some Illustrations of England 479
Reminiscences of Döllinger 480
Man in Art 481
The Life and Times of Bishop White 481
A Concordance to the Septuagint 482
The Great World's Farm 482

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 483

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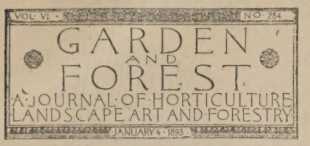

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 485

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

"Personalities" 488
The Maynard Case 488
Business on Sentimental Principles 489
The Panama Corruption Fund 490

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Washington Relics in England 491
The Memoirs of Count Cheverny.—I 491

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Massachusetts Amendment 492
Lord Loftus's 'Diplomatic Reminiscences' 493

NOTES 493

REVIEWS:

Wright's Man and the Glacial Period 496
Memorials of Count von Roon 497
Rhodes's History of the United States 498
Nadaillac's Prehistoric Manners 500
The Naturalist in La Plata 501
In Arctic Seas 502
The Acts and Resolves, Public and Private, of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay 502
Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture 502

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 502

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1891	1,394,177 87
Total Marine Premiums	$5,256,865 84
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1891, to 31st December, 1891	$3,784,723 36
Losses paid during the same period	$1,836,325 11
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$784 790 57

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Cash in Bank	193,895 88
Amount	$12,278,582 17

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